# *Towards a Neo-Harvard Case Study Method*

## The Dialogical Development of Design Principles and a 'Hardwired Humans' MBA Prototype

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by

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# List of acronyms

| Acronym | Meaning of Acronym |
|---|---|
| AACSB | Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business |
| AO | Andrew O'Keeffe |
| AoL | Assurance of Learning |
| CBD | Central Business District |
| CSR | Corporate Social Responsibility |
| DNA | Deoxyribonucleic Acid |
| EI | Emotional intelligence |
| HBS | Harvard Business School |
| HH | Hardwired Humans |
| HR | Human Resources |
| IBM | International Business Machines |
| IMPM | International Masters in Practicing Management |
| JGI | Jane Goodall Institute Australia |
| LSI | Life Styles Inventory |
| MBA | Master of Business Administration |
| MGSM | Macquarie Graduate School of Management |
| MOOC | Massive Online Open Course |
| OB | Organisational Behaviour |
| SKM | Sinclair Knight Mertz |
| TD | Tamzyn Dorfling |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNISA | University of South Africa |
| UNSW | University of New South Wales |
| UTS | University of Technology Sydney |
| Wits | University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg |

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# Thesis abstract

Early in the 20th century, the Harvard case study method – a pedagogical tool that teaches through the use of story – was introduced by the Harvard Business School. This method has been increasingly used across the globe, but since the turn of the century there has been theoretical criticism of the Harvard case study method in teaching appropriate leadership skills, and practical initiatives attempting to transcend it. Yet the theoretical critique and pedagogic initiatives have not been combined to create principle-based design courses that draw on the strengths yet overcome the weaknesses of the Harvard method.

Drawing on a comprehensive review of the critical literature, a case-based analysis of a successful evolutionary psychology-based leadership programme, and an integrative and cyclical dialogue with the programme developer–facilitator, this dissertation develops and prototypes a set of design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method.

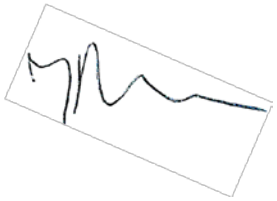
There are four chief contributions made, the first being a comprehensive consolidation of the pedagogical literature bearing on the case study method. Secondly, this is translated into principles that build on the strengths yet overcome the weaknesses of the method. Thirdly, this work provides a case study analysis of a successful leadership programme, generating case-based recommendations for successful pedagogic delivery. Finally, this work brings together findings generated by the theory, case study data, and dialogue with the practitioner, as a set of practical pedagogical design principles and a neo-Harvard case study method prototype suitable for delivery in a university-based Master of Business Administration (MBA) setting.

# Thesis certification

This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of PhD, in the Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Macquarie University. This represents the original work and contribution of the author, except as acknowledged by general and specific references.

The research presented in this thesis was approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (***Appendix A***) on the 2 May 2011 (5201100277(D).

I hereby certify that this has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other university or institution.



Tamzyn Dorfling
July, 2015

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I first began talking to Professor Richard Badham eight years ago, when I contacted him about writing 'Harvard-style' case studies, and whilst he showed little interest in this when we met, he invited me to embark on a PhD journey to explore possible alternatives to the Harvard case study method. It was extremely tempting, as I had relished writing cases over the years, and it would provide the opportunity to get to know more about the method. But I knew my life's work involved transformation and self-knowledge, so how could I combine the two interests?

Over the years, Richard patiently waited for me to realise that it would all eventuate in a thesis of this nature, and he has been the finest supervisor for whom I could have wished. He always has the right words at the right time, which later ring in my ears exactly when I need to hear them. Through his guidance, I have learned a lot more than about MBA pedagogy and the case method; he has taught me the value of learning how to learn and the power of looking at life in new ways. He has shown me that anything is within the realm of possibility, and helped me to think more critically, and innovatively, and with humour never far away. And with his help, I have found enormous fulfilment in this thesis as I have come to realise how much the findings translate into many other aspects of life. For teaching and pedagogy is about engagement and inspiration, the 'vehicles' that switch us on, opening us up to new experiences.

Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans, the management education practitioner with whom I have worked closely over this PhD journey, has been another extraordinary teacher. It has been a thoroughly refreshing experience, and one of great worth, to learn from his extensive experience about what works in practice in teaching the leaders of today. The 'lens' of human instincts, grounded in evolutionary psychology, has provided novel insights that make sense of human behaviour, and in ways that I would never have imagined through his unusual Zoo-based teaching programme. How will I ever forget those stories of application to the workplace and of course the 'sticky' messages: 'the first seven words', 'the 'gossip map', and the 'alpha male'?

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Background and statement of the problem

The 'Harvard case study method' is defined as a case history which serves as the foundation for complex interaction between the learner, the class of learners, and the instructor. In its ideal form it aims to help learners understand how to deal with specific business situations, and draws on the 'mating' of action and theory (Christensen & Hansen, 1987). The case method was first used in 1908, albeit partially, until 1924 when it became the prime teaching method at Harvard Business School (HBS). The different historical periods during which the method was used – mechanistic, humanistic, scientific – impacted on the nature of the method in both content and method terms, yet the traditional and dominant form has remained the same in conceptual terms throughout its existence (Rippin, Booth, Bowie & Jordan, 2002). In a Harvard Business School publication, it is said that the case study method is characterised by 'continuity and change' (Barnes, Christensen & Hansen, 1994), highlighting the continuity in terms of elementary concept and pedagogical intent, i.e. to foster practical decision-making and problem solving skills, and the change in terms of format and use.

When the School first opened its doors there was no existing body of business knowledge, and there was a need to prove its legitimacy as business was considered an inferior occupation (Kimball, 1995). The Harvard University's leaders made reference to business as a profession, which resonated well as it meant that the ethical and practical aspects of business were as important as business knowledge (Khurana,. 2007). The early focus was practical vocational training and reasoning ability (Rippin et al., 2002) and it was decided that the case method, used successfully by the Law School, was relevant for these purposes and would be adopted (Christensen et al., 1987). At first, prominent businessmen were asked to present their own stories directly to small groups in an instructor-centric classroom (Copeland, 1954), after which the Business School began to collect facts intended to form a body of business knowledge, and this was transformed into a written case format (Towl, 1969).

The case study method typically involves an incomplete narrative about a particular business problem (Greenhalgh, 2007), enticing students to identify closely with the chief protagonist in thinking through how to practically respond in making a decision (Christensen, 1991; Lundberg, Rainsford, Shay & Young, 2001). Students receive the case study prior to meeting in class, and are expected to analyse and come to grips with the main elements involved, forming an opinion and preparing for discussion (Mesny, 2013). Students are actively involved in class discussion, working towards a deep analysis of the specifics of the case, co-constructing meaning, and considering of alternatives and possible courses of action (Ellet, 2007; Harvard Business School, 2013a). The discussion generated by the Harvard case study method includes a wide variety of forms of interpersonal communication (Osigweh, 1987). This teaching method has typically aimed at

enhancing managerial skills development, and was not and is not intended to critique the notion of management itself (Rippin et al., 2002) .

As the use of the case method has spread, it has been used in other ways, and with different educational objectives which help to make sense of increasing complexity in organisations. In this enterprise, the use of the case method has mirrored the changing needs within management education, and has been aimed at developing critical thinking skills (Rippin et al., 2002). Since the turn of the century, intensifying theoretical criticism of the dominant form of the Harvard case study method in teaching appropriate leadership skills, has led to practical initiatives attempting to transcend it. Variants have emerged that either emphasise or downplay many of the traditional characteristics of the method (Mesny, 2013), reflecting the shifting purpose of management education, for example when learning to learn is prioritised so that leaders can be more responsive (Rippin et al., 2002).

Scholars from around the world have, consequently, argued that the traditional case method needs to be transformed in different ways:

- to match reality more closely through more experiential (Dean & Fornaciari, 2002; Kreber. 2001) or live methods (Daly, 2013; Roth. & Smith, 2009);
- to provide the opportunity to make sense of complexity through using various perspectives or frames (Ardalan, 2015; Greenhalgh, 2007; Maiksteniene, 2013; Walck 1988);
- to develop self-reflective capabilities through self-analytic or self-authored cases (Ashamalla & Crocitto, 2001; Foster & Carboni, 2009; Rasmussen, 1984);
- to more greatly enhance interpersonal skills and participation (Argyris, 1980; Bailey, Sass, Swiercz, Seal & Kayes, 2005; Desiraju & Gopinath, 2001; Griffith, 1999; Rosier, 2002, 2005; Siciliano & McAleer, 1997; Stewart & Winn, 1996; Uslay, 2007);
- to provide more culturally relevant and localised cases in various geographic locales (Berrell, Wrathall & Wright, 2001; Saner & Yiu 1994); and
- to draw on more sophisticated technology by teaching cases online or in an interactive virtual capacity (Hill, Kim, Zbylut, Gordon, Ward & Vowels, 2008; Liedtka, 2001; Lowe, Faniglione, Hetherington & Millard, 2015; McCarthy & McCarthy, 2006; O'Connell, McCarthy & Hall, 2004; Rollag, 2010; Webb, Gill & Poe, 2005).

However, these theoretical critique and pedagogic initiatives have not been combined to create principle-based design courses that draw on the strengths yet overcome the weaknesses of the Harvard method. This dissertation aims to address this gap by developing and prototyping a set of design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method that can be used in the MBA business school setting. In pursuit of this goal, this thesis provides a comprehensive review of the literature critical of

the Harvard case study and traditional MBA education, a case-based analysis of a successful evolutionary psychology-based leadership programme held at the Zoo (Hardwired Humans)[1], and an integrative and cyclical dialogue with the programme developer-facilitator. This enterprise has been guided by my central research question - 'What does a neo-Harvard case study method look like, that captures the strengths but overcomes the limitations of this traditional method for Master of Business Administration (MBA) education?'

This main research question breaks down into the following sub-questions:

- What works well and what does not in using the Harvard case study method to teach MBA education?
- What can be learned from research on past and future MBA education regarding effective pedagogical content and method for the education of MBAs?
- What educational principles can be derived from current evaluations and academic reports on the present and future of MBA education?
- In what ways does a successful experiential management education programme (Hardwired Humans, Australia), drawing on interview-based evaluations and dialogue with its facilitator, provide us with insights into desirable pedagogical content and methods for a neo-Harvard case study approach?
- What design principles for a neo-Harvard case study approach can be derived from these literature reviews and the empirical study?
- How can these design principles be used and developed in the design of a new experiential neo-Harvard case study experiential MBA programme?

## 1.2 Justification for the research

Since the turn of the millennium there has been increasing criticism of the Harvard case study method in its traditional form. However, these critiques have not been comprehensively and systematically integrated. In general, approaches have been based on a general and loose view of the Harvard case study method, and this work aims to further critical debate by incorporating them into a more holistic view of this teaching method and its possible alternatives. Furthermore, despite appeals for an alternative, there has been little clarification around what aspects work well and should be kept, and what modified, and both of these are exemplified in both the neo-Harvard case study design principles developed and the neo-Harvard case study method prototyped for MBA education.

[1] Hardwired Humans is a management consulting firm that designs people strategies based on human instincts, and holds leadership development programmes at the Zoo – see http://hardwiredhumans.com/. Hereinafter it is referred to in this thesis as the 'Zoo programme'.

## 1.3 Rationale for this choice of topic

I have extensive experience in empirical research, having managed more than 50 socio-economic, industrial development or market research projects. I have also been trained in writing cases according to the Harvard case study method, and have written more than 30 cases of this nature. During my 20 years of research consulting and case-writing, I have worked in universities and business schools in various capacities: as lecturer, researcher, consultant, project leader and case-writer. During that time I also completed my Master of Arts degree which involved extensive empirical research (at least 60% of the degree was research oriented) of organisations supporting small business.

The work that I did that is most pertinent to the focus of this thesis involved the completion of a large number of business management case studies which were used extensively at top ranking business schools in South Africa (Wits Business School, Gordon Institute for Business Science-University of Pretoria and UNISA[2] School for Business Leadership). I have also written cases for the Australian Graduate School of Management (UNSW Business School) and the University of Technology, Sydney (UTS) in Australia, and for private management education consultancies. Furthermore, I was involved in developing case studies of businesses and empirical research which informed a lively reality-based television series, the South African Management Challenge (aired in South Africa in 2006).

I have enjoyed learning about the life stories of the protagonists and as a writer and interviewer I was in a 'bird's-eye' position to understand how their minds worked and what they most valued in life. Perhaps most importantly, I learned that they loved what they did, and it was reflected in their career success. In writing cases in the Harvard case study method style, with its formalised and structured approach, I have, however, found it increasingly constraining and highly predictable. I have been conscious that in writing them, I am portraying a view of the business challenge that is my reality alone, and fails to portray the actual situation faced by the protagonist especially in terms of emotions and thoughts when under pressure. Furthermore, I have had feedback from various university lecturers that they are looking for something different. For instance, one of them wanted to have a case developed that comprised a modular design: it would have a main foundation case with 'plug-ins' added in as time passed. Another was interested in the idea of what she called a 'snowballing' case which could be used as a 'voyage of discovery' wherein the case grew as students became more interested in the learning material. Furthermore, in my prospecting at business schools abroad for case-writing work, I have recently also had responses that were far more directly disinterested in the method:

[2] University of South Africa.

> We have moved away from a Harvard production-type case model to more of a customised learning intervention model. It's more hands-on and consultative. While we still produce complex cases for faculty, the need for integrated learning design solutions and case scenarios is far greater.

Through my experience in the field of management education – and more specifically the development of management education materials – I have understood the need for practicing managers and leaders to learn from their own experience through internal reflection and honest feedback. Many of the case studies involved in-depth interviewing of well-known business and political leaders and entrepreneurs, and through this process I have become interested in various aspects of self-development and human behaviour. It has driven my desire to develop a case study methodology which is different from the Harvard case approach in that it reflects an emphasis on people dimensions in teaching about management development. Ideally it would have an approach that encapsulates a 'whole person' view in the workplace, and which reveal how knowledge and application of the four aspects of self – body, mind, heart, and spirit – when in balance can improve the effectiveness of managers in their role at work. This intention is also inspired by an alternative view of self-development to that provided by the Harvard case study method – the 'Oneness Model' developed by Deborah Christensen (Christensen & Walker, 2004), who happens to be the daughter-in-law of renowned C. Roland Christensen, the world's leading authority on case method teaching (Harvard Business School, 2011).

## 1.4 Frameworks and key model applicable to the study

**Frameworks and key model for the study**

A theoretical framework used to inform the study framework was developed from a review of various scholarly sources: (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a; Boyatzis, 2008; Chia, 2009; Conger, 1992; Datar, Garvin & Cullen, 2011; Gallos, 2009; Mintzberg, 2004a; O'Toole, 2009).

This framework is the subject of Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 is the theoretical framework for management education pedagogies of the future used in the study to frame the context within which the study framework was formulated. As a theoretical framework it is derived from the research of a number of scholars who have published work in the field of teaching and learning with respect to management education.

As a theoretical framework it provides a conceptual and relational structure derived from research that identifies the variables or factors that make a reality in the delivery of MBA education under particular conditions – including how these variables and factors relate in the delivery of different learning approaches. The framework, acting in the conceptual role, guided the thinking, organising and framing of the study area.

The study is wrapped around the use of the case study method as one of the very important and successful tools used in the past and present to support the delivery of effective management education – MBA education in particular.

The study specifically explores the possibilities to improve the teaching and learning results achieved through the use of an improved case study method in the future. The study seeks to make connections and linkages to the key drivers of effective teaching and learning – drivers that are explored during the research study. A significant deliverable of the study is to paint a very clear picture of key design principles associated with a neo-Harvard case study method prototype for delivery in a specified MBA curriculum setting – a prototype that is expected to more effective than the traditional Harvard case study method.

The Figure 1.1 theoretical framework that has a focus on management education pedagogies of the future has four core elements. The four quadrants in the figure are:

1. Learning approaches using more sophisticated techniques;
2. Learning approaches closer to reality and more innovative;
3. Learning approaches making use of new forms of knowledge and mental models;
4. Learning approaches drawing on other disciplines.

Factors associated with each of the' learning quadrants' are detailed on the figure.

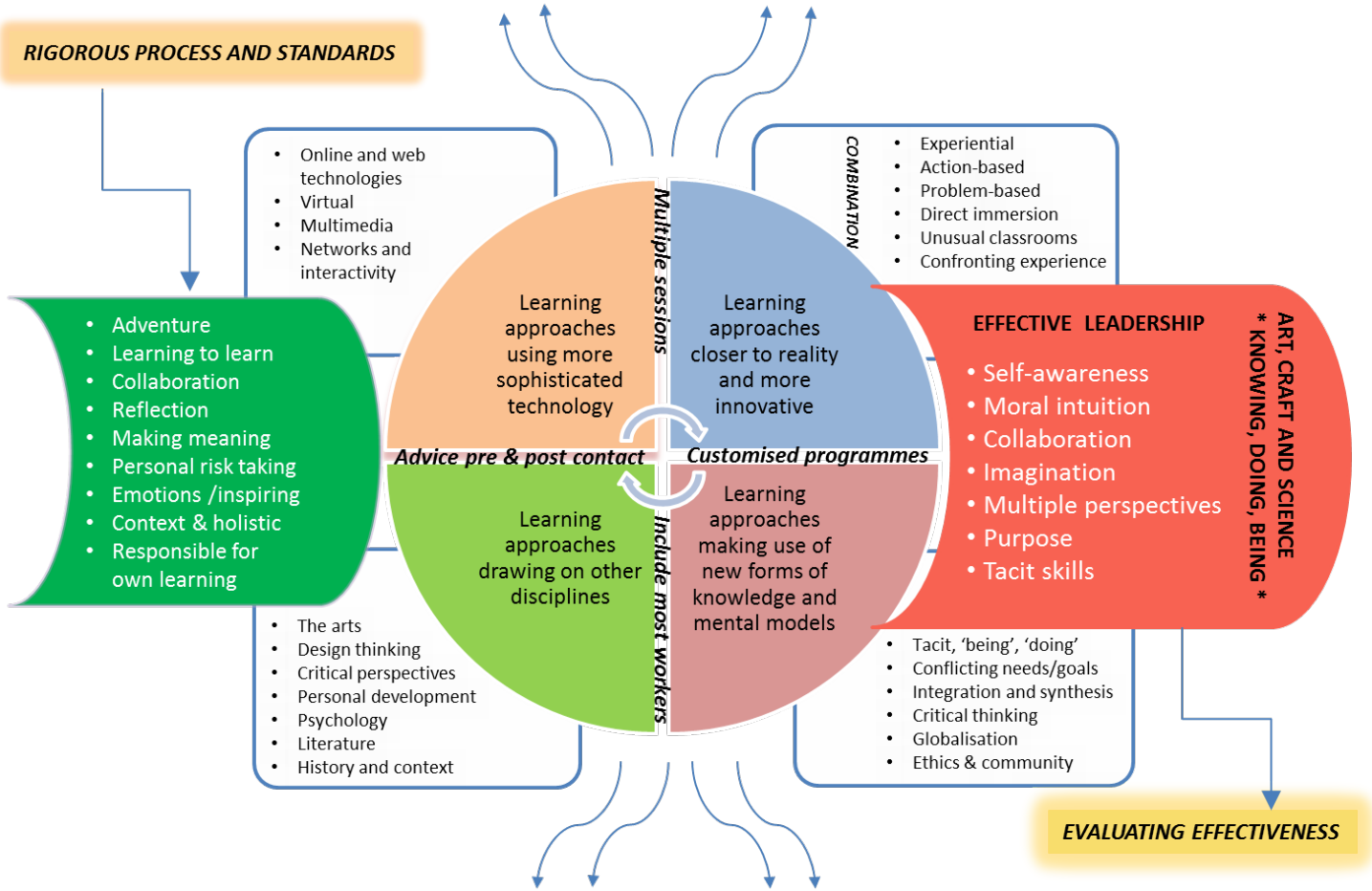
Key factors that act as an input to the teaching and learning processes are mapped on the figure.

Key factors associated with desired outputs/outcomes of the teaching-learning processes are likewise mapped on the figure.

The very important need for 'rigorous process and standards' for all aspects of the design and delivery of teaching and learning processes is recognised and highlighted. 'Evaluating effectiveness' throughout all aspects of the teaching and learning processes is likewise recognised and highlighted.

Figure 1.2 provides insight into the visibility of linkages and connections of the theoretical framework (Figure 1.1) that are explored within the study.

Connections and linkages of this model to the study framework are processed in subsequent chapters of this study. The neo-Harvard case study method prototype has been evolved within the domain of 'management education pedagogies of the future' and is consequently considered by myself as highly relevant to this study.




Source: Developed from various including (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a; Boyatzis, 2008; Chia, 2009b; Conger, 1992; Datar et al., 2011; Gallos, 2009; Mintzberg, 2004a; O'Toole, 2009)

**Figure 1-1: Theoretical framework for management education pedagogies of the future**

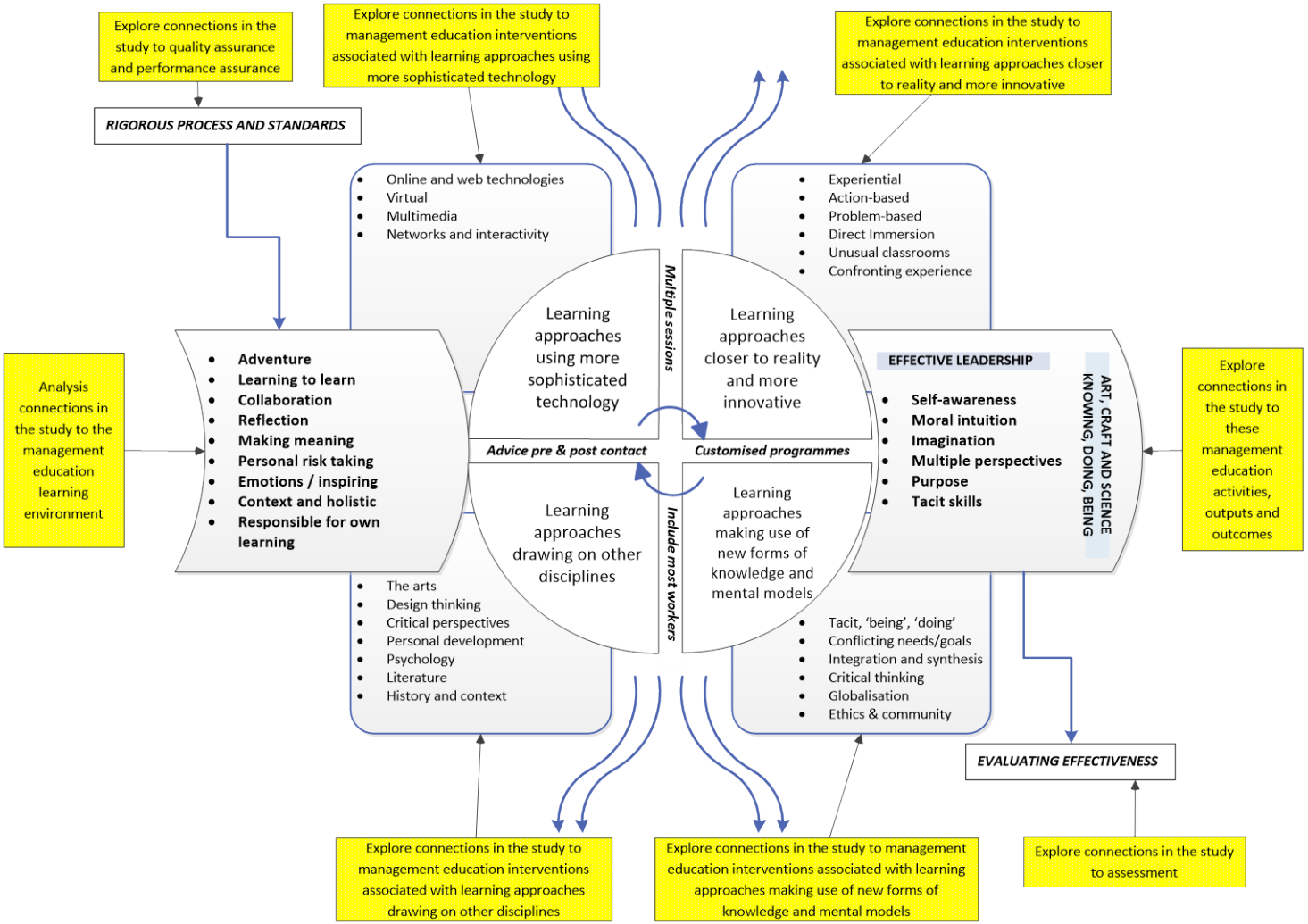



**Figure 1-2: Guidelines with connection nodes for setting up the study framework**

**Framework for the study**

The framework used to approach the 'neo-Harvard case study method' research comprised:

1. Theoretical perspective: literature review of the Harvard case study method history and main points of difference;
2. Theoretical perspective: literature review of MBA education in the past, history, pedagogies and critique;
3. Theoretical perspective: the future of MBA education;
4. Empirical perspective: evolutionary psychology and the case of the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme and its evaluation;
5. Action research perspective: dialogue with Hardwired Humans practitioner;
6. Qualitative research perspective: personal interviews in evaluating Hardwired Humans in action.

The framework has direct connections to the design of principles for the 'neo-Harvard case study method prototype'. The study framework is the subject of Figure 1.3.

During the conduct of empirical research and associated case study, of the qualitative research and of the action research constant reference was made to the theoretical framework. The linkages to the four learning quadrants and associated factors, the input factors and the output/outcome factors are detailed in Figure 1.2. The connections and linkages – connection nodes - targeted for exploration during the research study are mapped in the 'Guidelines for setting up the study framework' that is Figure 1.2.

Connections are made to input and output 'assurance' - these aspects were however considered to be on the periphery of the mainstream focus to articulate 'design principles' associated with the neo-Harvard case study method prototype.

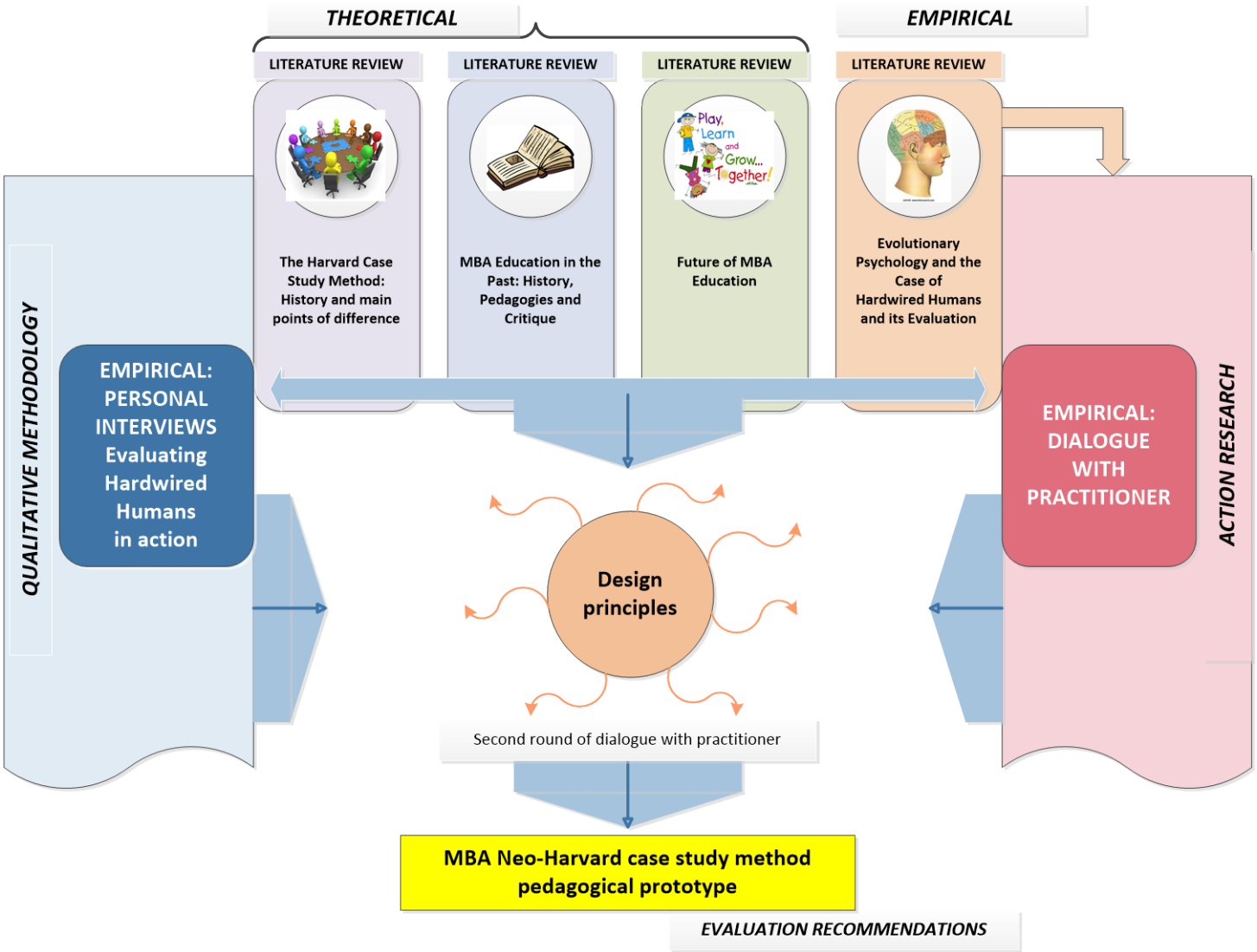



**Figure 1-3: Study framework for the MBA neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype**

**Design principles model**

A model, developed within the framework, was created to impose some order within the study on how variables are potentially interrelated. This enabled the formulation of questions and further enabled analysis of matters aligned to the chosen framework. The model reveals design principles as they apply to the 'neo-Harvard study method' pedagogical prototype. The model is the subject of Figure 1.4.

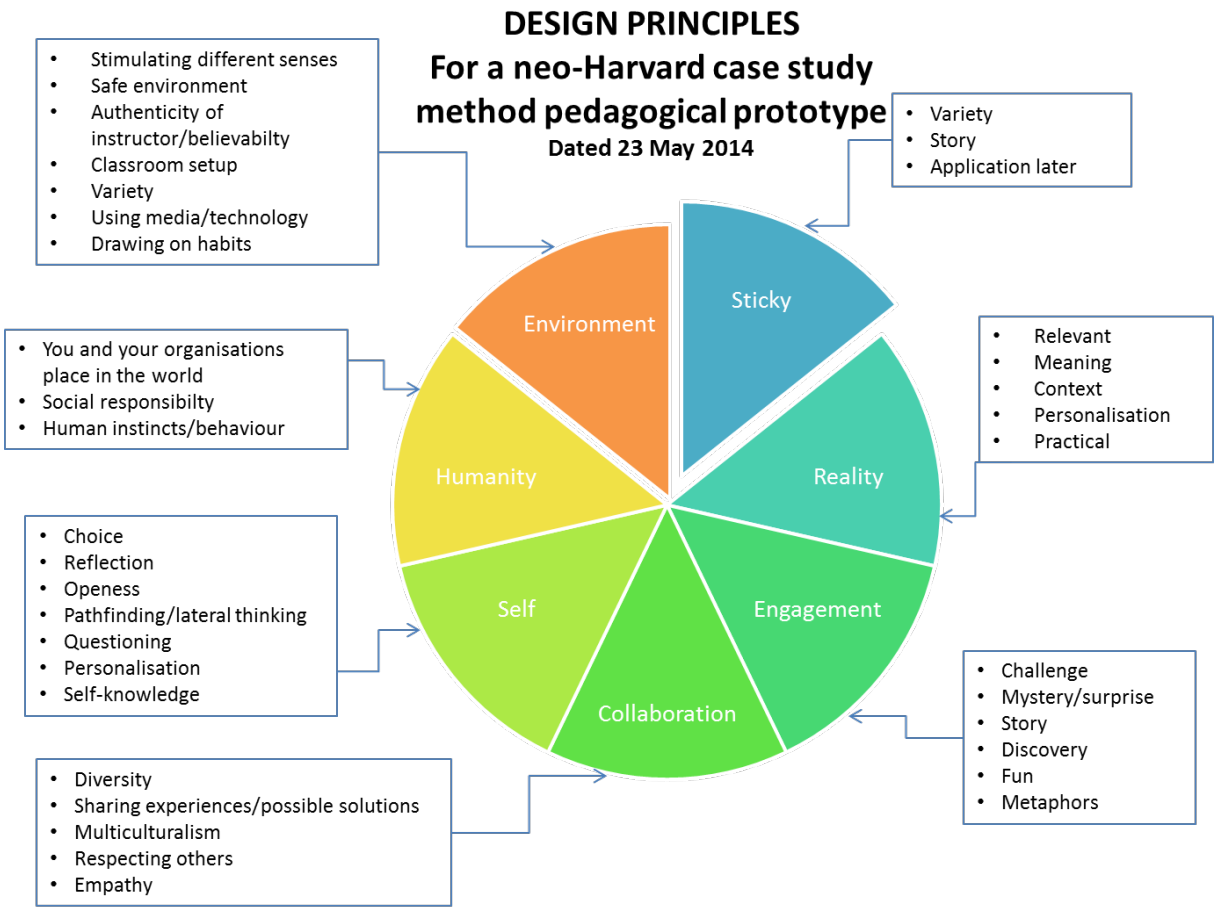



**Figure 1-4: Model used to inform the development of design principles**

## 1.5 Research design and methodology

The thesis is informed by two strands of empirical research, the aim of which was to develop a set of design principles and a neo-Harvard case study method prototype appropriate for MBA business settings. The two strands included:

1) an empirical study which is a critical evaluation of a successful Australian experiential education programme, Hardwired Humans Zoo programme (in-depth interviews and participant observation); and

2) an integrative and cyclical dialogue consisting of a series of interviews and co-design of an MBA course prototype with the programme developer–facilitator Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans (dialogue with a practitioner).

In the dialogue with Andrew O'Keeffe, regular interviews and discussions took place and in these interactions the learning was a two-way process. In each set of interviews there was a focus on a particular challenge: 1) developing the story of Hardwired Humans and its teaching methods; 2) practitioner's own critique of the Zoo programme; 3) discussion about design principles from the literature reviews and the empirical critique of the Zoo programme; 4) formulating the master set of pedagogical design principles; and 5) operationalising the design principle model: developing the neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype for the MBA module. Much of the study involved the emergence and development of design principles, drawing on the literature review, informed by the program evaluation and refined and applied through on-going collaboration with the practitioner over a four-year period. As such, the set of design principles was continually being refined throughout this time. Through the probing dialogue that occurred with the practitioner, valued insight and rich data emerged that informed the final key set of design principles and their use in the creation of a new pedagogical prototype.

A challenge for me throughout this research process was my initial concern for order in the scientific positivist sense, which I wanted to remain aware of, as I knew it might constrain the search for creative solutions. I saw my 'lens' as similar to the staid lens within which the Harvard case study method had been traditionally written and taught, and I sensed that the only way I was going to find ground-breaking answers to my research problem was by turning the 'kaleidoscope' so that what I was looking for and what I was looking with shifted from one view to another. I remember, at a presentation level, when, within a few months of having begun this research process, I was required to deliver a talk regarding the details of my PhD. It was highly confronting for me as I knew I could only work within the constraints of what I knew at the time – which was less than I wanted to know. It was a typical logically organised mechanistic delivery, and afterwards my Macquarie Graduate School of Management (MGSM) supervisor Professor Richard Badham commented that it would have transformed my presentation if at some juncture my PowerPoint had merely broken with the formal style and provided a fresh creative style that symbolised in form as well as content the new kind of teaching method for which I was searching.

The secondary research performed involved literature reviews comprising three bodies of management education literature: 1) history and main points of difference in the Harvard case

study method; 2) evolution, pedagogies, and criticisms of past MBA education; and 3) transformative possibilities for the future of MBA education. This thesis examines the strengths and weaknesses of each body of literature as a basis for developing design principles for a neo-Harvard case study pedagogical model or method.

Underlying the use of the research methods selected for the purposes of this study – which includes participant observation and storytelling, as well as interviews and dialogue – lies an interpretivist paradigm, which is constructivist by nature. This is because the interpretivist paradigm involves a perspective of reality as being socially constructed, influenced by people making sense of their environment and themselves, and is thus centrally concerned with subjective qualitative occurrences that are rich in context (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991). In employing a qualitative approach, it is presumed that social reality is not independent and objective, separate from those who interpret, and ultimately enact, it.

The particular constructivist approach that I am taking is different to positivist paradigms in that it is inductive and supports theory generation, whilst positivist paradigms employ a deductive approach wherein theories are tested against the data collected. The constructivist paradigm, as it is used here, aims to understand human experience and the 'meaning making' that occurs in this process (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006) as 'knowledge is established through the meanings attached to the phenomena studied' (Krauss, 2005, p. 759)). This paradigm, which is based on the natural inclination of humans to find meaning in their experiences (Krauss, 2005), recognises the importance of the participants' views of the subject of study, and consequently their experience and background impact on the research findings. This study draws on constructivism in that understanding is gained by collecting, interpreting and interrogating subject perceptions; while being mindful of the existence of multiple frames and realities.

In this study there is also a partial reliance on a participatory paradigm in co-constructed learning, which means that intellectual and practical development is sought through democratic collaboration between researcher and subject (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). This paradigm is compatible with, and often informed by, constructivism and much of the work builds on the extension of some constructivist theories developed towards the end of the 20$^{th}$ century. In the work of Piaget, Bruner and Vygotsky, for example, research focus is shifted away from the individual learner to include collaborative and social aspects of learning (Wood & Bennett, 1998).

In drawing on and deploying such principles, dialogue and participation in the form of collaboration has been an important part of the qualitative research methodology process, not

only in terms of regular interaction with an academic expert in constructivist and practice-based learning (my MGSM supervisor, Professor Richard Badham), but also the on-going dialogue with the practitioner Andrew O'Keeffe. The interviews with the managers in large Australian organisations that attended O'Keeffe's Hardwired Human programme at the Zoo could also be seen as partially collaborative in the sense that the interviews moved from a semi-structured format to include more open and reflective discussions with the interviewees about their feelings and stories about their experience of management education.

## 1.6 Contributions to knowledge and evidence of originality

There are four chief contributions made, the first being a comprehensive consolidation of the pedagogical literature bearing on the case study method. The thesis is informed by the findings generated by a literature review of three bodies of pedagogical research – history and main points of difference in the Harvard case study method; evolution, pedagogies, and criticisms of past MBA education; and transformative possibilities for the future of MBA education. The thesis examines the strengths and weaknesses of each body of literature as a basis for developing design principles for a post-Harvard case study pedagogical model or method.

In the second place, this is translated into design principles that build on the strengths yet overcome the weaknesses of the method. These were developed on the basis of the three literature reviews, the evaluation of the successful Hardwired Humans experiential small-group programme, and the trialling of the design principles in the co-production and development of a Hardwired Humans neo-Harvard case study-based programme. The elements of each design principle, elaborated in detail in the thesis, provided the foundational material for the new prototype. The seven main design principles identified, employed and finalised were pedagogical processes for tapping into the following human characteristics: 1) emotion, 2) moral intuition, 3) self-awareness, 4) collaboration, 5) curiosity, 6) experience, and 7) imagination.

Thirdly, this work provides a case study analysis of a successful leadership programme, generating case-based recommendations for successful pedagogic delivery. The experiential education Hardwired Humans programme is grounded in the theory of evolutionary psychology and its application to management in the business world. It has as its foundation a set of nine human instincts as identified by London Business School professor, Professor Nigel Nicholson. This approach provides a 'metaphorical' method of triggering critical reflection through comparing human experiences to those of primates. As undertaken in the Australian programme, it also involves an experiential small-group programme occurring at the Zoo. The

empirical study examined what worked well (and what does not work so well) in the programme, in terms of both content and method, and explored the overall effectiveness of the use of an elaborate Stone-Age man and primate metaphor. This, primarily qualitative research, was based on participant observation (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2010) of two two-day instances of programme delivery, a set of 24 one-on-one interviews (Czarniawska-Joerges, 1995; 1999, 2011; 2007) with programme participants from four well-known Australian organisations: Thales, Philips, Metro Trains, and Symantec, as well as an integrative and cyclical dialogue intervention with the course developer involving 19 interviews, ongoing dialogue over four years from 2011 through to 2014, presentation and discussion of interview findings in March 2013, and the co-production and development of an updated programme based on a set of design principles developed on the basis of the literature review described above. The empirical study examination has linkages and connections to an overarching theoretical framework that is applicable to the entire study.

Finally, this work brings together findings generated by the theory, case study data, and dialogue with the practitioner, as a set of practical pedagogical design principles and a neo-Harvard case study method prototype suitable for delivery in a university-based MBA setting. From the literature review, a gap was revealed, in that no such programme has been developed and described by those critically assessing the Harvard case study method as an example of an alternative approach that builds on the strengths but transcends the limitations of the traditional method. At a pragmatic level, this prototype was developed in collaboration with a leading Australian business school (Macquarie Graduate School of Management, MGSM), as a working model for an MBA programme at the school.

## 1.7 Thesis findings

The first major finding was the uncovering, development, elaboration and refinement of a master set of seven design principles, drawing on the literature reviews, empirical case study and the integrative and cyclical dialogue with the programme developer-facilitator Andrew O'Keeffe. These principles were further transformed into a more elaborate design principle model that includes a pedagogical process relating to each design principle, and the human capabilities that are tapped into, in each case. For each design principle, elaboration and justification is provided from specific formal learning theories, the theory of evolutionary psychology, literature reviews from this thesis, and evidence from the empirical study that was undertaken. See ***Table 1.1***. for the seven design principles that are intended to inform the professional design and delivery of the case study method within the context of management

education programmes. The seven design principles have connections and linkages to a theoretical framework that is applicable to the entire study.

| Design principle | Pedagogical process | Human capability (instincts) |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities | Learning environment | EMOTION |
| 2. Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity | Humanity and me | MORAL INTUITION |
| 3. Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-make and make choices | Self-awareness | SELF-AWARENESS |
| 4. In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing | Collaboration | COLLABORATION |
| 5. Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process | Engagement | CURIOSITY |
| 6. The content and learning process should explain reality to learners | Explaining reality | EXPERIENCE |
| 7. Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content | Sticky | IMAGINATION |

**Table 1.1: Design principle model showing seven principles**

The second empirical contribution is a neo-Harvard case study method prototype developed and informed by the above seven design principles listed in ***Table 1.1***, and designed for use in the MBA business school setting. It was based on the existing Hardwired Humans Zoo programme, and adapted to include these principles. This involved building on the innovative, creative and well-received broad 'case study' orientation of the evolutionary-psychology based programme in both content and method. In summary, the *content* required substantial improvement in terms of contextualising for an MBA context, with more theoretical analysis and justification of the theory of evolutionary psychology and a more memorable version of the nine human instincts. Furthermore there were several content aspects relating to the design principles that were added such as those relating to 'self-awareness', 'collaboration' and 'humanity and me'. From a *method* point of view, there were several aspects added such as efforts to better contextualise through preparation regarding relevance with programme participants beforehand, sharing of examples of application of the learning after the fact, use of advanced audio-visual and Internet

tools, and further engagement with the senses through a more highly developed themed classroom set-up in the prototype. The design principles of self-awareness and collaboration were also added. As regards self-awareness, for instance, techniques such as reflection and questioning were extended. Collaborative delivery methods were further developed through methods for the sharing of illuminating examples by the learner, and increasing the ability of teams to work collaboratively in groups.

## 1.8 Assessment

For the operationalisation of the 'neo-Harvard case study method prototype' there is a need for a comprehensive assessment system to be designed, developed and installed to support the use of the method within a management education programme and curriculum. Such a system should accommodate operational linkages to all aspects of quality management and performance management. The scope of this study does not include development of such a system.

The process of assessment within a management education institution or organisation can be expected to include the following components:

1. Defined learning goals and outcomes for the management education institution;
2. Alignment of curriculum with goals;
3. Alignment of programmes with curriculum;
4. Alignment of teaching methods and activities – including case study method within and between programmes;
5. Identification of instruments and measures of assessment;
6. Collection, analysis and dissemination of assessment data;
7. Usage of assessment data to improve teaching and learning, curriculum, student experiences and all inputs, activities, outputs and outcomes that contribute, underpin and ensure success in performance delivery of management education.

## 1.9 Outline of thesis

| | |
|---|---|
| **Chapter 2** | Details the origins of the Harvard case study method, outlining how it came to have the form that it does and how it has become the most widely used pedagogical tool in MBA education today. The chapter outlines the key features of the method, and the main points of difference between the dominant traditional form and its variants. |
| **Chapter 3** | Documents the history the MBA, the various pedagogies that have been used in MBA classrooms, and the different criticisms about MBA education. |
| **Chapter 4** | Summarises reports and recommendations on the future of the MBA, the competencies that are expected to be in demand, how best to teach them, and what possibilities there are for transformation. |
| **Chapter 5** | As a methodology chapter, this introduces the empirical methods used in the primary research conducted on the Hardwired Humans programme, including the interview-based evaluation and dialogue with the practitioner (Andrew |

| | |
|---|---|
| | O'Keeffe). It also details the methodological approach adopted in undertaking the three literature reviews. |
| **Chapter 6** | Outlines the nature and success factors of a successful experiential management programme Hardwired Humans, Australia. The chapter details the history and operations of the programme, and its theoretical foundations in evolutionary psychology. |
| **Chapter 7** | Presents the findings of the interview-based evaluation of the Hardwired Humans Australia programme, including participants' evaluations of the positive and negative educational experiences that it has generated. |
| **Chapter 8** | Presents the findings that emerged from the dialogue with the practitioner, including those from the formal interviews, and reflective conversations as well as collaboration on design-principle based subject development over a four year period. |
| **Chapter 9** | Draws on learning theories, evolutionary psychology theory, the literature reviews and the empirical case in developing design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model. |
| **Chapter 10** | Introduces and details the neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype based on the design principles. |
| **Chapter 11** | Provides a brief summary of the thesis argument and findings and the limitations of the study and areas for further development. |

# PART ONE: Harvard Case Study Method and Beyond

# 2 The Harvard Case Study Method

> If history is the art of making a complex truth into a simple lie, so is the case study, even within its more circumscribed, episodic framework (Newman & Sidney, 1955)

My introduction to the case method as a learning tool occurred when I secured a position as case writer at the Wits Business School in Johannesburg, South Africa. As soon as I spotted the advertisement in the local newspaper, I was immediately interested in the idea of this teaching method. At that stage I did not know much about it, but without understanding exactly why, I found the idea particularly attractive. It was a case of curiosity captivating the cat as from the very first day. Observing how the method worked in the classroom, it became clear to me what I would enjoy so much about this teaching method: the power of story hooked me in for sure, as did hearing about what all the other students had to say and watching how they interacted. But for me the unequivocal challenge to become personally involved in the learning process in the search for solutions was mesmerising. Completely engaged, I lost myself in the lecture theatre as I watched how use of the case unfolded, and then later in the interviews and industries and narratives which were part of the case-writing process, imagining what it might actually be like as a business executive facing the dilemma. It was welcome relief after the many years that I endured in countless lecture theatres as a student at university. I had always felt that there was something missing in the learning process – it was half-dead and I found it hard to imagine how I would apply what I learned. I knew that only certain parts of me were engaged, and I was eager to discover the other parts. What a revelation to find that there were other ways to teach and learn than conventional 'chalk and talk', and this was rather exciting!

This chapter describes the Harvard case study method and the reasons for it having become and remaining the primary teaching tool in MBA education at Harvard Business School since 1908, when it was first introduced as the 'problem method'. There are three main sections to this chapter, with the first one looking at the origins and history of this pedagogical teaching technique and how different time periods have played a role in shaping content and method components. The second section looks at the main areas of difference between forms of the Harvard case study method. As such it looks at similarities and differences, and the strengths and weaknesses of both content and method aspects. The final section offers a brief conclusion and a set of design principles that can be can be used to enhance this teaching method. This chapter is central to the thesis in that it describes the most commonly used pedagogical tool in business schools since the beginning of the 20$^{th}$ century. In detailing exactly what works and what does not work in making use of this tool, this chapter enables the drawing out of design

principles which ultimately inform the development of a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype.

## 2.1 History of the Harvard case study method

Some historians attribute the origins of the case study method to very early times, such as the common law in 14th century England, the civil law in Roman times, and the interpretation of the Talmud in Judaism (Kimball, 1995). However, the particular Harvard-based discussion-focused teaching tool is most often considered the brainchild of 1870s Harvard law professor, Christopher Columbus Langdell. Whilst conventional pedagogy involves passive learning through the delivery of lectures and use of textbooks, the case method enables instructors to move on from an 'uninspired' (Shulman, 1992, p. 1) pedagogy to the case method which is designed to go beyond this format. After introduction at the Harvard Business School early in the 20th century, it quickly became adopted as the primary form of instruction and has retained this prominence until today. In a Harvard Business School publication, the 'case study method' is defined as a case history which serves as the foundation for complex interaction between the learner, the class of learners, and the instructor. In its ideal form it aims to help learners understand how to deal with specific situations, and draws on the 'mating' of action and theory (Christensen & Hansen, 1987). However, this method possesses certain strengths and weaknesses and its use has changed over time. There are variants of this traditional form in terms of case format, use in different contexts and for different purposes, all of which are discussed in more detail later in the chapter. ***Table 2.1*** documents some of the important factors impacting its evolution at the Harvard Business School, revealing the details of time periods during which various Deans headed the School, and key stages in its take-up elsewhere.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **HBS Deans** | 1870 | Christopher Columbus Langdell coins the term 'case method teaching' and makes use of it in teaching at Harvard Law School |
| **Edwin F. Gay** (1908–1919) | 1908 | Harvard Business School opens its doors for the first time |
| | 1908 | Statement published in first HBS catalogue that the 'problem method' involving classroom discussion would be used 'as far as practicable' |
| | 1910 | Case method used in all leading law schools |
| | 1912 | Novel 'problem method' used. Two important experimental steps taken: (1) businessmen present an example of their own business problems to the class (Arch Shaw in particular encouraged widespread use), and (2) the start of discussion without cases as a pedagogy |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Wallace B. Donham** (1919–1942) | 1920 | Donham proposes the introduction of a 'case system' aimed at bringing business 'reality' into the classroom; intends it to be used in conjunction with theory |
| | 1920s | First case book published with Donham's strong encouragement: Marketing Problems by Melvin T. Copeland |
| | 1920 | HBS's Bureau for Business Research systematically begins collecting case material - starting with funds of $5,000 |
| | 1921 | Faculty votes to officially change the name of the school's approach from the 'problem method' to the 'case method' |
| | 1922 | HBS casebooks are adopted at 93 universities signalling the popularity of discussion-based teaching in business education |
| | 1923 | Two-thirds of the School's courses taught by the case system |
| | 1924 | Case method established as the primary form of instruction |
| | 1925 | Bureau for Business Research has produced 5,000 cases |
| | 1930s–1950s | Case method used by all leading business schools |
| | 1935 | Donham strongly convinced that the case method could help develop responsible attitudes, thus introducing the method as a systematic way of teaching human relations to undergraduates |
| | 1939 | Since 1920 HBS has collected 14,439 cases |
| | 1940s–1950s | Case method used in public administration and science education |
| **Donald K. David** (1942–1955) | Late 1940s–1960s | Post War a 'new' pedagogy emerges – changes in the method and in the audience – also physical changes re parabola-shaped classrooms |
| | 1950 | After a 30-year period of use President Conant indicates that the case method has been key to the success of the Harvard Business School |
| | 1953 | HBS receives requests for assistance from 32 foreign educational institutions, signally the beginning of almost two decades of active 'missionary' work overseas |
| | 1950s–1960s | Case method used in educational administration and theological education |
| **Stanley F. Teele** (1955–1962) | 1960s–1980s | Other 'minor' or 'semi' professional fields borrowed from business school educators as the business case method gained greater legitimacy |
| **George P. Baker** (1962–1970) | 1962 | Ford Foundation gives $1.2 million in support of the 'International Teachers Program' aimed at training case-method teachers from around the globe at HBS |
| | 1964 | Active case collection at HBS totals 26,967 |
| **Lawrence E. Fouraker** | 1971 | Ford Foundation makes grant to support HBS workshops in |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (1970–1980) | | Europe |
| | 1970s | Case method used in medical education |
| | 1970s–1990s | Case method used in schools of many other professions |
| | 1979 | *Bok Report* published – after some time almost all criticisms regarding the case method were addressed despite initial resistance. Some of the criticisms were that too much time was spent on teaching and case preparation rather than research, and the method hampered the teaching of conceptual material and analytical techniques |
| **John H. McArthur** (1980–1995) | 1980s | Case method used in regards to pedagogical scholarship on 'teaching methods' |
| | 1986 | The 'HBS Publishing Division', aimed at disseminating HBS research more broadly – and increasing associated revenues – is established |
| | 1990s | Electronic enhancements to the traditional Harvard case study method, with video and web links |
| **Kim B. Clark** (1995–2005) | 2000's | Alternative approaches in using the case method are increasingly proposed as moving towards more reality, providing new perspectives, encouraging self-reflection, improving interpersonal skills, transforming to suit different cultural settings, and enhancing through technology. |
| **Jay O. Light** (2005–2010) | 2010s | Pedagogical methods such as fieldwork and other experiential teaching are increasingly introduced but the case method remains the most dominant teaching method at Harvard Business School |
| **Nitin Nohria** (2010–current) | 2012 | Harvard Business School introduces the most significant curriculum changes in 90 years: begins to reduce use of the case method in favour of managerial field training (although case method still comprises 80% of its pedagogical approach). By this stage HBS writes and publishes around 80–100 new cases each year |

**Source:** Various including (Anteby & Khurana, 2012; Byrne, 2013; Copeland, 1954; Cruikshank, 1987; Harvard Business School, 2001, 2013c, 2013d, 2013f; Khurana, 2007; Kimball, 1995; Nohria, 2012)

**HBS: Harvard Business School**

**Table 2.1: Harvard case study method timeline (1908–2013)**

In looking in more detail at the different periods during which the Harvard case study method was used by Harvard Business School, it becomes clear how its nature was impacted in both content and method terms (see ***Table 2.2***), yet the traditional and dominant form which aims to foster analytical and decision-making skills remained the same in conceptual terms throughout its existence (Rippin et al., 2002). After the introduction of the case study method at Harvard Business School in 1908, the events that followed until the Second World War are described by scholars as 'a delicate experiment'. In developing the history of the case method, the works of Cruikshank (1987), Kimball (1995), Copeland (1958) and Khurana (2007) have chiefly been used. As will be seen, the most significant change occurred after the Second World War (Christensen & Hansen, 1987).

| | **Mechanistic – legitimisation & early capitalism** | **Humanistic** | **Scientific** | **Managerial capitalism** | **Investor capitalism** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **HBS's teaching approach** | **PERSONAL PRESENTATION BY BUSINESSMEN** | **WRITTEN CASE** | **STUDENT-CENTERED** | **TECHNOLOGY-ENHANCED** | **REMAINS CORNERSTONE** |
| | 1908–1919 | 1919–1945 | 1950–1980 | 1980–2000 | Post 2000 |
| **Content** | • Descriptive<br>• Static<br>• Practical vocational skills-based<br>• Professionalism<br>• General vs. specific (facts collected to form body of knowledge) | • Practical<br>• Analysis<br>• Aimed to use theory as well<br>• Specific vs. general (facts illustrate classical economics)<br>• Shift to humanistic | • Action<br>• Rationalistic<br>• Body of knowledge about management<br>• Administration - general management<br>• Change in format | • Analytical<br>• General vs. specific<br>• Quantitative<br>• Rationalistic<br>• Managerialist<br>• Globalisation<br>• E-commerce<br>• Leadership | • Highly sophisticated quantitative tools<br>• General vs. specific<br>• Globalisation<br>• Localised |
| ◀ ◀ ◀ Decision-making and problem solving ▶ ▶ ▶ | | | | | |
| **Method** | • Partial introduction of case method<br>• Analogical – based on legal case method<br>• Instructor centred<br>• Personal statements by businessmen | • Problem method - written cases as prime teaching method<br>• Method more important than content | • 'New pedagogy'<br>• New architecture and large classes – became student-centred<br>• Pull away from analogical | • Technology enhancement – videos, multimedia | • 80% of teaching is through cases<br>• Experimenting with teaching cases through online platforms |

**HBS: Harvard Business School**

**Table 2.2: Pedagogical changes in the Harvard case study method at Harvard Business School – 1908–2015**

### 2.1.1 Inception of the Harvard case study method – 1908–1919

Until 1908, leaders at Harvard University had been unable and unwilling to provide an adequate form of business education, but there was evidence of strong support from businessmen to establish an educational facility of this nature (Spender, 2008). When Harvard University finally became interested in experimenting with the idea of business education, the intention was to have a practical rather than academic emphasis and it would be based on the model used by Harvard Law School. Furthermore, in attempts to legitimise the profession, Harvard University's leaders made reference to the concept of business as a 'calling' or a profession. This resonated well as it meant that the ethical aspects of business were as important as business knowledge and practice. It was felt that the profession of business could not be taught from textbooks and should be defined as the application of general laws or principles to certain facts – as in the case of the medical or law professions. Yet, there were still serious questions as to what the profession of business actually meant (Khurana, 2007).

So Harvard Business School opened its doors for the first time in 1908 without a clear idea of what the profession of business entailed, but went on to become the 'largest, wealthiest and most influential' of all business schools (Kimball, 1995). From the start it was considered an experiment and Edwin Gay, who had been trained in the German Cameralist tradition (Mathews, 2002), was announced Dean (Harvard Business School, 2013c). The professionalism of pedagogical activities was important to the newly fledged 'profession' because until then not only had business been considered an inferior career option, there was also the lack of a clearly delineated body of knowledge regarding this new profession. There was thus a strong need to legitimise business as profession, and this was the main aim of the Business School at this time (Khurana, 2007; Kimball, 1995).

In the first few years after the Harvard Business School inception there was a search for appropriate and relevant teaching methods (Towl, 1969). It was decided that the Business School would make use of a pedagogy that had proved exceedingly successful in the Law School – the case study method of instruction. It was first called the 'laboratory method', and then the 'problem method' (Christensen & Hansen, 1987), which meant that discussion would occur in the classroom about a business problem, and was at this stage only partly used in teaching

commercial law. In all other courses, an analogous[3] method was used that emphasised finding solutions to problems through precedent together with classroom discussion and lectures (Copeland, 1954). Rather than encouraging an accumulation of knowledge, this method focused on the development of reasoning ability (Rippin et al., 2002). From the start, Gay was committed to use of the case study method, but found it challenging (Copeland, 1958; Kimball, 1995).

Faculty members had observed that similar problems were faced by businessmen no matter what industry they were from, so in 1912 Gay brought in a new Business Policy course in which the first real cases at the Business School were used, and this continued until 1921. The form in which this took place involved businessmen taking part in actually teaching students themselves by presenting a statement of a problem they faced, after which students could question them directly. In the next class students would submit a written report about the problem, and in the class that followed the businessman would return to the classroom to discuss the submissions (Copeland, 1954). Credit for the introduction of this form of case teaching is given to Arch Shaw, one of the businessmen involved, and who had previously taught in this way elsewhere (Mintzberg, 2004a). In fact, almost anything that could be used to provoke discussion in class was used at this time (Barnes, et al., 1994). Economic historian Gay formed a life-time friendship with Chicago business publisher and editor Shaw, and they worked extensively together on formulating the 'problem method' (Cuff, 1996).

### 2.1.2 Becomes main teaching method in written form – 1919–1945

It was only in 1924 that the method was embraced as the primary teaching method. This was because of the strong belief in the power of the method by Wallace Donham, who was a lawyer and former banking executive (Khurana, 2007). He too experimented with how best to make use of the method (Copeland, 1954), and from the outset assumed that cases would be used in conjunction with theory, and as a means to engage students so that they would become more interested in theory (Mintzberg, 2004a).

Donham encountered considerable resistance from most faculty members who found it simply far too confronting to teach in this manner (Copeland, 1954). He persevered, however, as students had begun to complain about a lack of relevance and inadequate teaching expertise of some faculty members. In fact they even resorted to stamping their feet in the lecture halls if they found the lectures boring or irrelevant (Mintzberg, 2004a). In an effort to address the lack

[3] Arguments from precedent and analogy are two central forms of reasoning found in many legal systems. 'Precedent' involves an earlier decision being followed in a later case because both cases are the same. 'Analogy' involves an earlier decision being followed in a later case because the later case is similar to the earlier one.

of practical experience of his faculty, Donham felt that the case method would force students to become more actively engaged in the learning process (Cruikshank, 1987).

He was interested in capturing the questions that were asked in class so that continuity was ensured. He thus asked one of his instructors to compile a 'problem' book for one of the courses, wherein each of the cases involved a decision to be made and provided a useful resource for discussion. The publication of this book in 1920 provided the impetus to prepare cases to be used in other courses. Cases were written up by going out and interviewing managers in real businesses (Kimball, 1995), and care was taken to ensure that cases were typical problems faced by managers or 'business administrators' as they were called at the time, especially those that involved differences of opinion, and were prepared as simplistic problem statements at first (Copeland, 1954). So it was only at this time, a decade after inception, that the case method developed into an organised and formalised written format, with the chief rationale being that it enabled students to study business administration 'at firsthand' and allowed for larger numbers of students to be able to take part in this kind of learning (Towl, 1969).

Until now, the case method at the Business School had been styled on the legal case method model, but business had neither cases nor an agreed-upon understanding of the nature and forms of business knowledge. Business educators shifted their conception of the case method away from the legal analogical case method model (Cruikshank, 1987), and the Harvard Business School relinquished its goal of establishing a collection of management 'precedents', as it was recognised that the collection of business precedents could not be generalised and was incapable of being tested (Daniel, 1998).

Instead, the Harvard Business School based its understanding of the case method around John Dewey's philosophy[4] and theory of education and for a number of years actually called the method the 'problem method' in accordance with Dewey's principles. It should be noted, though, that they were selective about what principles they adopted: Dewey's teaching through 'problems' was based on an approach that argued the consideration of problems and testing of solutions lead to *knowledge increasing in amount and sophistication*. Those of business education persuasion, however, stated that their cases lead to '*decisions*' after which action could be taken, thus not necessarily to add to new knowledge for addressing the next problem.

[4] These include that: 1) the interest of students must be stimulated in order for learning to occur; 2) direct experience is a prerequisite of learning; 3) knowledge is dynamic and dependent upon context; 4) process more than content is to be learned; and, most significantly, 5) learning comes through purposeful reflection upon 'problems', such that the teacher is a problem-poser, and cases are 'problems' to be solved.

Kimball (1995) argues that this state of affairs enabled teachers in business education to avoid having to go into detail about exactly what students learn. The lack of a formalised idea of what the profession entailed was confirmed some 40 years later in the Ford Foundation (Gordon & Howell, 1959) and Carnegie Foundation (Pierson & others, 1959) reports.

This tension between the Dewey approach and the legal case method approach had implications in terms of its influence on the Harvard case study method as the former argued for generalisable knowledge and the latter for specific particular knowledge. Donham tried to stimulate the interest of his faculty over the next few years but in the end it was the students' support for this method of teaching that changed everything. Donham engaged with faculty members about the content and method employed by the Harvard Business School, and decided on a two-pronged approach which aimed to provide students with facts or principles and training for practice in dealing with business challenges, but also to teach them about their role as businessmen in society (Cruikshank, 1987).

The most significant changes involved in this new approach were focused on teaching methods and the design of particular courses (Cruikshank, 1987). Donham revealed that he was more concerned with method than content, and it was the facts or principles that were important to him in providing a professional business education. He illustrated this by explaining the difference between the business case method and the case method system used in the Law School: the facts would enable students to understand the reality of business, enabling them to develop a sense of judgement in relation to known principles. This fascination with principles is exemplified, in a particular form, by the Business School faculty electing to embrace classical economic theory as its intellectual base. They sought to find a link between this type of theory and its practical applications, and as a result case researchers looked for facts that would illustrate established principles of economics. As noted by Cruikshank (1987, p. 142):

> …these principles, and their supporting cases, would comprise the heart of the Business School's curriculum.

The curriculum at that time tended to ignore many important aspects of human behaviour and business strategy, including many of the important factors impacting the decisions faced by business executives (Daniel, 1998). Donham's chief goal for the Harvard Business School was placing the highest priority on the relationship between human culture and business. The collection of facts had not shown how human behaviour impacted on business, and his emphasis on collecting the facts was limiting this aim. He later said that:

> The objective of our research changed from the collection of materials for the illustration of known principles into the ascertainment of new principles (Daniel, 1998, p. 98).

Donham knew he needed a new conceptual framework (Daniel, 1998), and sought out Elton Mayo who shared his views on the dangers of industrial civilisation. In 1925 his appointment of Mayo signified an important step in the history of the Harvard Business School as his work laid the foundation for the human relations conception of management where the ability to manage interpersonal and group relations was critical (Khurana, 2007). Donham encouraged a shift in the focus from scientific management and applied economics to a more people-oriented concept and in 1937 stated that he was committed to business being taught by faculties closely linked to business, using cases drawn from real businesses (Harvard Business School, 2013e). Later, the Harvard Business School was lambasted by the President of Harvard for its emphasis on the case method in preference to pioneering the application of science to business problems prior to the Second World War (Locke, 1989). By this time Harvard Business School had grown in size and influence, its endowment exceeding the endowments of all other business schools combined (Kimball, 1995).

### 2.1.3 Shift towards larger learner-centred classes – 1950s–1980s

The effect of the Second World War on the Harvard Business School was one of transformation, having brought in a whole new set of dynamics. A 'new' case method of instruction emerged in response to a transformed faculty, a curriculum which focused on the teaching of administrative skills, and new classroom facilities (Christensen & Hansen, 1987). The faculty had developed a new set of skills during the War, and students arrived in their droves, resulting in a decision to 'stretch to the utmost' (Cruikshank, 1987). Students were different to those in the pre-War period in that they questioned authority and were ready to take responsibility for their own learning (Christensen & Hansen, 1987).

The School re-defined itself, as many faculty members felt the emphasis on developing students' analytical skills did not teach them about the challenges of operating in businesses and discouraged a willingness to take risks (Cruikshank, 1987). The new curriculum was simple with a single, first-year course comprising all the traditional functional aspects into a single programme but revealing the intention of the Business School to shift the MBA programme closer to the practice of management by developing administrative capabilities. Collaboration between instructors in the different functions resulted in the identification of a 'set of concepts and skills' basic to managing any of the functions. Even more importantly there was the conclusion that

there was a unifying body of knowledge involved in teaching general management. Christensen and Hansen (1987, p. 28) sketch out what had happened:

> Greater knowledge at both the functional and generalist levels reinforced the faculty's intuitive conviction that management was a field of academic study separate and distinct from its supporting disciplines. In a sense they had answered the 1908 question, What is education for business if it is not applied economics? The key word in the School's name became *administration*, not *business*.

As a result educators within the field of business education began to consider the profession as having become legitimate, making an association with the analogical method even more distant. However, there was a lack of clarity about exactly how the method worked, and for many years after that the definition of business as 'administration' remained unclear too (Kimball, 1995). Despite this happening, the case method remained the primary form of instruction at Harvard Business School, with focus on developing analytical and decision-making skills.

The physical changes that occurred at the Harvard Business School in these post-War years signified very different roles for students and instructors in the classroom. The parabola-shaped classrooms were designed specifically for the purposes of large-scale discussion teaching (Christensen & Hansen, 1987) They were arranged in rows of students, each row higher than the other, with the instructor's desk at the bottom and in the middle of the classroom. This shifted the balance of power in favour of students, changing the dynamic in the classroom substantially. Previously seating in the classroom had been arranged so that the instructor had been situated on a slightly raised platform and separated from the students by a brass railing and curtain. Christensen and Hansen (1987, p. 28) suggest:

> Thus a new case method of teaching was born, quietly, over time, and in some measure without faculty's full appreciation of the magnitude and magnificence of the change.

Fundraising came easily to the Harvard Business School, and after the Second World War it managed to raise $20-million so that by its 50$^{th}$ anniversary it was in a better financial situation than any other Harvard faculty. During the 1950s and 1960s the School focused on making its curriculum more meaningful to business and the University at large, and emphasis was given by the School to the preparation of Harvard case studies to be used country-wide as well as overseas (Keller & Keller, 2001). By the end of the 1950s, Pierson & Others (1959) asserted that the case method was considered the 'logical counterpart of the managerial approach to business education', but expected it to play a more modest role going forward especially when there was a need for 'a high degree of academic sophistication' such as the application of quantitative

methods. However, the value of the method was evident in that it had rapidly spread not only to many other business schools, but to other disciplines.

Dover, Perkins & Wylie (2009) note that the method broke with tradition over the years regarding length, style and content, and this was chiefly in response to lengthy preparation times involved. Instead, caselets or vignettes of only 3–5 pages that focused on more specific issues began to be used. Outside of the School there were reservations in respect to use of the method. In their famed report *Higher Education for Business*, Gordon and Howell (1959) proclaimed that those business schools that were non-negotiable in using this teaching method did not support the idea of a generalised body of knowledge, i.e. focused on a more particularistic approach to management education and a focus on decision-making and action.

### 2.1.4 Impact of globalisation and technology – 1980s–2000

In the University's 1979 Annual Report, President of Harvard University Derek Bok pointed out several shortcomings at the Harvard Business School. At this stage the School was the largest business school in the world (Cruikshank, 1987). Bok argued, for instance, that that too much time was spent on case preparation and teaching rather than scholarship, and reliance on the traditional case method severely hampered the teaching of conceptual material and analytical techniques. Despite heated resistance from the Business School almost all of the issues that Bok noted were addressed over time (Cruikshank, 1987; Keller & Keller, 2001; Mintzberg, 2004a). For instance, analytical approaches were used in conjunction with the case method of teaching, and courses became more theory driven (Keller & Keller, 2001).

Kimball (1995) argues that in the 1980s there was acknowledgement by leading business academics that the Harvard Business School faculty had still not clearly defined 'management' or 'administration' – which of course made it difficult to rationalise any teaching method. In this view the problem was exacerbated by leading teachers of the case method stipulating that:

> … the case method is the 'intellectual core' of Harvard Business School and culminates in understanding "the administrative point of view. Over the course of several decades the problem of explaining business knowledge was traded for the problem of explaining the method, whose meaning was said to be informed by the nature of administration, which is business knowledge. It was no surprise, then, to hear that explaining case method instruction is 'difficult at best – perhaps even impossible' (Kimball, 1995, p. 14).

By the 1990s there was a switch in management education from theoretical to action-orientated learning. The case study method's traditional intellectual 'problem focus' based on helping students to realise known principles was challenged by demand for more experiential learning. The Harvard Business School was slipping in the media rankings, being accused of not keeping

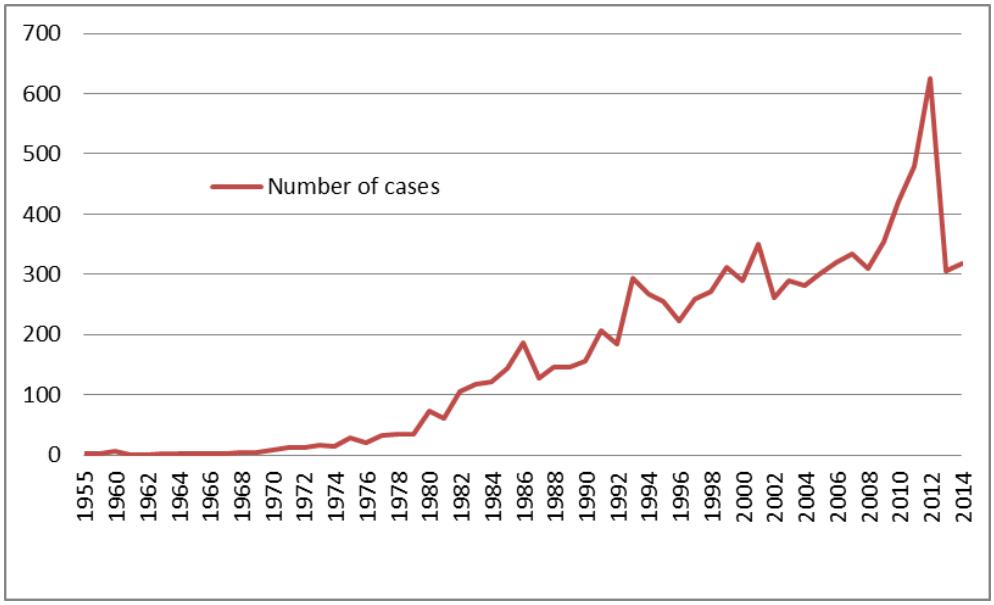
pace with a rapidly changing business world. It embarked on a large-scale curriculum review, deciding that it would retain its prime focus on the case method but give more attention to team projects and interactive computer-based learning. In the early to mid-1990s Harvard Business School was considered a latecomer in terms of technology (Buchanan, 2000)), and it was only in the late-1990s that there was significant investment in information technology. The Harvard Business School shifted gradually from its traditional 'static' form (Garvin, 2003, p. 63) through the introduction of technology-enhanced features. This involved investing heavily in multimedia cases, intending to engage the student by bringing in a stronger sense of reality and deepen the learning process, and also changing the way that the case is used in the preparation and discussion phases (Garvin, 2003). By the turn of the century, new technologies had become important in the content of cases too, although they were quick to become outdated (Buchanan, 2000). However, by the turn of the century, despite such delivery alterations, there were no major changes in the case method content and principles or in the Business School more generally as it was 'engaged in the preventative maintenance of a prospering institution' (Keller & Keller, 2001, p. 445). By now, Harvard Business School had invested so much in the traditional case method, how was it going to change? As noted by Mintzberg (2004a, p. 46):

> Harvard simply had too much invested in the case study method, strategically, culturally, materially – and, for that matter, still does.

### 2.1.5 The method in the 21st century

From the first time that the case method was introduced experimentally at Harvard Business School, growth in the development of cases has been phenomenal. Almost 12-million cases were sold by Harvard Business School in 2014 alone, with most of the School's revenue generated by executive education and its publishing arm (Harvard Business School, 2014a). Writing and publishing cases has become such a central part of the Business School that a plethora of business schools purchase cases from its publishing arm. Harvard Business School's website claims that 'over 80% of cases sold throughout the world are written by HBS faculty, who produce approximately 350 new cases per year' (Harvard Business School, 2013b). A total of 9,235 cases are listed, the majority of which are in print version. ***Figure 2.1*** reveals how many cases have been published each year since 1955 (Harvard Business School, 2015).

At least 500 cases are used over a typical MBA two-year period today. A Harvard student faces around 250 different cases a year – over 14 cases a week (Steiner & Laws, 2006) at 80 minutes per class (Mintzberg, 2004a). After a century in existence, the method remains the central pedagogical form of instruction at the school, with the School having made teaching – including case writing and preparation – its primary focus (Mintzberg, 2004a).




Source: Harvard Business School (2015)

**Figure 2-1: Number of cases per year published by Harvard Business School, 1955–2014**

Not only has the study method grown exponentially within business schools throughout the world, it has spread to many other fields (Garvin, 2003). A number of academic institutions now publish cases, as do other institutions such as case clearing houses, and a whole case-writing industry has developed around the case method making cases increasingly accessible (Wolfe, 1998). For the past 15 years, Harvard Business School has acted as a major distributor of cases from a number of institutions, and over the last few years it has cultivated a network of collaborating relationships with institutions in the United States, Europe and Asia (Harvard Business School, 2014b).

Other than the change in the method to become more student-centred early in the 1950s, there were only minor variations (Wolfe, 1998), until the influence of sophisticated information and communication technology made its mark from the late 1990s In this respect cases were increasingly provided in a 'paperless' environment to students in electronic techno-infused form, with associated web linkages, video clips and sophisticated analytical tools (Wolfe, 1998)). However, because of its participatory approach the School did not consider the case method to be particularly suited to online teaching. It was, however, experimenting with various ways in which it could provide online experiences and aimed to change the way that management education was done (Feloni, 2015; Harvard Magazine, 2014). In content terms, cases shifted from static descriptions to more complex dynamic explanations of how businesses work, and then to include a highly quantitative component. Outside of the Harvard Business School, today

there are variations of the traditional method in terms of form, content and process depending on the purpose for which the case is used, and in response to the different learning needs and demands, several of which are discussed later in the chapter.

Touted as the best way to develop leadership skills, the method is described on the School's website today as follows:

> Pioneered by HBS faculty and one of the highlights of the HBS experience, the case method is a profound educational innovation that presents the greatest challenges confronting leading companies, non-profits, and government organizations—complete with the constraints and incomplete information found in real business issues—and places the student in the role of the decision maker. There are no simple solutions; yet through the dynamic process of exchanging perspectives, countering and defending points, and building on each other's ideas, students become adept at analyzing issues, exercising judgment, and making difficult decisions—the hallmarks of skilful leadership (Harvard Business School, 2013b).

This statement is powerfully demonstrated by the fact that 80% of the teaching component at the Harvard Business School is currently taught through this method (Byrne, 2013; Harvard Business School, 2013b). Dean Nitin Nohria recognises the limitations of the case method in that the provision of business problems are merely imagined by students, rather than tackled in real-life situations (Nohria, 2012). This is a major challenge currently faced by Nohria at the ending of the 'Golden Age of business education' (1950-2000) - with increasing numbers of people questioning the need for business education at all (Gu, 2015). In order to remain relevant, he made a commitment in 2011 to also draw on other teaching methodologies such as experiential learning and fieldwork (Byrne, 2011; Nohria, 2012)). In content terms the programme now focuses on leadership, globalisation and integration, and draws on self-reflection, hands-on learning, teamwork and ethics (Stacey Blackman Consulting, 2011). With the spotlight on such issues (Middleton & Light, 2011), Nohria had the following to say about the changes:

> We think now is the right time to act to take the Harvard Business School M.B.A. Program to the next level. The case method will always be a central part of what we do, but we're now at a point in history when we can do some really interesting things in the field. Both methodologies - case and field - are absolute complements (Nohria in Stacey Blackman Consulting (2011)).

## 2.2 Continuities and variations in the Harvard case study method

Part of the problem in pinning down a fixed definition is that the case method and its use have understandably evolved. In interrogating the growth and portability of this method since 1870, Kimball (1995) suggests that a 'fuzzy' definition exists because of two different forms of the case method being used: Dewey's problem-based approach and the legal analogical approach based

on precedent. Additionally, the adapted use of this method in numerous fields since its inception, resulted in varying definitions, and for this reason the method eludes simple definition being 'regarded as the problem of One and Many' (Kimball, 1995, p. 2).

Faculty at Harvard the Business School acknowledge the difficulty involved in describing the case method and argues that it is seldom analysed or described because it involves complex interaction between instructor and students and aims to involve both cognitive and affective learning modes (Christensen & Hansen, 1987). C. Roland Christensen, the world's leading authority on the case method of teaching[5], describes the it as 'mysterious and elusive' (Christensen, 1991, p. 15). Other than implied references to action learning, the Harvard case study method appears by all accounts to be 'anti-theory', and few publications or articles discuss the theory behind this teaching method (Mumford, 2005). Christensen and Hansen (1987) note that over the years little thought has been given to pedagogical theory relating to the method, and that they do not have a good way to understand and evaluate learning. Others argue, however, that Dewey's theory has played an important role in the evolution of the case method in that education is often seen as an accumulation and reordering of learning experiences (Lundberg, et al., 2001). However, with the obvious paucity of any obvious theoretical underpinning, Mumford (2005) poses the question:

> How responsible is it to provide a method on the basis that you believe in it, and can quote evidence on how it has worked in the past, without really knowing how it works and why it works?' (Mumford, 2005, p. 17).

Mumford goes on to suggest that the theories best fitting explanations of the learning involved, and which should now be drawn on, are those most commonly referred to in management development literature: action learning (Revans, 1982), learning from one's own experience (Knowles, 1984), experiential learning (Kolb, 1984) and various theories developed by Harvard faculty member Chris Argyris (1982) such as espoused theories and theories in use, theories of defensive routines, and single and double loop learning. Mumford (2005) contends that making greater use of these and other theories could help students and instructors to better understand and reflect on the learning process. Other attempts to provide a theoretical grounding to the method, which are relatively recent, tend to be based on experiential and action learning theories (Mesny, 2013).

The characteristics of the traditional pedagogical device are described here according to two main aspects: content and process – see ***Figure 2.2***. This traditional form of the case method

[5] See http://www.hbs.edu/teaching/about-the-center/c-roland-christensen.html.

may vary in terms of focus and level of complexity, but it retains common conceptual elements and pedagogical intent (Rippin et al., 2002).

**Source: Developed from Rippin et al. 2002)**

**Figure 2-2: Characteristics of the case method: content and method**

### 2.2.1 Similarities of content

Typically the traditional Harvard case study method is a teaching instrument which starts with a physical artefact that includes a written historical story about a business challenge (Rippin et al., 2002), typically 10–20 pages long and with 5–10 additional pages of exhibits that are of a verbal, graphic or numeric nature (Christensen & Hansen, 1987; Garvin, 2003). Drama is often used in the first paragraph or two to elicit the tension inherent in the dilemma, and bringing in an element of mystery as students search for answers. Its use as a medium for discussion is what most defines this method (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990), with the document providing a momentary glimpse of business life, and it forms the basis of a highly interactive and complex learning process.

Students first individually and actively construct their own meaning, followed by discussion in the classroom during which most of the case content emanates from students. The description, in the form of a narrative, can have an individual, business, or country as its unit of analysis, and is a simulation of reality involving interactive discussion and participation of students. Although the content of the case involves an important business issue containing facts, it does not state conclusions and can appear vague, requiring students to make inferences: ‘By design, a case doesn’t tell you what it means’ (Ellet, 2007, p. 16).

The story is typically written from the point of view of the protagonist or decision-maker (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Lundberg et al., 2001; Mesny, 2013), and the hope is that the learner becomes sufficiently emotionally hooked in so as to take on his/her identity and thus be in the position of decision-maker. Just as the protagonist draws the student in, so does the substance of the story, and an interest-provoking issue or topic has the same effect. The associated case dilemma or decision-focus is a hallmark of this teaching method (Lundberg et al., 2001), and helps the student to understand the complexity of understanding a business problem and making a stand based on the facts of the case.

Rippin et al. (2002) suggest that narrative plays a key role in terms of capturing, through its specific anatomy, the interest of students by using plot, relevance and familiarity. The case often focuses on a specific industry and business function, and engages through 'mystery' (Osigweh, 1987). This is the power of story, and Greenhalgh (2007) explains that a case is a 'natural narrative' in that it offers an incomplete story which requires resolution. Boehrer and Linsky (1990) also see the case as a story, and recommend looking at the method in the same way that one understands a play – which is also a form of story. In doing so, the case method is considered as an event in which each participant has his or her own unique interpretation of what the case is about.

Cases are generally written about real-life business situations, capturing the experiences of managers and thus simulating reality (Ellet, 2007; Osigweh, 1987; Rippin et al., 2002), with the data having been captured first-hand through fieldwork (Mesny, 2013). 'Real-life' is a term often used to describe the case study method despite the constructed nature and historical character of any story (Cabot, 1931). Despite the limitations inherent in the partial evidence provided (Rippin et al., 2002) and inevitable 'second-handedness' resulting from the case-writer's and student's interpretation of the business problem (Mintzberg, 2004a), the case method is considered by some to be as close one can get to organisational reality as a teaching tool (Aaronson, 1992).

The student is forced to operate under conditions of uncertainty as there is no one answer to a case, and this ambiguity is often cited as an advantage of the case method as it mirrors reality (Rippin et al., 2002). This is done in order to develop the 'tough-minded' qualities such as judgement and leadership which are required to operate effectively as a manager – McNair, (1954, p. 24) suggests that 'to oversimplify the world they live in is a favourite device of the tender-minded'. Furthermore the student continuously faces the risk of uncertain progress as it

is always difficult to know exactly how far one has progressed in the learning process (Dunn, 1954).

A further characteristic of the Harvard case study method is its particularisation (Barnes et al., 1994), especially in terms of understanding the context of the business challenge described in a case. This approach enabled the School to focus on the specifics of business practice (Spender, 2013). However, it may be argued that students also learn how to generalise in terms of how they think about the problem through building up understanding of different experiences over time (Raymond, 1955). Cases are used to illustrate a set of learning objectives, including both cognitive and affective skills, a breadth that makes it difficult to evaluate effectiveness. It also aims to teach students how to apply what they have learned (Christensen & Hansen, 1987), teaching practical skills so that a learner can act as a professional in managing challenging situations (Mesny, 2013).

### 2.2.2 Similarities of method

The content of the case study method, however, is only the beginning. The way that this method is used in the classroom is also crucially important (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Dixit, Manikutty, Rao, Monippally, Bijapurkar, Raghuram, Krishnan, Mitra, Murthy, Joseph, and Jain, 2005; Leone, 1989). At one level, however, it has been said that there are as many types of case methods as there are instructors (Osigweh, 1987). The actual case study is malleable, and as Rippin et al. (2002, p. 438) call it, a 'plastic medium' to be used in a different ways depending on one's intention. Its long history and its diffusion across the globe have, not unsurprisingly, led to it being used in various ways and in many different contexts and fields.

Discussion in the classroom (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Christensen, Garvin & Sweet, 1991; Christensen & Hansen, 1987) is the best way to describe the method, although the original intention of discussion was better described in terms of encouraging students to think (Christensen, 1991; Lundberg et al., 2001). The discussion generated by the Harvard case study method includes, or extends to, the use of a wide variety of forms of interpersonal communication (Osigweh, 1987) – listening, making an argument, debating, persuading, competing, and learning from each other's experience. Inter-communication is considered an important part of the process, involving both student–student interaction as well as student–instructor communication. Beyond discussion, however, an additional set of skills is developed through the use of the method: purposeful thinking, problem solving, decision-making and analysis. As routinely observed, the Harvard case method is a tool that gives students a chance

to practice their decision-making skills, by providing the opportunity to simulate managing a business (Böcker, 1987).

Students receive the case study prior to the class, and are expected to read it in detail and analyse it beforehand, coming to grips with the main elements involved, forming an opinion and preparing for discussion in the classroom (Mesny, 2013). Most often they will gather in small syndicate groups beforehand to discuss their thoughts on the case. Once the class begins, the instructor kicks off with a 'cold call', where one of the students in the 'section' is randomly asked to present the facts of the case. Discussion then follows between students and instructor, with the latter acting as guide and facilitator, keeping the class focused by asking specific relevant questions. The intention is to work towards a deep analysis of the specifics of the case, consideration of alternatives and possible courses of action. During the course of the year, students are evaluated according to their participation in class, and this accounts for as much as 50% of their grade (Harvard Business School, 2013a).

At the Harvard Business School, classes are organised in a particular way, with students grouped into cohorts or 'sections', and teaching occurring in classrooms with U-shaped hierarchical seating arrangements to enhance communication between students and instructor. Students are grouped into sections of about 90 so that opportunities are created to maximise learning and networking. Currently there are 10 sections of students in the School, each with its own designated faculty team, and each section stays together throughout their time at the School (Christensen & Hansen, 1987).

Although the discussion is controlled by the instructor, Garvin (2003) notes that the primary goal is to encourage student-to-student interaction. 'Collaboration is what the case method is about', notes Ellet (2007, p. 91), and is based on the student's willingness to take risks in helping to construct meaning about the case. In this way students are actively involved in the learning process, being positioned to imagine how they would act as a protagonist, training them how to act rather than merely how to know (Dewing, 1954).

The Harvard Business School claims that 85% of the time students are talking and that information about different contexts and experiences are shared between 90 other students (Harvard Business School, 2013b). The sharing of experiences is an important part of the process, as students are expected to make contributions to group understanding of business challenges (Gragg, 1954). Once the questions come to a halt the class ends, and there is purposefully no summary provided regarding what has happened in class. This is done to force students to make sense of what they have learned, filtering out the important bits of

information from the rest (Garvin, 2003). And this is why many consider the case method a more difficult way to learn than by lecture and textbook, as students learn how to discover:

> We shall expect you to dig things out for yourselves, because real education is a process of drawing out the student's mind, not of pouring in the instructor's ideas. The value lies, not in what you will dig out, but in the power that you will develop by digging (McNair, 1954, p. 22).

Furthermore, the teaching method is executed in a way that allows students to think through problems and recommend solutions without serious consequences (Rippin et al., 2002). Thus this risk-free aspect of the teaching method avoids the ramifications of acting inappropriately or making decisions that are damaging to the organisation (Mintzberg, 2004a).

Whilst in the early days of case method teaching, the instructor played a far more central role in the learning process, this has changed over time. The instructor can play a variety of roles but in a far more democratic process, encouraging engagement rather than simply the examination of the problem (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990), and partnering students and instructor in the creation of meaning about the business challenge at the heart of the case (Christensen, 1991). The teaching method is complex as it involves simultaneous attention to content and method (Christensen, et al.,. (1991), and is characterised by uncertainty (Fraser, 1931). It merges theory with practice through active discussion and reflective practice in the classroom (Christensen et al., 1991; Christensen & Hansen, 1987).

Many scholars note how much more difficult it is to deliver this form of teaching, not least because of how much thought is involved in preparation, but also the communication and intuitive skills that are necessary to successfully deal with and draw on different personalities and experience in the classroom. Because an instructor needs to be aware of the process of discovery in learning (Rippin et al., 2002), he or she requires the knack of asking the right questions to keep students talking and thinking, and a deep sense of engagement with the teaching and learning process. Christensen suggests that 'teachable moments' surface in the process of teaching, and students learn on multiple levels through collaboration (Harvard Business School, 2013a).

There are, however, different forms to the traditional Harvard case method, both in terms of the subject matter and the way that it is used, and these are described in the next section.

### 2.2.3 Differences

There are two contrasting strands of case method used in management education, reflecting a tension in this discipline: one focused on fostering decision-making and analytical skills and the

other fostering other capabilities such as critical thinking skills (Rippin et al., 2002). This has been exacerbated by a lack of an agreed-upon body of business knowledge and set of professional ethics that continues to the present day (Swiercz & Ross, 2003). At the Harvard Business School itself, where the case method first emerged in response to a perceived need for vocational skills-based education emphasising decision-making and problem solving, the traditional approach has triumphed as a dominant strand, despite criticism over time.

Elsewhere, the case method has been used in other ways, and with different educational objectives which help to make sense of increasing complexity in organisations (Rippin et al., 2002). This second notion of the case method mirrors the changing needs within management education (Rippin et al., 2002). In a Harvard Business School publication, the case method is characterised by 'continuity and change' which highlights the continuity in terms of rudimentary concept and pedagogical intent[6], i.e. to foster decision-making and problem solving skills, and the change in terms of format and use (Barnes et al., 1994).

Rippin et al. (2002) suggest that there were two main events occurring in the 1990s which highlight the need for a different approach to management education pedagogy. The first one was recognition of the changing nature of organisations and associated increasing complexity, resulting in the need to shift learning goals from analytical decision-making to sense making. Instead of relying on lessons from prior best practice or applying previously learned modes of thinking to novel situations (Argyris, 1980), there was a need 'to learn how to make sense of their world for themselves' (Rippin et al., 2002, p. 434). The second factor was the increasing demand to adopt a critical thinking approach, including questioning around the purpose of management, and thus becoming open to challenging the current practice of management.

In light of these events, as well as through the emergence of more sophisticated technology, this dominant form of the case method began to be contested (Rippin et al., 2002) and variants emerged that emphasised or downplayed the characteristics of the method (Mesny, 2013) and/or displayed the shifting purpose of management education. Notwithstanding a few earlier attempts, it was only after the arrival of the new millennium that interest in adapting and transforming the traditional method grew substantially around the globe.

#### *2.2.3.1 Differences of content*

As sketched out earlier on in the chapter, the content associated with the traditional method had some differences over the past century, reflecting the different historical time periods. In

[6] This was training with a practical and professional orientation, and action-based delivery.

the very beginning, for instance, a case was presented by prominent businessmen as a mere a description of a business problem, and then as simplistic written descriptions, but these then evolved to reflect the complexities of human dynamics involved in managing a business. There have been some shifts in terms of content over the years, reflecting business trends. For instance, cases began to be supplemented with quantitative data and tools as management became more sophisticated (Garvin, 2003), and the content of Harvard Business School cases became increasingly globalised, with 60% of cases now being global cases as opposed to 10% at the turn of the millennium (Gu, 2015).

It may be argued that the changes have been cosmetic, failing to address the needs of the business world. They argue that there is no 'one best way' to operate as a manager, and the traditional focus on decision-making in the traditional case method precludes the learning of many other leadership skills – in fact, they go as far as to say that it can be 'dysfunctional for managerial teaching and learning' (Lundberg et al., 2001, p. 451). They call for more variety – in both content and method – by taking the history of the case method into account as it can remind case developers of the importance of case variety in achieving learning outcomes.

From a critical management stance, Contardo and Wensley (2004) argue that the traditional case method represents the inability of the Harvard Business School to transform, retaining its own idea of relevance in the form of managerialism, institutionalism and American capitalism. Although this impedes learning that is relevant to changes in the global economy, they argue that the method is too important to the institution to change. It assumes rationality in the business world, failing to account for non-rational phenomena, and although the Harvard Business School committed in the 1980s to broadening content by including these aspects, it had not yet achieved its goal by the turn of the century (Swiercz & Ross, 2003). This rational and analytical approach can result in an 'antiseptic' view of organisations, downplaying the human element (Dean & Fornaciari, 2002).

Yet outside of Harvard Business School, variety in case content has occurred in line with the needs of students and the realities of management, and this is reflected in contemporary cases. Mesny (2013) suggests that although there has been more variety, more needs to be done, and differentiates between cases which meet the needs of cognitive and affective learning objectives. In the former, she suggests that although in the past decade there has been progress, cases should more directly reflect the negative side of managing – such as business failure – and cast the protagonist role as someone other than the manager. She suggests that the most significant work needs to be done in the affective domain, where a personal connection with the

material needs to be realised. This can be done, for instance, through developing cases that closely reflect the student's reality or reach them at an emotional level. Drawing on the emotions in the management education learning process has been identified as a key factor, challenging the traditional approach (Strebel & Keys, 2005). Examples of this approach can involve making use of 'live' cases or getting students to write cases about their own experience (Mesny, 2013).

#### *2.2.3.2 Differences of method*

The delivery technique used in the traditional method has changed over time in form, but not in terms of concept or intent. There were shifts from oral presentation of the case to the written format, and then to multimedia and on-line format, but perhaps the most significant transformation was from an instructor-centred to learner-centred approach. Outside of the Harvard Business School, there have been several innovations, with some of them emphasising certain aspects of the traditional method, and drawing on technological innovations, but mostly with the purpose of developing new kinds of leadership and practical skills. These initiatives are grouped into six areas, as shown in ***Figure 2.3.***

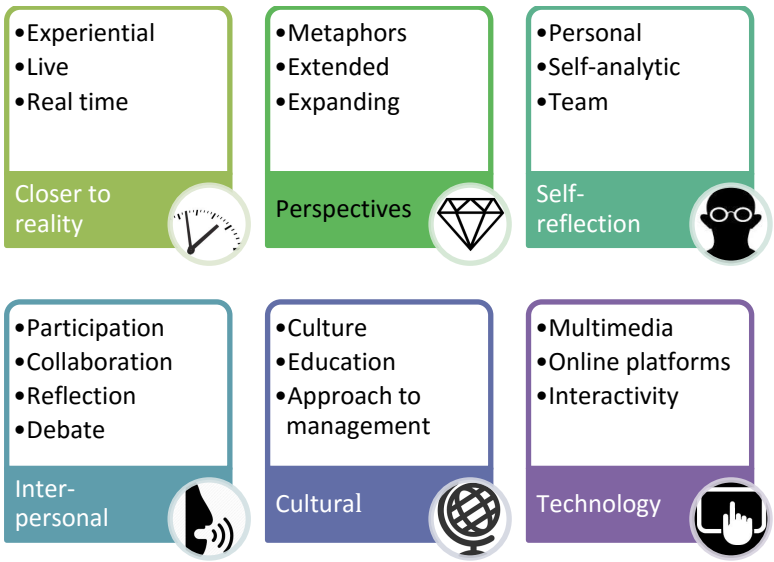



**Figure 2-3: Using the Harvard case study method: themes emerging outside of Harvard Business School**

**Closer to reality.** In looking at the aim to shift closer to the world of business, there have been attempts to make the case method more experiential. By the turn of the century, limited effort had been made to link experiential learning with the case method (Kreber, 2001). Kreber (2001) advocates that if the case method is implemented correctly, it is able to address all four aspects

of experiential learning as indicated in Kolb's learning cycle[7], making the learning more impactful through developing critical thinking capabilities and self-direction. She suggests that this is a possibility if case studies are used in conjunction with a problem-solving model such as the one developed by [8]Knoop (1984). Dean and Fornaciari (2002) use case-based role-play in which several students are randomly chosen to take on the personalities of those involved in the decision-making process. The rest of the students acts as a 'Greek chorus' responding to the unfolding scenario, whilst the instructor takes on the role of various external players who impact on the process. In this way, they argue that this method experientially demonstrates how decisions play out in organisations, helping students to understand how to cope with inherent ambiguities. There is another way in which experiential learning can be combined with the case method, and that is to mirror the message in the case in which it is discussed class. This can be extremely powerful as 'the medium and the message tell the same story' (Gadon, 1976, p. 20).

'Live' cases are argued to be a revitalisation of the case method, especially in terms of its appeal to the current generation of millennial students (Carroll, 2013). This is said to fall within the domain of experiential learning, involving an extended inquiry process and enabling complex questions to be asked. At the same time, it is characterised by cross-and inter-disciplinary learning and provides the opportunities to build relationships outside of business schools. Through this method, the student is able to engage emotionally and undergo experiences where the chief decision-makers are personally involved, the decision is usually about to be made and the company is accessible. The student assumes the role of consultant, and gets to understand how the organisation operates as a whole while working through the case to come up with recommendations. Other than this 'live case intervention method' there is a hybrid live case method, which is a 'self-authored case method' (described in more detail below) wherein students assume various roles in providing a foundation for making a decision about a problem they face as well as providing a solution (Daly, 2013). Roth and Smith (2009) conclude that live cases are extremely effective in achieving a range of outcomes and measures of assessment. However, they stress the importance of balancing learning outcomes and organisational benefits, and finding the right 'fit' and process to suit the learning programme.

Success has also been reported in using the 'real-time' case method (Kilbane, Theroux, Sulej, Bisson, Hay & Boyer, 2004; Theroux & Kilbane, 2004), which tracks in live terms what happens in

[7] These include concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation.

[8] Knoop's problem-solving model is characterised by five steps. Step 1 is to identify the problem. Step 2 is to distinguish the problem from underlying symptoms. Step 3 is to generate alternative problem-solving strategies. Step 4 is to evaluate the alternatives, and select the best strategy. Step 5 is to develop a plan of implementation of best strategy.

an organisation. Although this method is similar to the traditional method in that it requires students to solve a problem in a written case, it is distinguished by its real-time interactivity over an extended period of time. Students are provided with a book-length collection of data about the company, and face a series of discussions over a semester period. They also interact with organisational leaders via web video, which introduces a human dimension not experienced in the traditional method.

**Sensemaking.** Other variants of the case method aim to make sense of complexity by offering new perspectives. The use of metaphor, for instance, can perform several functions in the learning process. Greenhalgh (2007) suggests metaphor can help students to frame their understanding of organisations in new ways, and in so doing develop not just analytical skills but also critical thinking, creative and intuitive skills. By drawing on the 'problem-solving literary character' (Greenhalgh, 2007, p. 182) of the traditional case method, and through using the metaphors of art and science, it is possible look at the case method as enabling interpretations and discovering values. It can also encourage leadership development through serving as parables for reflection and learning. In the learning process, and with these objectives in mind, Greenhalgh successfully makes use of Gareth Morgan's eight metaphors in requiring students to analyse cases. Ardalan (2015) suggests using entertaining metaphors to introduce a sense of humour and entertainment into the learning process, as this stimulates the emotions and can have a profound impact. He does so through audio-visual means, showing drawings and cartoons that are used as metaphors which relate to the learning material at hand.

Walck (1988) argues that teaching tools like the case method simplify reality too much, failing to prepare students for responsible roles in management. Instead, she suggests making use of a much longer complex 'extended case' which is more successful in mirroring reality by encouraging students to think about time and change aspects that are not present in the traditional method. A further variant, which is at the other end of the spectrum by offering minimalistic information about a business challenge, is the 'expanding case method'. This method, called the 'ten-sentence case' (Maiksteniene, 2013) caters well to the millennium generation in terms of preference for non-linear learning and lack of interest in long preparation time. The case is written up in ten random sentences, as 'puzzle pieces', and students are required to rearrange them, drawing on other materials to build up the case and search for solutions. This appeals further because of the contemporary technology options that are available, allowing for discovery through web-clicks.

**Self-reflection.** There have been variants of the traditional model that enhance the capacity for self-reflection. Ashamalla and Crocitto, (2001), for instance, suggest writing a personal case and analysing both the experience and oneself, requiring individual reflection. Foster and Carboni (2009) also recommend the use of student-centred cases to develop a more inductive approach to learning, and to reignite more appropriate use of Socratic questioning where students are forced to face contradictions in terms of their beliefs. In their view, cases written by other people do not tend to be effective in achieving this outcome, and this is supported by the work of Argyris, (1982) who also advocates the use of personal cases. To achieve the same outcome of confronting students about their beliefs and attitudes, Rasmussen (1984) makes use of the 'self-analytic' case method which involves writing a personal case and analysing it, then learning a theory about management and re-analysing it, comparing the two analyses.

Bailey et al. (2005) have a slightly different approach, where students write their own cases in teams, becoming actively engaged by adopting various roles, analysing and presenting. They proclaim their method as effective in achieving the multiple learning objectives that are required in effectively teaching management as required today. Forman (2006) advocates the writing of a case by students but integrating it with the traditional case-study methodology in what is termed 'participative case writing'. Another variation is the customised case, which is specifically written to match the reality of the students, and has become increasingly sought after in executive education programmes as it is directly relevant and enables instant application in the workplace (Dover et al., 2009).

**Interpersonal.** Looking now at how variant case methods have aimed to enhance interpersonal skills, there are various scholars who argue for the enhancement of participation (Desiraju & Gopinath, 2001; Siciliano & McAleer, 1997; Uslay, 2007), collaboration (Bailey et al., 2005; Griffith, 1999), reflection (Argyris, 1980; Rosier, 2002, 2005) and debate (Stewart & Winn, 1996) in the learning process. In order to increase participation of students, Uslay (2007) argues that extensive use of the traditional case method has diminished student involvement, and has instead successfully used the 'Management versus Consultants Case Method' which involves dividing the class into teams. There are 'management' teams which conduct the class and provide a written analysis, and 'consultant' teams which are required to provide an extensive evaluation and critique of the 'management' teams' presentations. Student involvement is enhanced and there is the ability to provide in-depth peer/facilitator feedback.

The reflecting team case model (Griffith, 1999) involves collaborating and approaching conversation in a specific way, with the expectation that that at least some change will result.

Depending on the skill of the instructor as discussion leader, the traditional case method can encourage competition at the expense of discussion quality, with assertive students dominating (Griffith, 1999). This method inhibits this, with students role-playing characters in the case; they are placed into teams which interact through questioning, listening and reflecting, and switching roles. A variant model which promotes reflection has been developed by Rosier (2005) who argues that this is not done enough in the traditional method. The model has been found to be effective in that it underscores the importance of reflection after case discussion has taken place, through the use of reflective reports and guided reflection. Stewart and Winn (1996) suggest using teams in the 'class debate', a variant of the traditional method. There are four steps in this process, presentation of analysis and strategy, class recess, rebuttal by each team taking into account both presentations, and questions and answers. This method is argued to facilitate a higher quality of class discussion, developing advocacy and professional disagreement skills.

**Cultural.** Studies have shown that it is challenging to transfer Western management knowledge to non-Western cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 1986, 1994)[9], which has meant that the traditional case has had to take on a different form in varying national settings, taking into account culture and varying management and educational approaches. Saner & Yiu, (1994), for instance, found students in European and Asian countries to be resistant to the method. They found German students preferred rigid schedules, concrete projects, real-life case background and expert coaching. As such, they thus developed a case simulation of an actual negotiation that had taken place. Part of this involved co-developing a case with a manager from industry, and then when the case was played out with the person who had been involved in the original negotiations joining the feedback session, the results obtained by students could be compared with the original results. In China, case content must have local 'high' context as there is a preference for detail, working from the specifics to broad generalisations – different to the Western approach to education where broad theories or generalisations are used to inform subject matter (Berrell et al.,. 2001) .

**Technology.** Finally, there is the technology-enhanced case method which has responded to technology advancements, and which is likely to provide increasingly interactive and virtual options (Hill et al., 2008; Lowe et al., 2015). The shift to video has been shown to be more effective than the printed version in engaging students, enabling them to form more accurate

[9] Hofstede's model, which differentiates national cultures, can help teachers and students to understand differences by considering the following dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism and masculinity/femininity.

impressions of leadership (O'Connell et al., 2004). Although she has found it challenging and costly to produce and teach stand-alone video cases, Liedtka, (2001) suggests that they can offer powerful learning experiences. Web-based cases are written by students themselves by drawing on a diverse array of recent company and industry information sourced directly from the Internet, requiring them to use their writing and analysis skills (Henson, Kennett & Kennedy, 2003). Cases have also been taught online through asynchronous electronic discussion boards, a learning medium used since the mid-1990s. This phenomenon, which because of its convenience, is likely to continue as business schools increasingly adopt blended learning options, requires careful instructional design if online conversations are to be meaningful (Rollag, 2010). Webb et al. (2005) suggest that students learning cases online appear to do as well as in the classroom, but may fare even better at multiple levels of learning outcomes, especially when drawing on a blend of both mediums. It is suggested that teaching cases online may provide the opportunity for deeper levels of discussion, use of multi-media materials, and more diverse experience and knowledge on the part of students (Mendelson, 2006).

### 2.2.4 Strengths and weaknesses

In this section, the strengths and weakness of both the Harvard case study method (see **Table 2.3**) and its variants are discussed, featuring content and method aspects. In is evident that there are many paradoxes inherent in the use of this method e.g. real vs. not real enough, and as can be seen from the above, many of the weaknesses of the traditional Harvard case study method are incorporated into the variant methods that have emerged over time.

#### *2.2.4.1 Traditional model*

##### 2.2.4.1.1 Strengths

From a *content* point of view, the traditional method provides particular contextual detail which enables the understanding of management as complex and multifarious, unable to be described by theoretical models, and requiring detailed qualitative research (Mesny, 2013). It also provides a specific knowledge base through accumulated 'experiences' in the 500 cases that are read over two years, (Raymond, 1955), and this is enhanced by technology such as multimedia cases (Garvin, 2003). By empathising with the main protagonist, the student becomes immersed in the learning process, a strategy designed to help the student to identify with this main character, and thus eliciting an empathetic response. This approach enables the student to better understand the experience of the compelling problem (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990). Through providing context in a story, the case method provides the opportunity for student to construct their own meaning in the learning process (Christensen, 1991), and simulates reality by bringing

in ‘segments of reality’ (Osigweh, 1987, p. 123)) and thus enhancing the relevance of the teaching process. By mirroring the reality of uncertainty in business by having no single right answer and deliberately incomplete information, the case allows for many possible options which foster a spirit of exploration and discovery, forcing the student to operate under conditions of uncertainty. This helps them to develop the requisite ‘tough- minded qualities’ that a manager needs (McNair & Hersum, 1954).

Looking now at *method*, the strength of the traditional method is that it is able to be used in a variety of ways, depending on one’s intentions. It introduces students to a way of thinking through how to approach challenging business situations, and how to filter out the important bits of information. The large class size of 90 people broken into smaller groups enables both personal and collective learning through the sharing of experiences and networking, and interaction is encouraged through the discussion process. By offering more than knowledge, the process can teach certain skills that are important in operating as a leader, such as analytical, decision-making and communication skills. It also has the potential to teach other leadership skills. The problem or dilemma focus provides a challenge and an element of mystery, inviting the student to discover solutions in order to resolve the problem, and it offers the opportunity to practice decision-making in a safe environment.

2.2.4.1.2 Weaknesses

The *content* in the traditional case offers a limited perspective, particularly in terms of how it views the practice of management. It is argued to lack a human dimension in that it is merely as story about human behaviour, failing to accurately show the realities of personal and interpersonal workplace behaviours, especially under pressure in complex environments. It is after all an historical story: it is static, and fails to show the dynamic way that business works. Critics argue that rather than reflecting ‘real life’, traditional cases tend to be of a particular persuasion, embodying a particular type of narrative, based on highly rationalistic and quantitative premises, neglecting the non-rational and qualitative dimensions of complex managerial practice in organisations today. For instance, cases tend to have underlying viewpoints about how managers and organisations operate, which often imply control for a particular objective (Swiercz & Ross, 2003). This echoes the findings of another study (Contardo & Wensley, 2004), which argues that the case study format and narrative reflects limited ideologies. Furthermore, it tends to give the male business executive perspective only (Ruhe & Allen, 1999). Whilst the original intention of the case method was to teach business as a profession, but the ‘higher aims’ of professional education have not been realised i.e. teaching

ethics, understanding how the businessperson works within society, and understanding how the discipline functions in practice (Khurana, 2007). Up-to-date information may not be added to the case, which can result in a perceived lack of relevance.

The traditional Harvard case study *method* is argued to be too analytical, focusing on decision-making and providing too little emphasis on the development of the broad range of complex leadership competencies that are required in contemporary business environments (Mintzberg, 2004a). For instance, it limits the development of self-efficacy, according to Bandura's theory of self-efficacy (McCarthy & McCarthy, 2006). The large classes limit teamwork and collaboration which is possible in smaller learning groups (Griffith, 1999), and it limits self-reflection (Argyris, 1980; Ashamalla & Crocitto, 2001; Forster & Horsley, 1999). Several scholars argue that it can also discourage participation, and that there can be a 'free rider' problem (Bailey et al., 2005). There is also limited emphasis on the transfer of learning to the workplace, and it has no underlying formally agreed-upon learning theory. The method is highly instructor dependent, and is difficult to teach as it involves equal ability in terms of content and method. Finally, this method is difficult to evaluate as it involves teaching multiple learning objectives, including those that are difficult to measure such as interpersonal skills (Mesny, 2013).

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|---|
| **TRADITIONAL CASE STUDY METHOD** | |
| **Content** | |
| • Particularisation<br>• Accumulation of specific knowledge base<br>• Personalisation encourages immersion<br>• Meaning through story<br>• Simulates reality<br>• Encourages discovery | • Limited perspective<br>• Lacks human aspect<br>• No professional focus<br>• Ideology bound<br>• Time bound |
| **Method** | |
| • Offers pedagogical variety<br>• Teaches how to think through various ways to act<br>• Sophisticated technology heightens reality<br>• Involves personal and collective learning<br>• Interactive through discussion<br>• Teaches certain leadership skills<br>• Teaches a way of thinking<br>• Problem helps to engage<br>• Safe decision-making practice | • Not real enough<br>• Large classes limit collaboration<br>• Limited reflection, including of self<br>• Not participatory enough<br>• Limited emphasis on transfer of learning to workplace<br>• No clear underlying learning theory<br>• Learning quality is instructor dependent<br>• Difficult to evaluate |

**Table 2.3: Harvard case study method – strengths and weaknesses of pedagogical content and method**

#### *2.2.4.2 Strengths and weaknesses of variants*

The variants of the traditional case study method aim to develop multiple competencies, broadening the focus from decision-making and problem solving. Whilst these variants have the intention of moving closer to reality, some scholars argue that other experiential pedagogical methods are more appropriate in serving this goal (Mesny, 2013; Mintzberg, 2004a). However, there are advantages implicit in several of them, such as creating heightened personal connection through student generated cases (Mesny, 2013), or establishing being personally exposed to decision-makers and developing a network in the live case method (Daly, 2013). Those variants that aim to induce sense-making amongst students help them to look at business and management in new ways, developing multiple competencies that promote leadership development (Greenhalgh, 2007). Although they can help students develop critical thinking skills, and critique current business models, they can be difficult to teach, however, as they require in-depth thought and implementation. Variants aiming at greater self-reflection provide the opportunity to encourage students to confront their world views (Argyris, 1980), rather than to merely accept the status quo, and to grow and change for the better. However, they are likely to take up a lot more of the students' time than the traditional case, and may be challenging for the instructor to implement.

The development of interpersonal skills that are so necessary in the business environment is a positive aspect of the variants that aim to improve collaboration and teamwork between students. However, the implementation of some of them can be difficult, as students may not feel comfortable to interact in new ways. Variants of the case method that arise in non-US countries aim to provide a more appropriate style of learning that suits their particular cultural, educational and management approach. However, it can be difficult to collect material in some countries where businesses are not prone to share information, especially in the detail that some cultures prefer (Berrell et al., 2001). Successful teaching in unfamiliar countries can also be challenging as it requires in-depth understanding of the culture and educational and management orientation. The advantages offered by cases that are enhanced by technology are the enhancement of reality, and the convenience of learning from afar, and during periods that are more suitable for the student. However, the lack of face-to-face time can limit the development of interpersonal and self-reflective skills, despite the opportunity for greater depth in discussion and availability of a broader range of experience and knowledge (Webb et al., 2005) – see ***Table 2.4***.

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|---|
| **VARIANTS OF THE TRADITIONAL CASE STUDY METHOD** | |
| **Content** | |
| • Develop multiple competencies<br>• Heightened personal connection<br>• Develop critical thinking schools<br>• Greater self-reflection<br>• Development of collaboration skills - such as collaboration, teamwork and conversational | • Students may find self-reflection confronting<br>• Challenging to collect information in some countries<br>• Localised content |
| **Method** | |
| • Moving closer to reality<br>• Personal exposure to business<br>• Help to make sense of complex business challenges<br>• Technology can offer enhancement of reality and deeper levels of learning through exposure to a broader range of expertise<br>• Technology can enable more convenient learning experiences | • Difficult to teach<br>• Time consuming<br>• Difficult to implement<br>• More expensive<br>• Different approach in some cultures<br>• Lack of face-to-face time can limit self-reflection and interpersonal skills |

**Table 2.4: Variants of the Harvard case study method – strengths and weaknesses of pedagogical content and method**

## 2.3 Summary and themes

### 2.3.1 Summary

The history of the traditional Harvard case study method has revealed a shift in content and method in response to influences at different periods of time, and different approaches to teaching, yet it has retained its basic concept and pedagogical intent. Throughout this time the Harvard Business School remained focused on the development of decision-making and problem-solving skills through the discussion-method. Case development was impacted by ongoing tensions between different theories of business knowledge; whilst at the start the aim was to collect 'facts' which could help to build up a theory of business knowledge, this shifted to develop cases which illustrated general principles of classical economic theory.

After the Great War, despite agreement that 'general management' now comprised a body of knowledge, and a scientific approach to research and teaching, the School stayed committed to the method amidst much criticism, and has done so until today. In doing so it has aimed at legitimating itself as focusing on the development of practical business skills yet academically authoritative. The ambiguity around the nature of business knowledge – which remains to this

day – and the legitimacy of the business profession are likely to have contributed to the lack of an agreed-upon underlying theory about the case method, and thus controversy about its' use. Outside of the Harvard Business School, however, variants to the case method have emerged especially since the turn of the millennium, chiefly focused on a broader range of learning objectives that are more appropriate to complex contemporary leadership demands.

In conclusion, drawing on the above discussions of strengths and weaknesses of both traditional and contemporary variants models, the following draft principles were developed. Such a 'bundling' of arguments into a short set of principles inevitably faces an 'operationalisation' or 'reductionist' problem i.e. the richness and complexity of the discussions is inevitably reduced in significance and insight when reduced to a set of principles and metrics. Moreover, criticisms can always be made that individual principles are either too general/generic or too restricted/contextual. Despite such admitted limitations, however, the value of developing principles as an additional element to a literature review of strengths and weaknesses is that it provides a useful resource for course design and evaluation, and can be further enlightened and enlightening through ongoing interactive dialogue with the literature review. After the initial literature review of the Harvard case study method, the following initial draft principles were developed. Themes as they apply to Content as well as Method emerged as a result of analysis of the Harvard case study method and its connections to the overarching theoretical framework applicable to this study.

### 2.3.2 Themes

***Content***

***1 PARTICULARISATION helps learners to learn and remember by providing context***

From its inception, the case method focused on the particular 'facts' of a business problem (Cruikshank, 1987), and this remains the case today as this approach helps to explain the context of a business problem (Barnes et al., 1994). This particularisation approach, which enabled the Harvard Business School to stay close to the specifics of business problems, was relatively unique compared to most business schools which focused on the application of general theories to business problems (Spender, 2013).

***2 Use of STORY helps learners to learn and remember because it stays in their imaginations and engages emotionally***

The case method is seen as a 'natural narrative' (Greenhalgh, 2007) as it offers an incomplete story requiring resolution. It captures the interest of students through the use of plot, relevance and familiarity (Rippin et al., 2002). The use of a central character,

or protagonist, helps to engage learners emotionally, as they imagine being in the challenging situation of trying to solve a business problem (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Lundberg et al., 2001).

***3 By drawing on NEW PERSPECTIVES learners understand the complexities of leading in the business world in new ways***

The traditional case method has focused on the perspective of the protagonist, who is typically a manager cast within a specific management ideology (Contardo & Wensley, 2004; Swiercz & Ross, 2003), and the decision that he is about to make about a business challenge (Rippin et al., 2002). However, the introduction of new perspectives broadens the scope of learning objectives by introducing new ways of understanding the business world. This can be done through casting a worker (Mesny, 2013) or a manager possessing a different ideology as the protagonist.

***Method***

***4 VARIETY helps to engage learners by appealing to their sense of curiosity and teaches them a broader range of skills***

The case method has proven its versatility in being able to be used in many different ways, enabling faculty to teach a broad range of competencies (Rippin et al., 2002). Variants of the traditional model, in particular have been able to introduce new methodologies which, for instance, help to make sense of complex situations (Ardalan, 2015; Greenhalgh, 2007; Maiksteniene, 2013; Walck, 1988), teach self-awareness skills (Argyris, 1982; Ashamalla & Crocitto, 2001; Foster & Carboni, 2009; Rasmussen, 1984), and a greater range of interpersonal skills (Rosier, 2002; Stewart & Winn, 1996; Uslay, 2007).

***5 COLLABORATION should be part of the learning process so that learners share experiences in constructing meaning***

The intention of the traditional case method is for the instructor and the class to co-construct meaning about a business challenge (Ellet, 2007). In doing so there is intended to be collaboration amongst students (Garvin, 2003); some of the variants of the case method suggest that it falls short in this respect and requires a more conversational approach without assertive student dominating (Griffith, 1999).

***6 INTERACTION encourages learners to actively participate and be immersed in the learning process***

Discussion that is a hallmark of the case method enables interaction between learners so that they can actively participate and make contributions to the collective learning

process (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Christensen et al., 1991; Christensen & Hansen, 1987). This extends to a wide variety of interpersonal communication, enabling students to learn from each other's experience (Osigweh, 1987).

***7 Providing a CHALLENGE to learners encourages engagement because they want to find solutions***

The dilemma or problem faced by the protagonist in the case method (Lundberg et al., 2001) engages through the provision of a 'mystery' (Osigweh, 1987) and requires resolution (Greenhalgh, 2007). It helps the student to understand the complexity involved in understanding a business problem, despite its second-handedness (Mintzberg, 2004a), and provides the opportunity to think (Christensen et al., 1991; Lundberg et al., 2001) and imagine what might be involved.

***8 Learning how to act like a professional helps learners to play a MORAL role as business leaders***

From inception the intention was for the case method to aid in the moral development of students (Khurana, 2007; Kimball, 1995), and this was a strong theme at Harvard Business School in its early history (Cruikshank, 1987; Daniel, 1998). However, this has failed to eventuate as business does not possess the same moral dimensions as that of other professions like medicine and law (Khurana & Nohria, 2008; Khurana, Nohria & Penrice, 2005).

***9 Understanding the HUMAN ASPECT is a critical part of operating as a business leader***

The traditional case method aims to simulate the realities of facing a business challenge (Ellet, 2007); however because of its rational and analytical approach, it can result in an 'antiseptic' view of organisations which inaccurately portrays the human element (Dean & Fornaciari, 2002). Instead, teaching approaches that take the case method closer to the reality of business can be used, which more precisely reveal the human dimension, such as more experiential (Dean & Fornaciari, 2002; Kreber, 2001) and 'live' (Carroll, 2013; Mesny, 2013; Roth & Smith, 2009) cases.

***10 The learning process should encourage SELF REFLECTION so that learners challenge their worldviews***

In the traditional case method, it is argued that it fails to test learner's assumptions, diminishing the opportunity for double-loop learning (Argyris, 1980). There are variants of the case method which encourage self-reflection so that learners challenge their worldviews, such as those used in the self-analytic case (Rasmussen, 1984) or self-authored case (Argyris, 1982; Ashamalla & Crocitto, 2001; Foster & Carboni, 2009).

***11 Learners should feel SAFE so that they are able to absorb and discover***

The traditional case method allows for learners to think through problems and recommend solutions without serious consequences (Rippin et al., 2002). In this way, they feel safe and feel free to learn about business problems without risk to themselves or to the organisation (Mintzberg, 2004a).

***12 The use of TECHNOLOGY enhances learning by accessing a broad range of experiences and can enhance reality***

The availability of more sophisticated technology has meant that there are new ways to enhance the learning experience, such as through video and multimedia cases, which have proven to be more effective at engaging and representing reality than printed cases (McCarthy & McCarthy, 2006; O'Connell et al., 2004). Real-world cases based on virtual environments (Lowe et al., 2015) have also been developed and there is experimentation with the introduction of cases being taught through online platforms (Harvard Magazine, 2014).

# 3 History of MBA Education

> Management education has been one of the most dynamic elements in the dramatic expansion of graduate and professional schooling since World War II, yet its content, pedagogy, pattern of growth, and place within higher education have received little attention (Schlossman & Sedlak, 1988).

The field of management education includes a broad variety of informal and formal ways of educating about business (O'Toole, 2009), and it has been taught in institutions of higher learning since the mid-1800s (Daniel, 1998). For the purposes of this chapter, there is a focus on the most dominant form of management education, the traditional US-based Master of Business Administration (MBA), the model on which most formal business education programmes throughout the world is based. The MBA degree has become the most popular of all advanced degrees globally (AACSB International, 2005), and it has enjoyed consistent growth over time, despite the fact that it remains a largely undefined profession (O'Toole, 2009) without a precise body of knowledge (Swiercz & Ross, 2003).

The Master of Business Administration (MBA) is an internationally recognised degree, designed to develop the skills and competencies required for careers in business and management in particular. It is a geographically portable postgraduate academic course in a number and variety of subjects that together can be said to constitute the art, craft and science of management.

This chapter describes the broader business education context within which the Harvard case study method proliferated, and provides the backdrop for the next chapter which looks at future possibilities for MBA education. It comprises three sections, with the first looking briefly at the evolution of MBA education, and how it is characterised by repeated swings between theory and practice over the years, and inherent tensions in terms of the nature of business knowledge and pedagogy. It also looks at the range of pedagogical methods used, showing the relative prominence of the Harvard case study method which has been used globally throughout the past century.

In the second section a critique of MBA education is offered and some of the key themes are discussed. The value and relevance of this form of education has increasingly being called into question, intensifying in the last seven years since the 2008 global financial crisis.

The third section looks at the strengths and weaknesses of past management education, whilst the final section provides a summary and presents design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype (as described in ***Chapter 10***).

## 3.1 Historical background – the elusive 'golden mean'[10]

As with all institutions, in order to better understand the business school institution and its central MBA programme, it is useful to research and understand its origins (Khurana, 2007). The history of MBA education in the United States has been shaped by various societal and business influences since it took off in the early 1900s, playing an important role in times of crisis, and characterised by repetitive swings from theory to practice over the years. Over time managerial and leadership skill-sets required by both business and society have become far broader in response to increasingly complex challenges, yet US business schools have failed to focus on their ultimate purpose of developing good leaders (DeAngelo, DeAngelo & Zimmerman, 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). Although there are variations in terms of business school curriculum and method – with some schools emphasising quantitative theoretical-based teaching and others teaching through cases – there remains a shared conceptual framework with a focus on the main business functions such as finance, marketing and strategy. Thus, after decades of criticism of business schools, there has been little change (Spender, 2013).

The need for better qualified managers and administrators led to the first significant academic business education institutions appearing from the mid-1800s in the United States and Europe (Engwall, 2007; Armstrong & Fukami, 2009). The Wharton School, which opened in 1881, was founded in response to businessman Joseph Wharton's criticisms of the 'learning by doing' approach common in colleges at the time (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009b), and represents the first attempt to shift out of the apprenticeship system. At first, there was resistance to the introduction of business education because formal education was reserved for the professions, there was no body of business knowledge, it had a low class reputation[11], and universities and colleges were considered at that time to be for 'learning, not earning' (Daniel, 1998, p. 28). However, the inception of the Harvard Business School in 1908 stimulated business education to grow exponentially (Daniel, 1998) with the intention of these early business schools for business to become a profession, incorporating the idea of professional ethics and benefiting society (Khurana, 2007).

With the establishment of these institutions came the growth of theoretical and specialised knowledge, failing to directly address the subject of business knowledge and provide an acceptable alternative to the informal apprenticeship (Nelson, 1993). In these early times, most

[10] See ***Appendix B*** for a more detailed version of this section.

[11] This stance, which had its roots in the ancient belief that money was the root of all evil, was also considered to be an occupation of last resort if one was unable to enter the professions (Daniel (1998).

business educators were either practicing or retired corporate managers, which meant that students had the benefit of learning about the lessons learned on the job. Understandably, then, business schools were known for their 'trade school' approach to management education which lasted through the first half of the 20th century (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009b). By the end of the first decade of the 20th century, business education was considered essential in contributing towards the well-being of society (Daniel, 1998). Business schools tried to implement many new ideas, and there was a wide variety of approaches, several of which 'anticipated some important current developments which today are considered quite revolutionary' (Pierson & others, 1959, p. 35).

Business boomed during the 1920s, playing an increasingly central role in society, with its leaders regarded as a respectable profession, and business schools kept growing. Business itself started to be viewed as less mechanical and the search by business schools for an ideal or basic curriculum continued, with different schools doing different things. Gradually there was a shift away from industry-specific courses, and, following the rise of scientific management, the 'human relations' movement grew slowly in the 1920s replacing the descriptive approach which was based on applied economics. Despite the gradual nature of this change, it marked an important turning point in the history of the MBA degree (Daniel, 1998). By the end of the 1920s, instead of being perceived as a body that collected facts which could help to improve business, business education was seen as playing a key role in society. Some business schools professed that their aim was to train people how to be in positions of responsible leadership in the years to come, and the emphasis was not on making money. During the Great Depression, business schools were called upon to play a role in finding answers to the economic turmoil (Daniel, 1998). Because they had played key roles during the Great Depression and the Second World War, there were heightened expectations regarding the role of the business school in society. However, with the enormous influx of returning veterans, there was considerable challenge in accommodating them. During this time there was:

> … a swirl of confusion and contradictions in which theory sometimes moved ahead of practice and practice sometimes ahead of theory
> (Daniel, 1998, p. 138).

After the Second World War, with the boom in the economy and a flourishing business education sector (Kimball, 1995), the US began to export management education to other countries. The exponential growth of US business schools had made the idea an attractive proposition, as did the emphasis on preparing students for the profession of management. Many felt that '[it] propagated, if it did not invent, the idea of management itself' (Locke, 1989,

p. 162), whilst there were others who labelled it 'educational imperialism' (Byrt, 1989). It was during the first two decades after the Second World War that the influence of US business education was strongest, especially in Western Europe and Japan. The year 1959 had marked a critical turning point, with the Carnegie (Pierson & others, 1959) and Ford (Gordon & Howell, 1959) Foundation reports being published which offered perspectives on the state of business education in the United States. The reports reinforced the need for a scientific approach in management education (Locke, 1998b; Schlossman, Sedlak & Wechsler, 1998) wherein reasoning ability took priority over merely understanding the mechanics of a business. Almost immediately there was a response to the reports, and the approach of management educators was to become increasingly analytical in the 1980s and 1990s – this approach worked well with the academic quality of business education improving substantially (Leavitt, 1989). However, Daniel 1998, p. 180) perceives the advent of the Foundation reports as 'a temporary interruption in the quest for the golden mean, the proper balance between academic theory and commercial practice'.

Knowledge convergence after mid-1960 meant that all programmes began to teach much the same content (Locke, 1998a), and there was a shift towards a general management approach. There was, however, a split in orientation in the 1960s with two camps emerging – Carnegie's academic approach, in which management is considered a science and Harvard's case orientation in which management is viewed as a profession. Schlossman & Sedlak, (1988) argue that there were in fact a number of other complexities and innovations that impacted on this field of education after the Second World War. For instance, management and ownership had become separated as the norm in the US economy, and a manager with a broader range of competencies was in demand:

> Numerous previous extraneous variables, in short, had become essential components of business decision-making. New levels of psychological, social and political sophistication were essential for managers to deal with them (Schlossman & Sedlak, 1988, p. 4).

With the US-style business school spread to many other countries, especially after 1960, Locke, (1996) contends that the country did not deliver in terms of quality management education despite high levels of economic growth in some periods, and its influence weakened during the late 1960s and 1970s. Moreover, Amdam (2007) suggests that, at the global level, there were two competing visions emerging: a European approach of developing a cross-national approach in business education, and one of strengthening national systems of business education. After the economic crises which began early in the 1970s, nationalistic attitudes came to dominate, and this took the focus away from the European international vision, and the focus was on

strengthening national educational systems – including business education. Ultimately this meant more of a focus on regional and national needs, strategies and visions, a phenomenon characteristic of the 1960s–1980s period (Amdam, 2007).

With the advent of the Vietnam War in 1959 came a number of criticisms about business schools in the United States – especially with regard to the compatibility of business schools with various social aspects of the world of work. In response, the schools took a number of steps including a stronger focus on ethics and social responsibility. They also examined the relationship between business and schools and gave more attention to students who had graduated and their careers. As a result the MBA 'emerged stronger than it had been before' and business schools continued to grow. The 1970s recession brought in predictions of dire consequences for the MBA industry, yet it experienced its most rapid growth in history in the 1970s, and was characterised by a variety of interesting innovations and a much greater focus on research (Daniel, 1998).

In the 1980s there were a range of attacks on business schools such as: too theoretical a curriculum, overemphasis on finance, under-emphasis on people issues, indifference to society, lack of international focus, the ambitiousness and materialism of graduates, and general disillusionment among employers (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Pheffer & Fong, 2002). There were a number of reasons that these attacks occurred, with some arguing that it was a result of the exponential growth that had been experienced and the failure of the MBA innovations of that time to produce expected results. But perhaps the most significant reason of all was the slipping in competitiveness of the US economy, and that business schools must be to blame. In the early 1980s the long-predicted decline in demand for MBAs began to be felt for the first time (Daniel, 1998). Some of the reforms included attempts to become more involved in the business world in a 'swing to practicality', and a more substantive curriculum (including the return of manufacturing, an entrepreneurial emphasis, an emphasis on global issues, interest in social problems and the arts, ethical concerns, attention to the improvement of the personal attributes of MBAs, and increased attention to the needs of business). As a result, the demand for MBAs kept on growing with rising enrolments and increased prestige for the degree (Daniel, 1998). There was a marked movement away from the US model characterising most of the previous 75 years. Business schools started to do a lot of different things in response to massive changes in the business world (Daniel, 1998). However, it was during this time that there were important competitors entering the market (Daniel, 1998; Jones & Zeitlin, 2008).

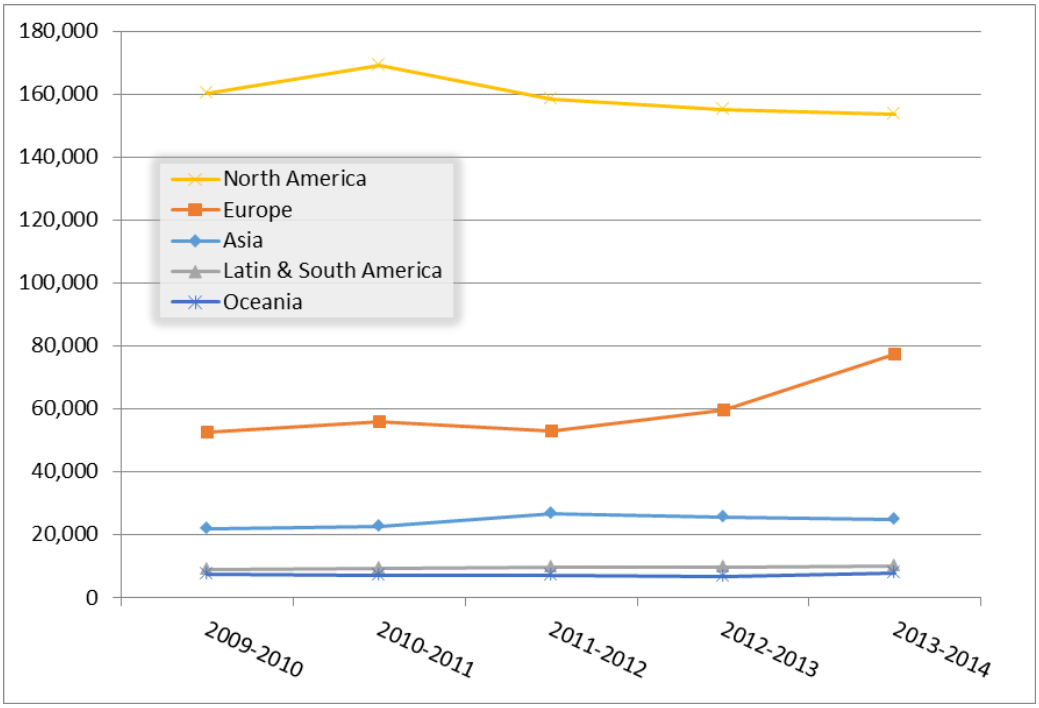
During the 1990s a variety of new elements were brought into the curriculum, methods of teaching and the underlying philosophy of business schools. On the whole, business schools

began to look at offering practical, participatory and active elements in their MBA programmes, shifting the emphasis to greater relevance and forging greater allegiance to the business world. There was a common goal: 'to bring the MBA programs out of their ivory tower isolation and into the real world' (Daniel, 1998, p. 286). The curriculum gave far more emphasis to issues such as global business, entrepreneurship, ethics, leadership, and soft skills whilst there was a 'de-emphasis' of finance. The new methods of teaching focused on synthesis, making use of experiential techniques, the importance of people, and an interdisciplinary approach. Accompanying these changes, demand for the MBA degree began to grow consistently again (Daniel, 1998).

In the course of the 1990s, Locke & Spender (2011) suggest that managerialism had come into play whereby responsibility and ethics were cast aside by an elite group of businessmen who were in control of organisations. They conclude that despite attempts to introduce science into management over the years, there was no management science that resulted which was of use to the business world. With these important structural changes occurring in the economy, critical new challenges facing business schools surfaced. The financial turmoil toward the end of the first decade of the millennium 'turned into a eureka event in world history, where observers suddenly discovered that the emperor has no clothes' (Locke & Spender, 2011, p. 189), and there was a need to become more socially responsible. The constant calls for change, which had occurred over the past 25 years, meant that management education was in trouble (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a). By the new millennium, business was the largest field in higher education, yet high growth rates were likely to have eroded the quality of the education and with increasingly intense competition schools were starting to look similar (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). Management had failed to become the profession that was originally intended, and did not have an agreed-upon common body of knowledge or formal licencing system for being a manager, and was without a commitment to the public good (Khurana, 2007). Furthermore, management education had ignored the ability of graduates to translate theory into practice (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a).

The advent of globalisation together with more sophisticated and widespread use of technology were the hallmarks of management education in the new millennium, and thus there was a need for more complex non-traditional skill-sets in the business world and new methods of teaching them (Poldony, 2008). Graduate management education grew extensively and rapidly over the decade of 1997–2007 (Anderson, 2007), largely attributed to the growth of private enterprise over the previous 20 years especially in Asia (Danos in Wakefield (2013)). Despite the American

MBA still being the most dominant form of formal management education, a geographical breakdown of MBA enrolment growth reveals that it is occurring in places other than the US - see ***Table 3.1***.




| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Asia | 95 | 87 | 96 | 133 | 109 |
| Europe | 71 | 91 | 84 | 68 | 82 |
| Latin & South America | 13 | 20 | 23 | 22 | 30 |
| North America | 2121 | 2134 | 2124 | 2116 | 2035 |
| Oceania | 28 | 27 | 27 | 28 | 18 |

**Note: The graph shows enrolment figures and the table beneath shows MBA programme figures.**

Source: Mondello (2015). This data is representative only of member schools that participated in the AACSB survey, and excludes many MBA-granting institutions that are not members or did not participate in the data collection. Of the 16,515 schools worldwide offering business programs, 8.6% are AACSB members.

**Table 3.1: AACSB schools internationally – comparison of MBA data, 2009–2014**

Currently, some argue that management education is 'on the verge of a paradigm shift', in response to debates about effectiveness (Mintzberg, 2004a), relevance (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), and content and delivery aspects (Danos in Wakefield, 2013) and demonstrated by the extent of extreme business school transformations globally (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a). However, business school initiatives intended to address the current and future challenges have been fragmented, and O'Toole (2009) questions the extent to which business schools are adequately equipped to cope with the challenges of the future, especially strong competition. He argues that this is because, although there is general agreement that the current dominant business school model is ineffective, there is no agreed-upon replacement for it. Furthermore, the emphasis is on identifying more effective ways of delivering teaching material at the expense of

developing appropriate content, and 'pluralism will be the wave of the future' (O'Toole, 2009, p. 558).

## 3.2 Contemporary critiques of MBA education[12]

Since its inception, management education has been criticised in many ways, despite its consistent growth record, and criticism is often incoherent and conflicting (Ivory, Miskell, Shipton, White, Moeslein & Neely, 2006). It has been argued that business school's 'resilience to criticism is admirable, especially since there is so much of it' (Rooney, McKenna & Liesch, 2010, p. 186). A large body of evidence suggests that the curriculum taught in business schools has only a small relationship to what is important for succeeding in the business world. Although studies show that 70–90% of workplace learning comes from on-the-job experiences, there is a belief that formal management education programmes are more effective at teaching individuals how to perform as a manager (Rubin & Dierdorff, 2009). Early in the new millennium, the value, effectiveness and relevance of this form of education had increasingly been called into question (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Ghoshal, 2005; Khurana, 2007; Mintzberg, 2004a; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Poldony, 2008; Quelch, 2005; Rubin & Dierdorff, 2009; Starkey & Tempest, 2008), and this intensified after the financial crisis of 2008 (Fryer & Levine, 2009).

Looking back, these calls had begun to escalate midway through the 1980s (Cheit, 1985; Leavitt, 1989; Porter & McKibbin, 1988; Schlossman, Sedlak & Wechsler, 1998), 30 years after the 1950s 'revolution' in thinking about management education (Leavitt, 1989). Other post-millennium critiques cover many aspects of management education, such as the effectiveness of business schools in providing such education (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), the relevance of skills being taught in business schools (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Mintzberg, 2004a; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), what kind of students are being taught, and drill down to issues of what and how they are being taught (Mintzberg, 2004a; Poldony, 2008). The critiques question institutional motives and purpose, and the contribution of business schools to society (Khurana, 2007; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004; Quelch, 2005; Starkey & Tempest, 2008). They also interrogate how connected management education institutions are to the business world, whilst business schools are accused of being too business-like (Brocklehurst, Sturdy, Winstanley & Driver, 2007; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004) and insular within the university environment (Quelch, 2005), lacking a focus on moral ethics (Ghoshal, 2005; Khurana, 2007).

[12] 'In the long history of American higher education, no professional field of study has been more consistently inspirational both to its friends and its critics than that of business' (Cheit, 1985).

Many of these needs have been echoed over time, and Daniel (1998) elucidates on the history of the MBA in the following way:

> [I]t appears to consist of nothing more than an endless cycle of the same arguments and developments. The most recent comments and criticisms, as well as most innovations by the schools, all have exact parallels in the past, often as far back as 1910 or 1915 (Daniel, 1998, p. 288).

He ascribes this largely to the fact that the MBA is 'a creature of two worlds', the academic world and the business world, where different requirements and expectations exist. At the same time, he also argues that this form of education has transformed over time, making significant contributions to education, business and society, and providing an education that aspires to be 'the perfect training for young men and women of business.'

So the fundamental question is what is the role of a business school? Furthermore, what are the academic and practical skills relating to business that should be taught, how are they best taught, and where exactly are schools falling short?

Because one's perspective depends on the milieu in which one lives, the answers to these questions will vary considerably over time. For instance, whilst in the 1930s teaching academic skills meant teaching about the human aspects of managing because of the human relations influence, in the 1960s it meant analysing and measuring in far more technical ways in response to the influence of science. Similarly, there are different types of practical skills, such as analytical skills developed through the case study method, or interpersonal skills using experiential teaching methods. Whilst earlier on teaching methods drew on traditional lecturing and the case method, since the 1980s most business schools attempted to shift closer to teaching in ways that more closely reflect the reality of business in order to teach the 'practical wisdom' required to operate as a leader, bridging the 'knowing-doing' gap. Over time, despite some of the same themes emerging in terms of these rigor and relevance concerns, business schools remain unsure of why they teach what they teach (Spender, 2013).

By the mid-1980s the curriculum for most schools had shifted somewhat to reflect the fact that organisations were expected to be configured in a different way compared to the previous half century, yet the curriculum retained the same focus on a basic core in basic business functions. These changes were felt to be caused by greater diversity in organisations, increased globalisation, technological advances and competition, and Porter and McKibbin (1988) reported that business school curricula at that time failed to emphasise the development of 'vision' or integration across functional business areas. Furthermore, too much attention was paid to quantitative analytical techniques, and too little to a whole range of issues including managing

people, communication skills, entrepreneurship, ethics and the external macro environment including international aspects.

Despite these findings, by the second decade of the millennium the curriculum had still not changed much since the 1960s, other than several significant additions – such as sustainability, business ethics and entrepreneurship. It had kept a quantitative approach based on the same business functions[13] and was not well linked to business practice (Spender, 2013)[14]. The curriculum focused primarily on analytical decision-making, and despite having introduced some changes, failed to educate students in the skills they need to operate as leaders such as collaboration. As noted by Mintzberg and Gosling (2002, pp. 64-65):

> There have been all sorts of revisions in recent years — in international activities, uses of new pedagogical technologies, efforts to include more "soft skills" and so forth. Yet the fundamentals — the focus on business functions and on analysis and technique — have not changed. It might not be unfair to conclude that we now educate managers with a 1908 product that uses a 1950s strategy.

Mintzberg (2004a) emphasises the need for a balanced curriculum reflecting the different aspects of managing in practice – art (imagination), craft (experience) and science (logic) – which taps into experience, and encourages insight, vision and creativity, rather than analysis and technique. Some 15 years earlier Leavitt (1989, p. 39) expressed similar sentiments regarding the unevenly balanced MBA programme:

> So we have built a weird, almost unimaginable design for MBA-level education. We then lay it upon well-proportioned young men and women, distorting them (when we are unlucky enough to succeed) into critters with lopsided brains, icy hearts, and shrunken souls.

He recommended that more emphasis be placed on global thinking, habits of lifelong learning, and action. An emphasis on science in management education – and in the associated strong research tradition – has been at the cost of individualism and entrepreneurship, what Leavitt (1989, p. 39) calls 'the frontend "pathfinding" area, where rather amorphous but critical issues like leadership, vision, imagination, and values reside'.

There are others, too, who argue for the development of a more comprehensive skill-set. Schlegelmilch & Thomas (2011) and Bennis & O'Toole (2005) call for an urgent rebalancing of the curriculum where graduates are able to acquire a range of skills from analytical capabilities to managerial skills and attention to ethics and corporate social responsibility. Datar, Garvin &

[13] These include the theories of accounting, finance, economics, marketing, organisational theory, organisational behaviour, strategy, operations, management science, IT, and management information systems.
[14] Spender (2013) argues that this is because of the absence of a viable theory of the firm.

Cullen, 2011) differentiate between 'knowing', 'being' and 'doing' skills[15], suggesting that most business schools had focused on the knowing component since the formal critiques in the late 1950s[16] when scholarly rigor became the objective. They note that the kind of knowledge taught has been increasingly analytical and technical, now requiring reassessment of theories, models and facts so that it better reflects complexity. It also means paying more attention to the development of practical 'doing' skills – such as persuading, motivating and inspiring – which are essential in leading today, and 'being' skills which focus on values, attitudes and beliefs that can inform better leadership. Specific criticisms are now grouped relating to the range of different kinds of skills perceived as important for business schools to develop, followed by a critique of past teaching methods.

### 3.2.1 Need for a broader range of leadership skills

#### *3.2.1.1 Values, attitudes and beliefs – 'being' skills*

One of the most evident criticisms regarding values is that of the lack of morals, both in terms of what is taught in business schools and in terms of the behaviour of the business schools themselves. Studies have found that, unlike in other professions, business school students experience a decline in morality as they progress through their learning experience (Rooney, McKenna & Liesch, 2010)[17]. Khurana (2007) builds a strong case arguing that the intent was to establish a profession that – as in the case of other professions – was accountable to society more broadly. He contends that these original 'higher aims' have been forgotten, and with that the idea of management as a profession has evaporated. Instead, business schools have become focused on much more narrow goals where managers are trained to run organisations in much more clinical ways – reflecting the scientific analytical tradition (Khurana, 2007).

Goshal (2005) claims that this scientific model has involved a particular worldview of management based on a set of assumptions and ideas devoid of morals, with the result that students have gone on to practice as leaders without a sense of responsibility. In their research with deans and executives Datar et al. (2011) found that more attention needed to be paid to the ethical development of students, something that became particularly evident through the corporate scandals and financial crisis in the first decade of the 21st century. Westerman (2010)

[15] 'Knowing' skills include knowing about 'the facts, frameworks and the theories that make up the core understandings of a profession and practice', 'doing' skills involve the skills, capabilities, and techniques that lie at the heart of the practice of management', and 'being' skills are about the 'values, attitudes, and beliefs that form managers' worldviews and professional identities' (Datar et al., 2011, p. 7).

[16] The Pierson et al. (1959) and Gordon and Howell (1959) reports.

[17] Although business schools might not explicitly teach amoral behaviour, the candidates that are attracted tend to be self-serving and possessing a desire for power rather than a higher purpose (Mintzberg, 2004a; Rooney et al., 2010).

further suggests that teaching ethics is particularly pertinent considering the narcissistic trend amongst the student body today. Other critics point to the excessive materialism that prevails amongst graduates of management education in their self-interested focus on high salary as primary goal, and a lack of interest in how they can contribute to sustainability and society more broadly (Khurana, 2007; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004; Starkey, Hatchuel & Tempest, 2004).

There are a large number of criticisms that business schools have shifted away from their purpose in response to media rankings, reinforcing the amoral attitude of students. For decades the performance of business schools has been ranked by the media, and criticism is levelled at the schools regarding their response to their ratings and a lack of professional ethics. In particular, they are criticised for seeing themselves as businesses (Brocklehurst, Sturdy, Winstanley & Driver, 2007; Welsh & Dehler, 2007), being too market-orientated, and pandering to the short-term wants of their customers instead of staying true to their ultimate purpose of developing good leaders (DeAngelo, 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). This market orientation to management education among US-based business schools in particular

> … results from a devil's bargain that business schools seem to have adopted: in return for the ability to obtain huge and growing enrolments and large donations, schools have presented themselves and their value proposition primarily, although certainly not exclusively, as a path to career security and financial riches (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004, p. 1503).

For this reason they have increasingly been called up as profiteers for charging high fees, and the resultant stiff competition has meant that they 'find themselves at a crossroads trying to forge a way ahead' (Crainer & Dearlove, 2000). This has resulted in more focus on short term student demands, larger class sizes, and less on content and teaching methods that appropriately challenge students. According to critical management theorists, business schools need to teach in ways that are more explicit about the ethical, political and philosophical nature of its practice (French & Grey, 1996; Grey, 2004), and scholars recommend that business schools adopt an approach that elicits a professional ethos that is not solely focused on careerism but on benefitting society more broadly (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004).

There have been other criticisms arguing for a more holistic understanding of self as a leader. Boyatzis, Stubbs and Taylor (2002) argue that the typical MBA curriculum does not develop the 'whole person' – including intellectual, intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects – and that insufficient attention is paid to intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects. Datar et al. (2011) identify self-awareness and interpersonal skills as key aspects that need development, and which have not been given enough attention in the past. Other scholars echoed these findings

by arguing for more attention to be paid to the development of emotional intelligence (such as self-awareness and empathy), relationship-building (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; ChiefExecutive.net, 2012; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2003; McKee, Boyatzis & Johnston, 2008), leadership development and change management skills (Conger & Xin, 2000). Furthermore, there should be a focus on examining one's own assumptions and worldviews so that double-loop learning can take place (Argyris, 2002, 2004). In a recent Carnegie Foundation study of US undergraduate business education, it was recommended students 'move beyond narrow technical expertise to creativity, professional judgment, and enhanced social contribution and personal fulfilment in their work and their lives' (Colby, Ehrlich, Sullivan, Dolle & Shulman, 2011). The development of these kinds of internal or 'being' skills involve drawing deeply on the art of reflection in the learning process (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Schön, 1987), as well as feedback and frequent interaction with others so that the opportunity for shifts in behaviour is maximised (Datar et al., 2011).

#### *3.2.1.2 Practice-based – 'doing' skills*

The provision of management education, and the MBA in particular, has been accused by both academics and practitioners as ineffective in determining career success or managerial performance (Cheit, 1985; Leavitt, 1989; Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Porter & McKibbin, 1988). Business schools have increasingly been criticised for having an approach and generating theory and research that is too scientific, and although excellent, is not relevant to management in practice (Bailey & Ford, 1996; Bennis & O'Toole, 2005). Most of the work done by managers and leaders involves working with people, yet a review of CEO failure shows that insufficient emphasis is placed on the development of critical 'people skills' and 'execution' or implementation competencies in traditional MBA programmes (Charan & Colvin, 1999). Another study also looked at why CEOs failed reveals that these executives ran their businesses:

> … according to a formula, regardless of the people involved or the dynamics of the industry in question. There's a correlation with the degree here: The MBA tends to be heavy on the 'B' and light on the 'A', teaching business functions, yet not developing the practice of administering. These programs give students the confidence to make decisions but not the competence to deal with the messy reality in which decisions are executed (Mintzberg & Lampel, 2001, p. 2).

In the same vein, Leavitt (1989) notes that implementing is about social action, which means getting things done through people. However this does not get taught well enough because it takes a lot of practice to become an expert, and business schools do not provide sufficient opportunity to do this. Most of what a leader does in practice involves working with people, and

for this reason, Bailey and Ford (1996) note that this involves 'the development of shared meaning' which enables action, and dealing with uncertainty, multiple understandings and politics. They highlight on-going criticisms reflecting the inability of science-based management to solve ambiguous business problems that are context bound, and propose that management educators design curricula to reflect the central role of action by taking note of the differences between the scientific approach and practice.

#### *3.2.1.3 Critical thinking and the reassessment of models – 'knowing' skills*

The cognitive or 'knowing' skills that are taught in the MBA classroom, which have focused on analytical skills, have failed to teach about the limitations of models (Datar et al., 2011), and to question the nature of management itself (Grey, 2004). Some question the narrow view of management:

> … a misconceived 'pseudo-professional' management orthodoxy that enshrines financial performance as the ultimate raison d'être of business (Hayes & Abernathy, 1981).

The resulting obsession with financial controls and market-driven strategies can be said to diminish risk taking and innovation (Hayes & Abernathy, 1981). Brocklehurst et al. (2007) suggest that if the MBA needs to be transformed, then so too does management itself. They note that in the absence of any expected radical changes in the way that a small group of managers exerts control over the activities of a large portion of the population, there should at least be a sense of humility about management and what managers are able to do. Others suggest the need for new models:

> A self-interested, self-indulgent corporate leadership is not inevitable, and a model for something better lies at hand (Khurana, Nohria & Penrice, 2005). p. 19).

The impact of globalisation has also rendered many of the traditional models and theories adopted by business schools irrelevant, and they have had to find ways of changing smoothly with the times so that the institutional culture is in sync with different stakeholders and caters to the needs of students from different countries. The new global environment and its models (Eyring, Johnson & Nair, 2011; Sapir, 2006) with the associated relevant capabilities required calls for an entirely different way of teaching and learning, with leaders not developing fast enough or in the right ways to match the new environment (Petrie, 2011). With the MBA having originated in the United States, many see it is the exemplar for business (Locke, 1989), and Brocklehurst et al. (2007) muse over whether it represents a 'form of Western myopia',

questioning how much growing nations such as those in Asia have ignored the principles which inform the MBA.

Technological advancement has also disrupted the way that business is done, requiring new competencies and new models (Chesbrough, 2012; Kleindl, 2000). Furthermore there has been a shift in how businesses are organised from a focus on separate business functions to integrated, multidisciplinary and global projects where managers are required to operate across functions and countries (Datar et al., 2011). As a result, organisations have become much 'flatter', with managers becoming responsible for more complex situations which require critical thinking skills. Furthermore, business leaders are increasingly being required to deal with more difficult challenges which require highly collaborative skill-sets (Mintzberg, 2004a) such as economic collapse and rapid climate change. This has meant the acquisition of skills, such as managing communities and partnerships in the 'third sector' (Dahan, Doh, Oetzel & Yaziji, 2010), are required to deal with an environment characterised by a fast pace of change, higher levels of complexity, and increased competition to control resources by various sectors of society.

### 3.2.2 Need more appropriate teaching methods

By the end of the 20th century, the assumption was that if one had mastered content then one could teach it: 'The focus has been content oriented (i.e., how much one knows about one's field), not process oriented (i.e., whether or not one can convey that knowledge effectively)' (Bailey, Saparito, Kressel, Christensen & Hooijberg, 1997, p. 156), with most faculty members believing that they possessed pedagogical skills and did not need to be evaluated. However, Bailey et al. (1997) suggest that teaching should be a reflective practice in the way that Schön (1983, 1987) describes it, as reflection-in-action.

In the new millennium the most dominant management education pedagogy, the Harvard case study method, and other simulation methods increasingly came under attack and there was interest, for instance, in using context in new ways and emotion in the learning process (Strebel & Keys, 2005). Experiential learning has been heralded by deans and executives as the most appropriate method to teach practical business skills and competencies (Datar et al., 2011), placing experience as a central role in the learning process that draws on the whole person. However, despite escalating interest in moving towards more real-time practice-based learning which involves critical reflection of one's actions in the workplace, resistance to learning outside of the classroom remained evident. For instance, the case method is still generally used in preference to action learning or project-based approaches (Raelin, 2009b). Raelin (2009b, p.

403) ascribes this resistance largely to institutionalised 'habit, history, and tradition', and argues that practice-based and critical approaches that have been employed have been:

> … diluted in favor of the promotion of reductionist and mythological active learning strategies which, though useful, are unlikely to lead to the acquisition of prudential wisdom (Raelin, 2009b, p. 401).

The emphasis on a scientific quantitative approach to teaching is directly influenced by the knowledge base and values implicit of faculty of business schools, and reinforced through generalised theories and incentives for scientific research rather than teaching. Thus there was little interest for a faculty to make changes (Spender, 2013), impacting directly on what is taught at business schools and how it is taught. Chia (2009, p. 39) gives his interpretation of the situation:

> The business school's emphasis on detached analysis and understanding in acquiring formal causal knowledge overlooks the need to encourage direct immersion, emotional involvement and risk-taking in encouraging individual personal growth and in mastering the *art* of management. Such displays of vulnerability, risk-taking and emotional involvement are not usually exemplified by faculty members in business school teaching environments. But it is exactly this detachment and risk-aversion which is often unconsciously and unintentionally transmitted as exemplary behaviours to management students in business schools.

Mintzberg (2004a) struck deep with a convincing argument that management cannot be taught in a classroom and that there is a lack of relevance in terms of what is taught at business schools. He summed it up by saying that MBA programmes teach the wrong people (inexperienced), in the wrong ways (far from practice), and with the wrong consequences (callous bureaucratic management instead of leadership). He further claims that this form of education fails to look at contextual factors, and culminates in organisations that are 'more hierarchical, more centralised, and more formalized than they should be' (Mintzberg, 2004a, p. 138), and that instead of encouraging a 'heroic'[18] form of leadership the focus should be on teamwork, collaboration, and networks. Instead, he recommends an educational approach that encourages 'synthesis rather than separation', drawing on and integrating various mindsets that are used in the role of manager: reflective, analytic, worldly, collaborative, and action mindset (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003). For Mintzberg (2004a, p. 10), tapping on the experience of students is central in the learning experience, and that:

> … most management is craft, meaning that it relies on experience – learning on the job. This means it is as much about doing in order to think as thinking in order to do.

[18] Mintzberg (2004a) refers to this as a 'calculating' overly analytical style of management, encouraged by an education emphasising science.

Criticisms related to current teaching methods are grouped here in terms of the role played by faculty and students.

#### *3.2.2.1 Faculty*

Pedagogical aspects are influenced largely by the way in which faculty members approach their teaching responsibilities, and by faculty ability, but also by the objectives and educational philosophy adopted by the teaching institution (Gordon & Howell, 1959). In the *Carnegie Report* (Pierson & others, 1959, p. 269) at the end of the 1950s it was stated that 'building a faculty must be the central concern of every forward moving school.' Since then, faculties have tended to be selected on the basis of their research record rather than their pedagogical prowess – resulting in accusations of being stuck in an 'ivory tower' producing theoretically-based research. Armstrong and Fukami (2009a) argue that the 'impotence' of management education can be reversed by emphasising the scholarship of teaching and learning rather than research, so that the same scientific methods can be used to evaluate work in teaching. After all, as Pfeffer (2011, p. 228) argues, 'one of the oldest findings in organizational studies is that measurements affect behaviour – that what gets measured gets done'. He makes a case for the measurement of learning, character development, social impact, and long-term career performance, rather than the measures used in media rankings: starting salary and salary increases, student satisfaction, and indicators of schools selectivity. He recommends making the findings public and using the information to make decisions about tenure and promotion.

Despite the shift towards more experiential methods and closer ties with business, many institutions are criticised for the lack of relevant business experience amongst their staff members (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005). Bennis and O'Toole (2005) argue that faculty members should be practising members of the profession – i.e. managers, themselves – or have at least spent meaningful time inside an actual business. In fact, the pedagogical ability of faculty members is seldom tested. This is exacerbated by the fact that the new skills required by industry and a transformed global environment are often considered more difficult to teach than the competencies traditionally deemed important. There have been other important changes taking place and impacting significantly on faculty development: because of the consistent growth in management education over a long period of time, the demand for management educators has increased substantially. Salaries have increased to the extent that a large portion of the institutional budget is allocated towards this end, and the entire financial equation has changed (Anderson, 2007), bringing in a whole new dynamic which makes it far more challenging to build a faculty.

#### *3.2.2.2 Students*

The characteristics of students have changed over time, and work experience, interests and motivations of students, and their attitude towards learning, are all issues that drive various criticisms of management education. More students have entered the market from specific countries, notably the BRIC[19] countries and increasing numbers from Europe, and there are increasing numbers of students enrolling in one-year programmes rather than the traditional two-year MBA programme (Anderson, 2007). Many of the students are millennials (born from 1977–2000) who are considered narcissistic, and business schools are accused of failing to teach them to consider multiple stakeholder interests (Daly & Westerman, 2010). Brown (2010) suggests that the expectations of this new 'Generation Y' or 'Net Generation' need to be carefully managed by business schools:

> Millennials are a demanding bunch. They speak out about what they want and they expect to get it, and if they don't, they move on (Brown, 2010, p. 31).

These students are demanding new ways of teaching and learning especially as they are 'digital natives' (Wankel, Marovich & Stanaityte, 2010), with the emphasis on lateral rather than lineal thinking (Poldony, 2008), and business schools need to change their tools and methods (Brown, 2010) if they are to remain relevant, catering to the interests and motivations of students. There have also been suggestions that students are too young and do not have the broad education or the experience that is necessary to become a manager (Mintzberg, 2004a; O'Toole, 2009), and many students are more interested in their career than in learning and personal development (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004).

Quite obviously business schools would not exist without students, who contribute to the feasibility of the schools through the payment of fees. In some countries, notably the US, financial support from alumni is extensive once students have passed through the system to become leaders and feel that they would like to make a contribution to the school they attended. There have been criticisms that business schools have been far too customer-centric, especially through too much attention being paid by the schools to the rankings system and thus too little emphasis given to education itself (Brocklehurst et al., 2007; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). But from the student's perspective, on graduating it is job prospects that are of paramount importance so that the return on their investment in education can be assured. A number of scholars have intimated that business school education has been ineffective in providing the kind of education required by organisations, and that over time employers have become less

[19] Brazil, Russia, India, China.

interested in employing MBA graduates (Cheit, 1985; Leavitt, 1989; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Porter & McKibbin, 1988). Furthermore, it is argued that the MBA tends to lead to transformation and deeper levels of learning amongst women, leaving men 'un-developed' and unchallenged (Simpson & Ituma, 2009).

## 3.3 Strengths and weaknesses of past MBA education

### 3.3.1 Content

From a content point of view, historical analysis of MBA education reveals a number of weaknesses. There has been a constant tension between practice and theory over time, with different kinds of knowledge being important at various points in time. Business schools have focussed primarily on the development of functional knowledge and analysis. This narrow focus has meant that managers and leaders have failed to possess an holistic approach to doing business, and the emphasis has been mainly on the manager's perspective rather that of other stakeholders. Many leaders have been socially irresponsible as schools have failed to place emphasis on inculcating moral and ethical principles, or a sense of self-awareness, and the result has been a lack of a professional ethos. Despite the practice-based trend since the 1980s, teaching of management is still considered irrelevant to business practice, especially in terms of the lack of people or collaboration skills. There has also been a lack of focus on implementation skills, and on looking at business in a multidisciplinary or integrative manner. Furthermore, current economic and business models are being questioned as relevant. Looking at strengths, it appears that although there have been many criticisms of business schools over time, society believes in and looks to them for answers in times of crisis. In fact, during downturns in the economy, business school enrolments increase. There is evidence of many positive responses of business schools to the criticisms that have been made (Holtom & Porter, 2013; Datar, Garvin & Cullen, 2010).

### 3.3.2 Method

The scientific approach to MBA education has resulted in a detached application to teaching that demonstrates risk avoidance, and which had failed to provide appropriate role modelling or inspiration to students of business. A further weakness is the heavy focus on incentivising research as opposed to teaching, which has meant that an academic faculty naturally put less time into the improvement of teaching. This is further exacerbated by the lack of assessment of pedagogical ability. Despite this occurring, faculty have become more expensive to employ. In some schools, there has been emphasis on 'one best way' of teaching, and there has been a lack of focus on process as opposed to content by the faculty. In particular, there has been resistance

to the introduction of practice-based teaching, perhaps mostly because it is difficult to teach the new competencies that are required, but also because of tradition and habit. New approaches to teaching are required, and this is challenging, especially as new kinds of students are emerging such as millennials, who are considered to be demanding and narcissistic. Emphasis on media rankings has made business schools too customer-centric in that they on focus short-term gains rather than the long-term broad educational development of students. A key strength has been that business schools have attempted to shift their approach closer to business practice, and a variety of methods have been used, including more sophisticated technology tools, enhancing their chances of becoming more relevant. See ***Table 3.2*** for content and method aspects (Holtom & Porter, 2013; Datar, Garvin & Cullen, 2010).

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|---|
| **CONTENT** | |
| • Society believes in management education<br>• Society looks to business schools for solutions<br>• Response of business schools to criticism | • Constant tension between practice and theory<br>• Different kinds of business knowledge – confusing<br>• Limited to manager's perspective<br>• Narrow focus – need for broader skill-set<br>• Irresponsible leadership – lack of professional ethos<br>• Leaders need to be more self-aware to be better leaders<br>• Not relevant to practice, especially people, collaboration and implementation skills<br>• Models and theories not working, need reassessment<br>• Need to reconsider management itself<br>• Lack of multi-disciplinary or integrated approach |
| **METHOD** | |
| • Moving closer to business practice<br>• Variety of methods used<br>• New opportunities with advancing technology | • Not process-focused enough<br>• Not realistic enough<br>• Resistance to practice-based – habit, tradition, difficult to teach<br>• Reliance on one teaching method (for some)<br>• Culture of detachment and risk aversion<br>• Too much focus on research as opposed to teaching - pedagogy given little attention<br>• Pedagogical abilities not tested<br>• Instructors becoming more expensive<br>• New types of student can be challenging<br>• New types of learning in demand<br>• Too customer centric |

**Table 3.2: Strengths and weaknesses of past MBA education**

## 3.4 Themes and summary

### 3.4.1 Themes

***Content***

1. ***The skill-set required by an organisational leader needs to be HOLISTIC if it is to match the complex demands of today***

   Traditional MBA teaching has had a narrow focus, primarily developing functional analytic skills (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Mintzberg, 2004a; Porter & McKibbin, 1988; Schlegelmilch & Thomas, 2011). Instead of the narrow focus on cognitive and 'knowing' skills, Datar et al. (2011) call for the inclusion of 'doing' and 'being' skills – practical skills and those which involve values, beliefs and morals. A far broader range of skills is needed to better reflect the complexity in today's business environment.

2. ***For the good of society as a whole, learners need to learn about the importance of inculcating MORAL behaviour in the business profession***

   A professional ethos, which includes a moral dimension, was exactly what the early business schools aimed to encourage, and since then business schools are criticised for not adhering to this original founding intention (Khurana, 2007). With its scientific and technical approach, it is argued that MBA education has failed to inculcate morals and this has led to irresponsible leadership (Ghoshal, 2005; Khurana, 2007), especially evident in 21st century economic crises (Datar et al., 2011), and this needs to change by placing emphasis on ethics and moral development.

3. ***COLLABORATION and teamwork are skills learners need in order to work together in working amidst diversity and to solve problems***

   With increasing globalisation, there has been a need for leaders to be able to understand and collaborate with a range of different kinds of people, but the traditional MBA has failed to prepare them for this (Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002). Furthermore, ambiguous and difficult business environments in which leaders need to get things done through people, have required collaborative and other social action skills, which have not been addressed by business schools (Bailey & Ford, 1996; Charan & Colvin, 1999; Leavitt, 1989; Mintzberg & Lampel, 2001).

4. ***SELF-AWARENESS is an essential aspect of leadership that enables more insightful leadership***

   With the narrow focus on analytical skills development, attention has not been paid to self-awareness, which is crucial in developing more insightful leaders (Datar et al., 2011;

Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b). To develop these skills means examination of own assumptions so that double loop learning can take place which may result in a shift in worldview (Argyris, 2002, 2004), and requires a reflective learning experience (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Schön, 1987).

5. ***Understanding how learn how to operate in PRACTICE is key to being able to operate in reality***

   Traditional MBA teaching has failed to prepare students for practice (Cheit, 1985; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), and generating theory that is not relevant to practice (Bailey, 1996; Bennis & O'Toole, 2005). This is because there has been too much emphasis on teaching theory as opposed to practical administration skills (Mintzberg & Lampel, 2001) many of which involve social action (Leavitt, 1989), and there is now a need to understand how to operate in practice.

6. ***Being able to understand complex problems by using NEW FRAMES heightens the chance of finding business solutions***

   Instead of the narrow focus on development of analytical skills as in the past, there is a need for leaders today to be able to look at business problems in new ways, such as through the use of integrative or multidisciplinary frames (Datar et al., 2011). Complexity has been brought in the need for new business models, especially in terms of globalisation (Eyring, Johnson & Nair, 2011) and advancing technology (Chesbrough, 2012), and it has become more important to use new frames in making sense of what is happening in business environments.

***Method***

7. ***Shifting CLOSER TO REALITY enables the teaching of appropriate business skills that are relevant to business***

   Despite the shift towards more active and experiential teaching methods, business schools have been criticised for not teaching business skills that are relevant to business practice (Mintzberg, 2004a) and teaching in ways that are driven by theory rather than practice (Chia, 2009). Furthermore, there has been resistance from business faculties, and the focus on research rather than teaching has reinforced a scientific approach in how students are taught (Spender, 2013). For this reason it has become important to find new ways to shift closer to real life situations in the way that students are taught.

8. ***VARIETY in teaching methods enable the teaching of a broader range of leadership competencies***

A range of teaching methods is more able to teach the broad range of skills required by leaders today through the use of multiple learning objectives. This has increasingly occurred at business schools, other than those who prefer 'one best way' of teaching (McMahon, 1992).

9. ***Drawing on EMOTION in the learning process helps to engage learners***

   Instead of the clinical scientific approach to teaching, as used in the past, there have been arguments for including the use of emotion in teaching in order to engage learners more holistically and encourage greater immersion (Chia, 2009; Strebel & Keys, 2005). For this reason, it is important for business faculty to shed the detached risk-avoidance approach that is transmitted to students (Chia, 2009).

10. ***Using REFLECTION in balance with action helps to make improvement to business practice***

    Reflective teaching methods have been proposed by a number of scholars which many of them advocating the use of reflection with action so that insight can be gained from own experience in current work practice and to test assumptions (Argyris, 2002, 2004; Bailey, 1996; Bailey et al., 1997; Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Mintzberg, 2004a; Schön, 1987).

11. ***Being innovative through drawing on new TECHNOLOGY provides new learning opportunities***

    New kinds of technologies have brought in new models for doing business and provide the opportunity to teach in new ways. Furthermore they have become more important as the nature of the student body changes, and millennials who are 'digital natives' become more demanding for use of technology in the learning process (Wankel et al., 2010).

### 3.4.2 Summary

Different bodies of knowledge have been important to teach at various points in the history of MBA education – such as humanistic versus scientific – largely in response to broader philosophical traditions at the time. The tensions inherent in these approaches are also evident in approaches to theory and practice, and which are more distinctive to business as opposed to the professions of law or medicine, playing out in terms of the focus on the particular versus the general. The scientific tradition emerging from the early 1960s has resulted in a narrow focus in terms of leadership development. Its focus on neatly organised business functions and the managerial perspective reveals that the emphasis has been on development of a managerial as

opposed to a leadership role which in today's world requires a far broader range of competencies that involve a more holistic approach to teaching.

Since the 1980s the trend has been for business schools to shift back towards practice through pedagogical methods such as experiential and action-based approaches, with many concerned that it will culminate in a return to the trade school approach. However, despite these changes, criticism prevails regarding the lack of relevance to business. There have been calls for new teaching methods that provide greater context and draw on emotion, for instance, and highlighting the pedagogical injustice of rewarding faculty with incentives for research as opposed to teaching.

Throughout the cyclical changes and key tensions emerging in the history of MBA education, those at the Harvard Business School have stayed true to their purpose of striving to stay relevant to business practice by focusing on the particular with the case method. It is clear, however, that there are important changes that can be need to be made in order to enhance relevance. In terms of content, more can be introduced that aims to develop a broader range of leadership abilities implicit in 'knowing', 'being' and 'doing' skills. In particular this includes developing self-awareness and morals, and people skills such as collaboration. It also involves moving beyond cognitive skills to include sense-making, and an awareness of social, political, and ethical dimensions. Looking at challenges from a multidisciplinary and integrative point of view is an aspect that also needs attention, rather than taking a purely functional perspective, and a questioning of the assumptions on which business and management are based should be built into the learning process.

Looking at method, the need to shift out of simulating to methods that are closer to actually operating in practice would be important to make the case method more relevant, so that appropriate practical skills can be acquired. Drawing on a variety of teaching methods within the realm of teaching cases would be suitable for a more holistic learning experience. For instance, teaching the same case in a few different ways, with different teaching objectives, as this may also enhance retention. The retention issue is linked to appropriate integration of multiple management education programmes within a given management education curriculum. It may be useful to draw on experienced practitioners in partnership with business school faculty in order to teach the practical aspects of leadership that are resisted, as this would expose faculty to new ways to teach and help them to understand the intricacies of teaching these kinds of skills. It would be important, too, for faculty to be emotionally engaged in order to provide an

environment for students that rewards risk-taking. Perhaps most importantly, in enhancing the case method, it will be critical to strive towards balance between action and reflection.

# 4 The Future of MBA Education: Transformative Possibilities

> Without better managers, there can be no better organizations, and without better organizations there can be no better world – for the limits to our ability to organize are the limits to our ability to shape the human condition (Spender, 2008, p. 9)

Momentous changes in the business world in the mid–1990s led to much self-examination on the part of business schools in their efforts to become more effective and relevant, culminating in a spate of publications providing food for thought in terms of different paths forward for business schools. Many of them are from business school professors, some detailing the possible future of the MBA in a more positive light than others (Datar et al., 2011; Holland, 2009; Khurana, 2007; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008; Mintzberg, 2004a; O'Toole, 2009; Palmer, Zajonc & Scribner, 2010; Patriotta & Starkey, 2008; Pfeffer, 2011; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004; Rubin & Dierdorff, 2013; Schlegelmilch & Thomas, 2011; Starkey & Tempest, 2009; Welsh & Dehler, 2007).

Change has multiplied, and we see news headlines every day which tell us about the world we live in, and how it is littered with multidimensional complex challenges. By 2030 we will only have 60% of the water we need (Grant & Beuge, 2015), climate change is happening faster than ever before and is starting to speed up (Smith, Edmonds, Hartin, Mundra & Calvin, 2015), and there has been a five-fold increase in the number of deaths from terrorist activity since 2000 (Institute for Economics & Peace, 2014). The business world faces powerful changes relating to issues such as globalisation, complexity, innovation, uncertainty, technology, diversity, and information overload (BMGI, 2015).

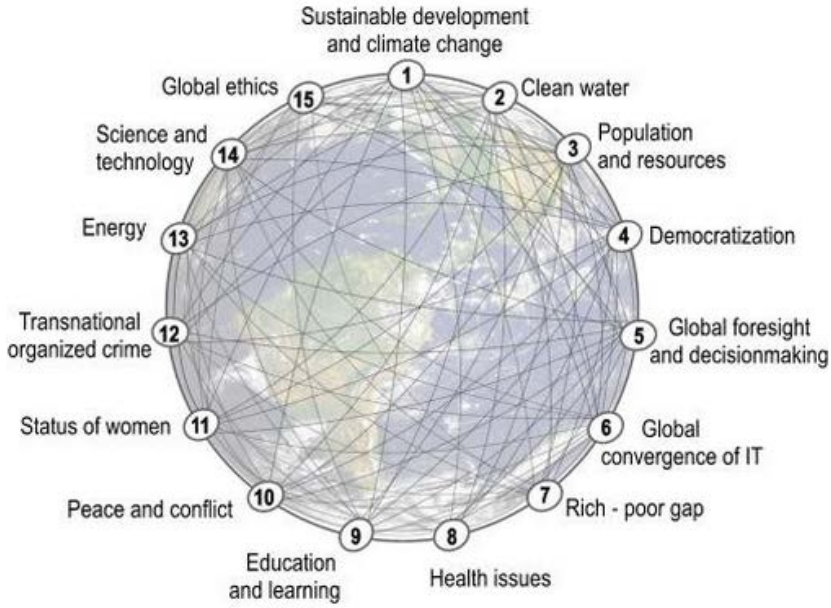
A new kind of leader is needed to help solve these challenges, and looking at the history of management education, in past times of great need there were calls for business schools to help in resolving social crises (Augier & March, 2011). The same is true of today, for management education has a critical role to play in shaping business and society, and together with quality management practices and research, it strengthens the competitive advantage of a nation (Global Foundation for Management Education, 2009).

Following on closely from the previous chapter, which looked at MBA education in the past, this chapter aims to provide a view of future possibilities for management education – especially in terms of how they can inform a new pedagogical model. After a brief discussion in the first section of what the future looks and the kind of leader that is required, the second section discusses what business schools can do to help develop this kind of leader. The third section looks at some of the themes emerging in the literature regarding the leadership competencies

that are required, followed in the fourth section by proposals for how they can be best taught. A conclusion follows, with a set of design principles that will inform a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype, as presented in ***Chapter 10***.

## 4.1 What does the future look like?

Global challenges that are trans-national abound, the most important of which are described by *The Millennium Project*[20] (2015) which provides a framework to assess global and local prospects for humanity. As can be seen from **Figure 4.1**, these challenges require collaboration amongst many parties, as they cannot be solved by any government or institution alone. Each year, the project identifies 15 of the most serious challenges through discussion, with continuous research, Delphi studies, interviews, and participation of over 4,000 experts from around the world.




Source: *The Millennium Project* (2015b)

**Figure 4-1: Fifteen global challenges facing humanity**

Figure 4.1 sets out the broad context within which future management education will succeed or fail in so far as playing a meaningful role in solution-finding for the flagged critical challenges – the big picture outcomes.

[20] *The Millennium Project* is independent non-profit global participatory futures research think tank of futurists, scholars, business planners, and policy makers who work for international organizations, governments, corporations, NGOs, and universities. See detail of these challenges on http://www.millennium-project.org/millennium/challenges.html.

With concerning issues such as these, it has become far more important for managers to acquire leadership skills. But the leadership that is needed today is leadership in a new sense, one in which it is seen as a process rather than merely the development of a 'heroic' individual (Petrie, 2011). Mumford, Thorpe & Gold (2012) propose that '[o]n few occasions in the history of modern management have leadership skills been in such sharp focus as they are now'. This new kind of leadership can be described as follows:

> A new leadership paradigm seems to be emerging with an inexorable shift away from one- way, hierarchical, organization-centric communication toward two-way, network-centric, participatory and collaborative leadership styles. Most of all a new mindset seems necessary, apart from new skills and knowledge. All the tools in the world will not change anything if the mindset does not allow and support change (McGonagill and Doerffer in Petrie (2011, p. 12)).
>
> The industry needs to ask itself how leadership development became so elitist. The world's challenges are big enough now that we need to think about how we can democratize leadership development, take it back to the masses — to the base and middle of the socioeconomic pyramid, not only the peak (Altman in Petrie (2011, p. 18)).

Mumford et al. (2012) highlight the need to be able to lead large global corporations, make sense of complex markets and environments, and become adaptable and learn. Petrie (2011) concurs, adding that the pace of change has increased, and there is no longer a mere leadership challenge. It is more about a development challenge involving the process of 'how to grow 'bigger' minds'. Instead of the traditional methods used in training leaders – such as 'content-heavy' methods – Petrie suggests that new methods will need to reflect four leadership development trends: an increased focus on vertical development rather than horizontal development[21] , a shifting of ownership for development onto the individual, collective rather than individual leadership, and innovation in leadership development.

There is no longer a place for 'big man leadership' (Williams, 2015, p. 2) or the 'calculating manager' (Mintzberg, 2004a, p. 95). Today it is clear there is a mandate for a leader who is interested in more than himself, who operates as a professional with implicit moral obligations that address societal needs (Khurana, 2007; Khurana & Nohria, 2008; Khurana et al., 2005), and multidimensional challenges that are far too complex to be addressed alone. There is a need for leaders who possess a balanced and humane view of the world by looking at more than just 'numbers', and involving the embracement of multiple mindsets (Mintzberg, 2004a). Leaders are

[21] 'Horizontal development is the development of new skills, abilities and behaviors. It is technical learning. Horizontal development is most useful when a problem is clearly defined and there are known techniques for solving it'. 'Vertical development, in contrast, refers to the "stages" that people progress through in how they "make sense" of their world.' (Petrie, 2011).

required who understand themselves enough to empathise with others (Goleman, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2004) and who have clarity of purpose about their lives (Palmer, Zajonc & Scribner, 2010). It has become essential for leaders to be able to collaborate across group boundaries of different kinds – cultural, political, religious, ideological, gender, ethnic – which cause societal 'fractures' but can be seen as 'frontiers' in that they provide opportunities for learning and discovery (Williams, 2015).

## 4.2 How can business schools respond?

There is no shortage of suggestions as to how business schools can respond, with some advocating the place to start is to re-examine the original purpose of business schools. Khurana (2007) argues that the intention of the early business schools was to inculcate a moral obligation to contribute to society. Pfeffer & Fong (2004) also suggest 'rediscovering some core purpose more consistent with a professional ethos', and advocate a shift in the value proposition away from business schools' current 'careerist' orientation, citing the example of university departments attracting students with a particular interest in the subject, and who may have a 'calling' for work in that area (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). Patriotta & Starkey (2008) suggest that business schools might in fact 'profit' by re-examining the original intention in the establishment of universities, including the idea of them as sites of knowledge creation and dissemination with a higher purpose in mind. Starkey & Tempest (2005) delve further into this by proposing that a business school is ideally placed as:

> … a potential site par excellence for this kind of interconnectivity, sitting at the interface of theory and practice, of social science and business, and with the capability to manage a knowledge brokering role, for example, between science faculties and business (2005, p. 77) .

Differentiating between training and education in teaching managers is what O'Toole (2009) sees as important in securing the competitive advantage of business schools. Whilst training on the one hand involves 'right and wrong answers' and a particular body of information with practical and clear outcomes, it does not have a developmental dimension involving the challenging of current norms and developing the capacity to learn, enabling students to look at issues from multiple perspectives and encouraging innovation.

Others suggest responding in line with how business schools teach: by questioning assumptions. Ackoff (in Detrick (2002), one of the pioneers in management education, suggests that for effective learning to take place, every single aspect of the educational process needed to be examined and questioned, and possible alternatives explored. Welsh & Dehler (2007) take it further by suggesting a critical realism approach. This involves looking at the challenge in a more

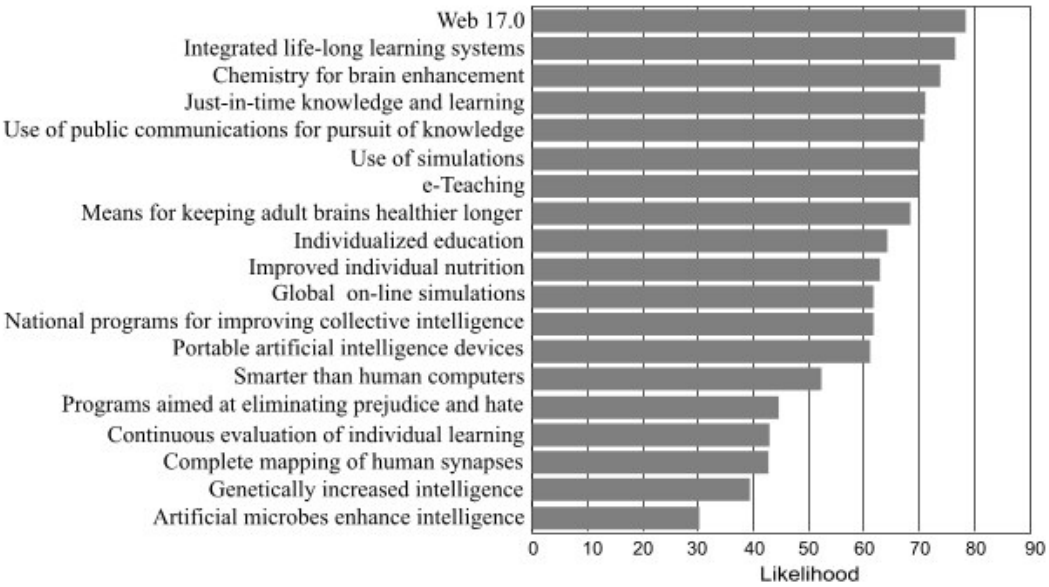
holistic way, wherein the nature of management education itself needs to be transformed at a much deeper level where the:

> … challenge is systemic: management education occurs within a larger societal context (institutional), where the 'what' dilemmas of programmatic concerns are inextricably bound up in the 'how' of delivery (pedagogical) (Welsh & Dehler, 2007, p. 407).

Business schools will need to find new models and methods, and re-define curricula that are non-traditional and involve new ways of thinking. This will involve thoughtful and imaginative approaches, and inspiration can be found in the successes of those that have taken this path, such as Mintzberg (2004a) in his alternative approach to management development at McGill University in the International Masters in Practicing Management (IMPM) – which is based on learning from one's own experience – or the customised executive education model known as the 'Platform Model' (Van Wijk & Anderson, 2012)[22]. This latter model, used by schools such as Antwerp Management and the Lorange Institute of Business, involves customisation, and real action learning assignments. It is a low-cost two-sided network, with one side possessing specialised expertise, and the other business clients who seek learning solutions, with a 'platform' being the infrastructure and design service through which both parties interact.

Ideas can also be found by researching broader expected educational global trends such as those identified in *The Millennium Project* (2015a) as in **Figure 4.2**. This project, aiming to provide a global picture of potential futures of education and learning, involved asking more than 200 experts world-wide what they expected by the year 2030. From a content point of view, the teaching of wisdom and morals is considered to become more important, as is the measurement of characteristics other than intelligence. 'Learning how to learn' will become more imperative, as will learning about tolerance and understanding of different cultures. In Figure 4.2 a "Likelihood" rating of 100 would represent complete agreement of the experts on the likelihood of a nominated educational possibility being achieved by the year 2030. Highest likelihood of a nominated educational possibility being achieved by the year 2030 in Figure 4.2 – that of 'Web 17.0'- was a likelihood rating of less than 80.

[22] See http://www.impm.org/ and http://www.theworldweworkin.com/pdfs/Articles/The_Platform_Model_for_Executive_Learning_short_version.pdf.




Source: *The Millennium Project* (2015a)

**Figure 4-2: Likelihood of educational possibilities – year 2030**

Looking at method, virtual reality simulations and artificial intelligence software are anticipated, as is learning being integrated into leisure in the form of games, movies and music. Brain imaging to determine learning effectiveness is also expected to come into play, as is research into mental techniques such as hypnosis and extrasensory perception in order to improve human learning abilities. Furthermore, the right to equal access to information is expected to occur.

However business schools decide to model themselves in the future, it will be their approach to curriculum development and pedagogy that determines their success in developing leadership skills, and for this reason we focus now on future possibilities in regards to these aspects in business schools. For as argued by Kumar & Usunier (2001, p. 368), 'changes in the curriculum content and in the methods by which the content is presented are indeed the primary mechanisms for reshaping management education'.

## 4.3 Towards a broader range of content

A review of the literature regarding the future of the MBA shows that there is growing interest in promoting the 'missing ingredient' of leadership as opposed to management, possibly reflecting the changing nature of managerial work, and expectations of 'more' capabilities from workers (Thorpe & Gold, 2012). Some of the emerging themes identified here are already starting to be reflected in business schools' curricula, revealing the call not only for a broader range of leadership competencies, but also for new business and economic models.

### 4.3.1 Self-awareness – understanding self to understand others

Datar et al. (2011) see enhanced and more accurate self-awareness as perhaps the most important aspect of future leadership development, requiring regular and detailed honest feedback from others. Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002) point to the need for a new kind of leader, one who is experienced in the 'art of relationship', and can react flexibly to the environment, spreading their passion and thus enhancing organisational performance.

> The old model of leadership had a functional focus, one without regard to the emotional or personal dimension; people were seen as interchangeable parts. Such leadership increasingly fails today (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b, p. 247).

They advocate that these new resonant leaders rely on their emotional intelligence. Research has shown that this kind of intelligence – which includes self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management – becomes increasingly important in higher levels of organisations, and differences in technical abilities and skills become less important (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b).Echoing these findings, Boyatzis & McKee (2005) argue that before being able to operate as an effective leader it is imperative to learn to know and manage oneself holistically – body, mind, heart and spirit. In the introduction to their book *Resonant Leadership*, Goleman (in Boyatzis & McKee (2005, p. x)) notes the importance of linking emotions with goals in order to motivate and keep focus. In this way it is possible to stay true to one's 'inner compass', and make a positive contribution to the organisation by showing authentic passion.

Linked to the concept of self-awareness is the increasing interest in a 'whole person' approach to leadership development (Boyatzis, 2009; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Cashman, 2008; Covey, 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b; MacGregor & Semler, 2012; Palmer et al., 2010), by which is meant addressing the four parts of human nature: mind, body, heart and spirit. This echoes the findings of Datar et al. (2011) who conclude that the future focus needs to be on developing not only 'knowing' skills but 'doing' and 'being' skills.

### 4.3.2 Moral intuition – doing the right thing for society

As the trend towards corporatisation and privatisation of public services continues, it is clear that future society will be far more demanding of responsible and ethical behaviour of managers (Schlegelmilch & Thomas, 2011). Furthermore, leaders will need to find ways to integrate with local communities which 'is at the heart of what the company sees as its way of creating value', and is a trend that is expected to increase (DeMeyer, 2011). Goshal (2005) and Khurana & Nohria (2008) have emphasised the need to consider the needs and priorities of stakeholders

rather than only shareholders. However, they underline the importance of reaching a balance in terms of the different needs involved, i.e. value creation and accountability.

The idea of 'practical wisdom' (Billsberry & Birnik, 2010; Nonaka & Toyama, 2007; Roca, 2008; Statler, 2014; Küpers & Pauleen, 2013) and phrónêsis[23] (Antonacopoulou, 2010; Birmingham, 2004; Nonaka & Toyama, 2007; Shotter & Tsoukas, 2014) are elements proposed as essential to cultivate in business schools, largely in response to unprecedented financial and ecological crises in the 21st century. However, thus far they remain largely unexplored and neglected (Chia, 2009), and they are difficult to teach. It is important to change the way that ethics are taught (Locke & Spender, 2011), and there is potential in management education students having a broad liberal education where they are able to see themselves as part of a professional community (O'Toole, 2009).

Business schools have the potential to serve beyond mere business needs and have the interests of humanity at heart. For this reason, it is important to develop management as a profession, where the interests of society more broadly are considered (Khurana, 2007; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). In this way the practice of management can more effectively promote economic development. For this reason it is argued that there need to be consequences for unethical behaviour, as in medicine and law. Khurana & Nohria (2008) propose that business schools students agree to a code of ethics to establish a sense of responsibility and accountability.

### 4.3.3 Collaboration – working together in valuing differences

In his idea of the future, Pink (2006) describes the emergence of a time where 'high touch' will be valued, which means the ability to empathise with others, and to understand human behaviour more deeply. Relationship, community and interconnectedness have become more important in the world today, for which reason:

> … education must go beyond a 'values curriculum' to create a comprehensive learning environment that reflects a holistic vision of humanity, giving attention to every dimension of the human self (Palmer et al., 2010, p. 152).

'The valuing of difference' is a significant challenge in the future (Metcalfe, 2012), as the shift towards services and technology-driven economies, and a highly 'connected' world has brought in the need for a whole new skill-set that emphasises collaboration, organisational and industry knowledge and excellent communication and 'people' skills (Maerki, 2008). McGrath (2014)

[23] Phrónêsis is the ability to both figure out what to do in any given moment while also knowing what is worth doing. So the idea is that it's a practical wisdom - that you are wise about your intentions, wise about your ends, and at the same time you have a very clear understanding of the means that you need to actually get there – see http://www.ualberta.ca/~urban/Learning/Phronesis.htm.

suggests there have been three 'ages' of management, each underscoring a different theme: execution, expertise, and empathy. Instead of the old 'command-and-control' approach to managing, there is now a focus on the motivation and engagement of employees, requiring empathy. Certainly the idea of collaboration is central to Minzberg's (2004a) idea of MBA education, which he uses not only in content but teaching method through learning from each other's experiences. He emphasises the need for leaders to manage relationships by seeking to collaborate, as do Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002a), who argue that 'new resonant leaders naturally nurture relationships, surface simmering issues, and create the human synergies of a group in harmony' (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002a, p. 248). According to Minzberg & Gosling (2002, p. 64), organisations today are searching, not for the soft skills promised by many of the business schools, but for 'new solutions' and they wanted their employees to 'open up their perspectives on business and on life in general to become more collaborative, more worldly, and more wise'. In fact, Datar et al. (2011) suggest that conflict and tension occurs regularly in the workplace of today, and that these tensions have often purposefully been built into the design of organisations to force people to face difficult trade-offs. In developing diversity management skills it will be important to have long-term commitment from management and critically reflect on the 'politics and emotions of inclusion and difference' (Metcalfe, 2012, p. 152) as it is essential for long-term business success.

A key reason for the need to collaborate is increasing globalisation amongst organisations, and thus management of diversity. As perhaps the most critical driver changing the face of management education (O'Toole, 2009), understanding globalisation and its associated skill-set is crucial to the future of management education. Increasingly there is a need for business schools to develop these capabilities (Aten, Nardon & Steers, 2009; Cabrera & Bowen, 2005; Datar et al., 2011; Ghemawat, 2011; Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Kumar & Usunier, 2001; Leavitt, 1989; Randolph, 2011; Thomas & Cornuel, 2011). However, Ghemawat (2011) suggests that there is a 'globalization gap' in business school curricula, and there are good reasons for content to emphasise cross-country differences and their business implications.

Aten, Nardon & Steers, 2009) caution that simplistic teaching strategies intended to raise awareness of cultural differences will fail to provide global managers with the skill-set they require as they do not have the time to acquire deep contextual understanding. Often global managers are required to operate in a number of countries, and without much warning. Instead, Aten et al. (2009) propose the adoption of a 'global mindset' or the development of 'perspectives which stretch beyond domestic borders'. A global mindset is defined as:

> … an ability to develop and interpret criteria for personal and business performance that are independent from the assumptions of a single country, culture, or context; and to implement those criteria appropriately in different countries, cultures, and contexts (Maznevski and Lane in Aten et al. (2009, p. 498)).

Some of the skills that need to be developed are the ability to negotiate identity, meaning, new rules and new behaviours, and they involve learning how to learn in context, and enable interactions with groups from any culture. The new skill-set that is required reflects the shift in organisations from a hierarchical highly structured low-conflict environment to one of low authority and high conflict, characterised by matrix and network forms (Aten et al., 2009).

#### 4.3.4 Imagination – thinking innovatively

Pink (2006, p. 2) contends that the future will involve a new way of thinking where value will be placed on aptitudes that he calls 'high concept', which means the ability to:

> … detect patterns and opportunities, to create artistic and emotional beauty, to craft a satisfying narrative, and to combine seemingly unrelated ideas into something new.

He highlights the importance of developing these right-brain abilities in the future whilst also acquiring left-brain abilities that have received more emphasis in the past. Indeed, in his view the competencies that were once looked at as 'frivolous' will become indispensable.

In order to succeed in the global marketplace it is important to understand how imagination and creativity is linked to entrepreneurship and innovation in organisations – until now research into each area has been independent of the other. In coming up with new ideas, for instance, imagination is necessary to innovate and act entrepreneurially (Zhou, Shalley & Hitt, 2015). Unlike in the past where problems were structured, Datar et al. (2011) explains that there is a need to learn these kind of skills through practice and by placing students in difficult and ambiguous situations which require new kinds of skills, enabling framing of problems in new ways, and using creativity and imagination. In this way, students learn how to sense opportunities, knowing how to filter through 'big data' to find relevant information, and make sense of 'messy' situations. This means being able to question the status quo, remaining resilient and being prepared to take risks. Chia (1996) argues that the development of an 'entrepreneurial imagination' is the most important contribution a business school could make to the private sector. He suggests use of a 'paradigm-shifting' mentality, requiring faculty members to themselves engage in 'intellectual entrepreneurship' in order to excite the imagination, and using the frames provided by literature and the arts could be useful tools.

Design thinking is a further area proposed that can have the same effect (Dunne & Martin, 2006; Martin, 2007; Schön, 1985).

At a societal level, creative solutions are essential considering the nature of global challenges. This is particularly a role for leaders in the private sector, as it is such a dominant sector in society, and Adler (2011) proposes that there is a need to draw on the imagination as leaders, to be inspired to see the world in new ways. Furthermore, she proposes that education should be based on inspiration rather than motivation, and asks the following question:

> Are we going to continue to use motivation schemes to reward self-centered greed, extreme risk-taking and short-term gain, or are we going to inspire people to contribute to the larger world? (Adler, 2011, p. 217)

#### 4.3.5 Multiple perspectives – making sense of complexity

The need to go beyond analytical cognitive skills and develop the ability to hold multiple perspectives and to frame problems in different and new ways in order to make sense of and understand the complex business environment is identified by several scholars. Schön (1987), for instance, advocates the use an 'interactive problem-setting and framing approach' to make sense of what is happening and so that one can think on ones feet. This approach involves improvisation learned in practice rather than relying on formulas learned in business school. In his approach to management education, Mintzberg (2004b) draws deeply on the concepts of reflection-in-action and multiple perspectives. The International Masters in Practicing Management (IMPM) programme involves practicing managers learning about five mindsets used in the practice of managing in specific geographical places worldwide ideally suited to teaching each particular perspective. The managerial mindsets include: reflective (self), worldly (context), analytical (organisations), collaborative (relationships) and action (change).

Today, Armstrong & Fukami (2009a) identify learning new forms of knowledge and adopting new ways of thinking as perhaps the most salient new teaching innovation. Petrie (2011) emphasises the ability to hold multiple perspectives, whilst Palmer (2008) notes the importance of moving past the notion of 'one best way' by holding multiple perspectives in managing organisational change. These ideas have synergies with ideas of frames and mental models in the works of Bolman & Deal (2013) and Senge (2010).

There is also a trend to look at problems from a multi-disciplinary perspective, and to consider looking at problems through the 'eyes' of other disciplines. Colby, Ehrlich, Sullivan, Dolle & Shulman, 2011), for instance, have an integrative vision for undergraduate business education which links students learning about business with various arts and science disciplines on an on-

going basis, so that they have a broader perspective of the world. In this way, they contend that students will 'grasp the pluralism in ways of thinking and acting that is so salient a characteristic of the contemporary world' (Colby et al., 2011, p. 5). Martin & Moldoveanu (2008) sketch out their view of management education in the future, where they note how essential it is to develop curricula from different disciplines informing:

> … the ability to think and act responsibly and responsively in the face of multiple, incommensurable, and possibly conflicting models of oneself, the world, and others (Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008, p. 48)

In this way a student acts as an 'integrator', adding value by making sense of the tensions between models. Furthermore, because of the silo mentality so prevalent in organisations, and also present in business schools, Datar et al. (2011) propose that business problems are often complex and require multiple lenses but also the ability to connect differing points of view in an integrated holistic perspective.

#### 4.3.6 Purpose – finding meaning

Pink (2006, p. 3) suggests that in the future the aim will be 'to find joy in one's self and to elicit it in others, and to stretch beyond the quotidian in pursuit of purpose and meaning'. He argues that 'carrots and sticks are so last century' and that it is intrinsic rewards that motivate human beings such as a sense of purpose, autonomy and mastery (Pink, 2009). Within the realm of management education there are others who echo these sentiments. For instance, Datar et al. (2011) underscore the need for business schools to cultivate values, attitudes and beliefs in their students. Khurana (2007, p. 382) reminds us that it has been recognised in many disciplines that human beings yearn for meaning and that 'It is as fundamental to human existence as the search for material sustenance'. Whilst traditional societies had structures in place which satisfied this need, he argues that the modern professions were invented to provide individuals with a sense of meaning at work. However, he laments that no other mechanism has emerged through which key social purposes can be achieved as markets 'show their limitations as promoters of the common good' (Khurana, 2007, p. 382).

There are many others advocating the importance of a sense of meaning in the workplace (Klein, 2008; Palmer et al., 2010; Weisbord, 2004), which can result in an improved work–life balance (Gambles, Lewis & Rapoport, 2006), and a sense of wellness so that performance at work is sustainable (MacGregor & Semler, 2012). Palmer et al. (2010) propose using an integrative education approach which helps students to understand the connection between their studies and the meaning of their lives.

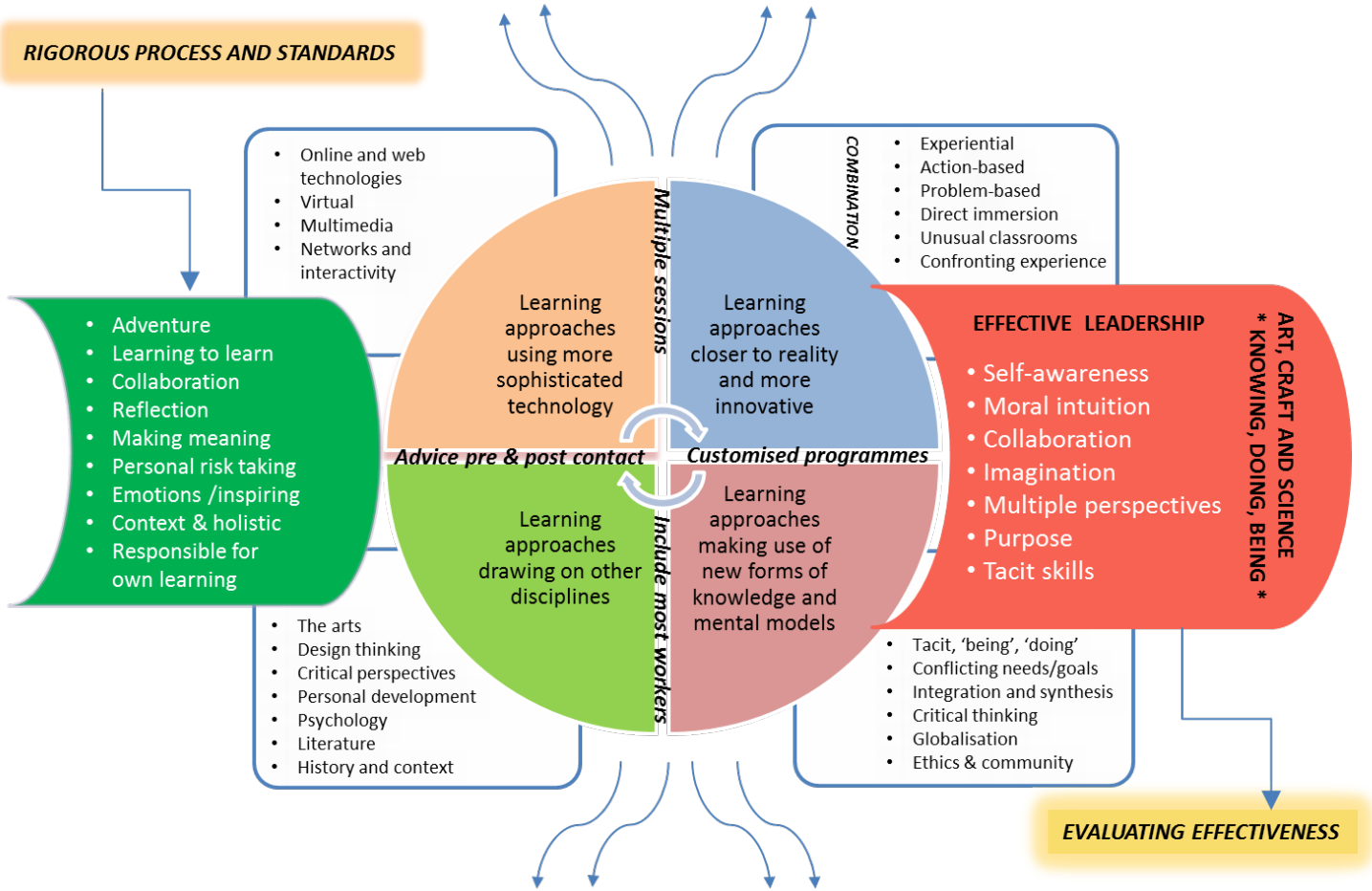
### 4.3.7 Learning in practice – being able to hit the ground running

Whilst business schools have traditionally emphasised the teaching of explicit knowledge and specifically organised information, increasingly there has been interest in ways for students to learn the tacit[24] skills involved in the role of manager in order to be more practically relevant:

> Managing is more an acquired coping capability than a science; more a set of skilled practices than a profession; more a phenomenon of method than a field of study (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a, p. 9).

Scholars argue for curricula to reflect a shift from the use of 'value-free' scientific methods in management practice and education to an action orientation that is more applied (Bailey & Ford, 1996; Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Cheit, 1985), despite the fact that it questions the very foundation of management education (Roca, 2008). Mintzberg & Gosling (2002, p. 28) point to the need to develop 'the ability to weave together and make use of different kinds of knowledge'. Studies have shown that the development of tacit skills enhances managerial performance, yet are difficult to teach. They add more value to those in leadership roles as they are less easily 'transferred' to other people or imitated (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). Raelin (2007) proposes that an epistemology of practice offering an explanation of praxis in the classroom is required, and suggests using approaches from constructionist thought, and drawing on tacit knowledge, critical reflection and mastery. The acquisition of tacit skills may require almost total participation of students in learning, such as in social practice, and a far greater responsibility for learning on the part of the student (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a).

[24] Tacit knowledge is different to explicit or formal knowledge in that it is difficult to transfer to others by writing it down or verbalising about it, such as in the example of learning to speak a language.




Source: Developed from various including (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a; Boyatzis, 2008; Chia, 2009; Conger, 1992; Datar et al., 2011; Gallos, 2009; Mintzberg, 2004a; O'Toole, 2009)

**Figure 4-3: Model for management education pedagogies of the future – also the theoretical framework for the study**

## 4.4 Towards new methods

Despite highly divergent and fragmented approaches to management education more broadly (O'Toole, 2009), there are a number of new learning-centred approaches to teaching and learning that are increasingly used as depicted in ***Figure 4.3***. There is increasing use of learning methods that attempt to get *closer to the reality* of managing in organisations, including action-based approaches (Argyris, 1982, 1997; Conger & Xin, 2000; Keys, 1994; Raelin, 2009a; Raelin & Coghlan, 2006; Revans, 1982), experiential learning involving the drawing on experience of both self and others (Kayes, 2002; Kolb & Kolb, 2009; Mintzberg, 2004a), and problem-based learning (DeFillippi & Milter, 2009; Moskovitz, 1992).

There are also approaches to learning that are based on *new forms of knowledge and mental models*. Examples of this are new kinds of knowledge and ways of thinking, such as tacit (Chia, 2009) and 'being' and 'doing' skills (Datar et al., 2011), and emphasis on double-loop learning possibilities and the questioning of deeply held assumptions (Argyris, 2002). These approaches also involve drawing on various perspectives or mindsets such as global, ethical or integration (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Mintzberg, 2004a), critical approaches (Argyris, 2002; Currie & Knights, 2003; Welsh & Dehler, 2007), and various other ways of making sense of ambiguity, conflicting goals and needs, and 'messy' situations (Aram & Noble, 1999).

Yet another model is a teaching methodology based on *using the lens of disciplines or subject areas* such as the creative, visual and performing arts (Gallos, 2009; Nissley, 2010), design (Dunne & Martin, 2006; Martin, 2009; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008), psychology, history and context, and even personal development (Conger, 1992) and literature (Czarniawska-Joerges & de Monthoux, 2005). The final kind of pedagogy reflected in the figure is that based on the effective use of various forms of increasingly *sophisticated online and multi-media technology* and e-learning methods (Buchanan, 2000; Burnsed, 2011; Damast, 2012; Morgan & Adams, 2009).

There are various aspects of the pedagogical process that are expected to become important in pedagogies of the future. Learning how to learn, for instance, has become increasingly important as it enables participants to adapt to different situations and locations. Bringing in a sense of 'adventure' helps to engage participants, as does the element of risk-taking (Conger, 1992), and so do the other aspects such as collaboration (Mintzberg, 2004a), reflection (Argyris, 2004; Bailey et al., 1997; De Déa Roglio & Light, 2009; Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Schön, 2001), and a sense of meaning (Palmer et al., 2010). Emotionally engaging participants through these and other methods has been recognised as important in terms of the development of the 'whole person', as well as increasing the chance that they will remember what they have learned by appealing to multiple aspects of self (Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008; Conger, 1992). Increasingly, too, there is an emphasis on learning in

context and on taking responsibility for one's own learning in the pedagogical process (Mintzberg, 2004a).

In order to have more effective impact in the learning process and encourage retention of learning, Conger (1992) proposes that more effort needs to go into course design and new ways of integrating learning back into the workplace through customised programmes that address unique organisational needs. In this regard, involving a high percentage of employees and managers in training programmes heightens an understanding of and commitment to a common goal. Conger also emphasises that programmes are more memorable if they offer 'up-ending experiences', or a challenging 'rite of passage' where deeply-held assumptions are questioned. With respect to course design for formal programmes of the future, he recommends: 1) multiple sessions rather than a 'once-off' session as they heighten the accountability of participants for what they have learned and implemented; 2) pre- and post-course contact with expert coaches who encourage behaviour change and experimentation; and 3) innovative class sessions that involve unusual classrooms or teaching methods that, for instance, involve non-traditional communication, emotion and thought, such as sculpture.

Commitment to the process of leadership development needs to come from top management, and a change in mindset needs to occur (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002a). Because organisations are resistant to new learning, it is crucial to introduce a 'language of leadership' that encapsulates the spirit of leadership, and creates a process that links from the individual to their teams and to the organisation's culture. The learning should involve an intellectual as well as an emotional journey, and these experiences need to be 'different enough to capture people's imagination but familiar enough to seem relevant'. The process should involve 'stickiness' so there is continuous learning, and the emphasis needs to be on learning how to learn, an enhanced capacity for change, and a common vision that makes sense. It is also important to use a combination of active participatory learning mechanisms over time that involve examining one's own behaviour and that of others, and make use of what has been learned to solve real problems (Conger, 1992).

In looking now at the four learning-centred approaches that have been identified, it becomes clear that there are powerful overlaps between them.

#### 4.4.1 Closer to reality

A significant aspect of Mintzberg's (2004a) critique of MBA education is that pedagogical techniques fail to teach the realities of being a manager. Although it has been argued by some that business schools adopting the case method have been drawing on experience as the basis of learning (MacGregor & Semler, 2012), Mintzberg's view is that cases have provided no more sense of realism

than business schools teaching theory. Raelin (2009b) concurs with these conclusions by stating that a learning method that simulates reality:

> … is a useful way to begin to apply theory into practice but it is not sufficient as a holistic form of learning, which can take account of such real-time and relational contingencies as unplanned disturbances, non-deliberate coping strategies, defensive routines, or just plain failures and surprises (2009b, p. 403).

With the shift since the mid-1980s towards more action-based learning strategies, various teaching methods have evolved that increasingly focus on learner-centred approaches and real-life problems. This has largely been in response to intensified global competition, more sophisticated technology, more partnerships and alliances, and cost-cutting (Conger & Xin, 2000). Raelin & Coghlan (2006) postulate action learning and action research as more favourable than traditional learning methods, especially in regards to managers being able to apply any practical learning and actionable forms of knowledge. In their view, these methods satisfy deeper levels of learning as they provide more varied forms of knowledge (knowing what, how and why), different levels of reflection (single-, double-, and triple-loop learning), various modes of participating and inquiring (first-, second-, and third-person), and various time-frames in the learning process (looking into the past, the present and the future). Furthermore, the purpose of action learning is to ensure the conversion of 'tacit or implicit learning into explicit learning'.

There are several advantages of these methods of learning, including relevance as issues are real-time; there is an immediate transfer of learning; the encouragement of collaborative leadership; stimulation of an interest in continuing to learn; time for interaction and drawing on diversity; and promotion of critical and collective reflection. The intention behind this kind of learning is to prepare students for informed action in the workplace, and is based on the development of the skill for reflection-in-action from reflection-on-action. As such, the learning approach builds on the work of Schön (1995) on reflection, and Argyris & Schön (1974) which encourages individuals to become more aware of the theories that determine their and others' behaviour. And, as noted by Raelin (2009b, p. 402):

> Through the interplay between action and feedback, learners acquire more valid social knowledge, more effective social action, and greater alignment among self-knowledge, action, and knowledge-of-other.

Besides action learning, some of the other topical innovations that involve action-based learning include experiential learning (Kolb & Kolb, 2009), collaborative learning (Hodgson, 2009), and problem-based and project-based learning approaches (DeFillippi & Milter, 2009). Korpiaho, Päiviö & Räsänen, 2007) suggest further alternative models to traditional education, which involve an active role taken by participants including service-learning initiatives, reflection and improvement of existing work practices in action learning or research projects, and use of critical reflection to

examine ineffective or unjust experiences. In this way students learn about responsible leadership, and become critically reflective and politically conscious.

In attempting to change the way that management education had traditionally been taught, Mintzberg (2004a) designed an innovative programme that draws heavily on experiential learning and involves making meaning from direct experience. In order to teach participants about the 'messy and confusing' world as manager, the way that the programme is taught is through experienced reflection, where the aim is for individuals to learn from each other's diverse experiences around the perspectives of 'reflection, action, collaboration, analysis, and worldliness' (Mintzberg, 2004a, p. 284). This occurs through 'action on the ground' and 'reflection in the mind', mirroring what happens in the workplace. Reflection takes place both inside and outside classrooms, and involves a relaxing of assumptions by being exposed to new and sometimes very different ideas.

#### 4.4.2 Making use of new forms of knowledge and mental models

Because of the changes that have happened in the economy, new forms of knowledge have been identified as important to acquire in organisations. There is a need for managers who are able to lead and manage across various kinds of boundaries including 'function, geography, and sometimes even organization, industry, and sector' (Poldony, 2008). At a more fundamental level, there is a requirement to understand the economy in new ways, and be aware of the impact of choices on environment and people. For instance, instead of the classical profit maximisation model there are calls for other more socially and environmentally sustainable economic models to be taught (Bubna-Litic & Benn, 2003; Lenssen, Blagov, Bevan & Karns, 2011; Sipos, Battisti & Grimm, 2008).

Increasingly there is also a focus on new forms of knowledge such as tacit knowledge (Chia, 2009; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008), 'being' and 'doing' skills (Datar et al., 2011), integration skills (Datar et al., 2011), self-knowledge (Palmer et al., 2010), and collaborative skills that celebrate diversity (Mintzberg, 2004a; Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002) and the future of mankind (Williams, 2015). The challenge lies in determining which pedagogies best teach these new kinds of knowledge. And, in fact, it is not only new ways of knowing, but new ways of deciding and thinking that are important. Various scholars (French & Grey, 1996; Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Mintzberg, 2004a, 2004b; Mitroff & Linstone, 1993; Palmer, Dunford & Akin, 2008) anticipate the need in current and future global markets to possess the capacity to hold a diversity of perspectives or mental models in making sense of a turbulent reality. The conflicting needs and goals that are evident throughout society will require responsible leaders to be able to rise to expected and unexpected challenges in an environment where uncertainty is the order of the day, and where self-development and reflection are crucial in coping with rapid change (Buckley & Monks, 2008).

Some of the ways to draw on various perspectives are to adopt critical approaches (Argyris, 2002; Currie & Knights, 2003; Grey, 2004; Perriton, 2007; Welsh & Dehler, 2007), and approaches based on subject areas such as psychoanalysis and post-structuralism (French & Grey, 1996). They might also include making use of pedagogies that encourage different ways of thinking and seeing things (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Mintzberg, 2004a; Palmer et al., 2010), and employing innovative ways of making sense of ambiguity and conflicting situations (Aram & Noble, 1999; Weick, 2007). Some of the pedagogies proposed are integrative (Colby et al., 2011; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008; Palmer et al., 2010), reflective (Mintzberg, 2004a), and collaborative (Mintzberg, 2004a). For instance Palmer and Zajonc (2010) propose that integration is key in the learning process so that a deeper level of learning is accessed:

> … the ideals of a liberal education include integration across disciplines, connection to community, and alignment of one's studies with the inner aspirations that give direction and meaning to one's life (Palmer et al., 2010, p. 7).

Underlying the development of these new kinds of skills and knowledge is the necessity to suspend one's beliefs and judgements, and knowing when to 'drop the tools of rationality', a quality that Weick (2007, p. 15) sees as part of the answer in reconfiguring management education. Argyris's (2002) theory of double loop learning also underscores the need to test the underlying assumptions and values of individuals and the policies of their organisations, as do Colby et al. (2011) and Martin and Moldoveanu (2008). In line with this thinking, Grey (2004, p. 180) suggests the use of critical management education theories, so that management can be taught 'in ways that explicitly acknowledge the political, ethical, and philosophical nature of its practice', and that bring a discussion of values to the classroom so that mindsets can be challenged.

#### 4.4.3 Drawing on different disciplines and subject areas

Increasingly, learning approaches draw from subject areas such as the arts (literature, creative, visual, performing) (Adler, 2006; Gallos, 2009; Nissley, 2010; Spender, 2007; Taylor & Ladkin, 2009), design (Dunne & Martin, 2006; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008; Schön, 1985), history (Chandler, McCraw, McDonald, Tedlow & Vietor, 1986), social psychology (Mashek & Hammer, 2011), psychoanalysis (French & Grey, 1996), and personal development (Cashman, 2008; Conger, 1992). Each of these subject areas provides alternative ways of looking at, knowing, and understanding the world and this has implications regarding the learning process in management education.

Organisations are increasingly turning to artists and artistic processes in their approach to management and leadership (Adler, 2006) in response to the inability of traditional leadership approaches to deal with creative challenges (Nissley, 2010). By making management learning more expressive and innovative, these methods aim to change educational experiences. Examples of arts-based learning are increasingly prevalent and growing strongly, demonstrated by the introduction of

arts-based curriculums in leading business schools such as Wharton, MIT and the University of Chicago (Nissley, 2010). Gallos (2009, p. 187) sees pedagogies involving visual, creative and performing arts as 'all that is needed for success in today's – and tomorrow's – competitive global world' by enabling people to be more in touch with themselves and encourage imagination and hope, echoing Pink's (2006) argument for the development of right-brain capabilities. These pedagogies offer the opportunity for different kinds of deep learning, help to explain the complexities of human nature ,and provide a wide array of teaching methods which draw on the power of metaphor and symbols and include storytelling, theatre, literature, drawing, sculpture, clowning, dance, literature, video and films (Gallos, 2009). Regarding literature, for instance, Czarniawska-Joerges & De Monthoux (2005) suggest that good novels are increasingly being drawn on in management education in the search for 'managerial wisdom' as they offer far more complex and ambiguous information. Novels also provide the opportunity to provide the emotional, subjective and sensual aspects of life that the scientific tradition has ignored, and are able to transfer tacit knowledge by describing knowledge rather than analysing it.

Schön (1987) proposes that, instead of relying on scientific ways of learning, universities should draw on methods used by 'art studios, dance conservatories, athletics coaching, craft apprenticeships and psychoanalytic training'. In this way learning can be far more useful as reflection-in-action through the use of improvisation, framing and creativity which is enhanced through informal discussion in a low-risk environment. Design thinking has become increasingly topical (Dunne & Martin, 2006; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008; Matthews & Wrigley, 2011; Starkey & Tempest, 2009), and is used in some business schools such as the Rotman School of Management. Dunne & Martin (2006) advocate the idea of 'design shops' wherein attitudes and work methods are different to those in traditional organisations, implying that in MBA education there need to be important changes where students learn to collaborate and listen more effectively, considering what 'might be', and look at different reasoning possibilities (Dunne & Martin, 2006).

In the study and teaching of history as a subject much can be learned and applied for the purposes of management education, especially in terms of context. Instead of being used to merely extrapolate present trends, it is useful in a highly competitive market if the subject of history is set up to be used as a context from which to ask questions and examine the lessons to be learned from business (Chandler, McCraw, McDonald, Tedlow & Vietor, 1986). Petriglieri, Wood & Petriglieri, 2011) elaborate on how critical self-knowledge and reflection is in management education and how it has become increasingly popular within MBA and executive development programmes. The link between personal development and leadership effectiveness has received little attention (Petriglieri et al., 2011), yet the relationship between personal development and leadership effectiveness is a close one:

> Leadership is not simply something we do. It comes from somewhere inside us. Leadership is a process, an intimate expression of who we are. It is our being in action. Our being, our personhood, says as much about us as a leader as the act of leading itself (Cashman, 2008, p. 18).

#### 4.4.4 Making increasing use of technology

There is little doubt that information and communications technology is becoming increasingly sophisticated, and is set to play a critical role in business and in management education in the coming decades. Within the context of a strong social media networking environment, Wankel, Marovich & Stanaityte, 2010) propose that these new technologies are aligned with skills and approaches in a collaborative learning process, as instructors globally have already been doing in their business courses. Not only have they made use of various applications, such as Skype, YouTube, Flickr, blogging, LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter, increasing use is being made of sophisticated three-dimensional immersive virtual world interfaces for teaching and learning such as Second Life. Another important trend in the rapidly changing sphere of online education is the growth of MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses)[25]. These originally involved a new format of class, available to anyone and enabling large numbers of students to collaborate with each other in producing new content, initiating debates and creating personal learning environments. Since 2013, however, a new model has developed on sites such as Coursera and edX, where visitors may have access, but materials are under copyright and cannot be removed. Once classes are complete, materials cannot be seen, whereas on most public independent MOOCs materials are available to anyone at any time (Marques & McGuire, 2013).

With the advent of the Internet and the World Wide Web the potential to reach millions of learners at the click of a button has been introduced, and the ability to share multiple media and rich interaction through sophisticated web technologies has changed the face of education. Whilst online learning initiatives used to tap on either asynchronous communication tools (such as e-mail or threaded discussion boards) or synchronous technologies (such as webcasting, chat rooms or audio/video technology) now they tend to use a range of both forms of online interactions as well as occasional face-to-face interactions (Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia & Jones, 2010). Because of the flexibility and convenience introduced by this form of learning, and possibilities introduced by web resources, web-based applications and new collaboration technologies, it has become increasingly popular. Online learning is also said to be effective as it can enhance the learning experience by expanding and supporting a community of learners, and asynchronous tools can encourage a much deeper reflective learning process (Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia & Jones, 2010) .

[25] A MOOC is defined as a 'an educational resource resembling a class, that has assessment mechanisms and an endpoint, that is all online, that is free to use without admissions criteria, and that involves hundreds of students or more' (Marques & McGuire, 2013), and has been in existence since 2012.

Since the turn of the millennium e-learning has become a prevalent part of the MBA learning approach, with interest in online business programmes booming. By 2012 on-line second and third tier business school MBA programmes proliferated, with many of them using sophisticated technology tools (Damast, 2012). Many full time MBA applications have slowed down or reversed, and with employers seeming less resistant to on-line MBA degrees, institutions have been looking for innovative ways to increase revenue streams. Although there has been increasing interest in the consideration of online initiatives amongst the top tier business schools, some business schools such as Harvard Business School take the view that on-line MBA programmes are ineffective, especially in terms of their particular teaching methods, where there is a strong reliance on interaction between students (Burnsed, 2011). Morgan & Adams (2009) point to the importance of aligning technology with pedagogy: whilst they agree that it is debatable as to whether online learning is effective, they strongly recommend that within management education very different approaches are required for the learning of hard skills as opposed to soft skills.

## 4.5 Strengths and weaknesses of future MBA education

### 4.5.1 Content

One of the greatest strengths of future MBA education is that a far broader range of leadership skills will result in a stronger leader being developed who is able to thrive in a complex and constantly changing environment. This means that there will be greater balance in the curriculum and an awareness of the limitations of focusing primarily on cognitive skill development. These competencies involve a more holistic development of self by teaching qualities such as collaboration, self-awareness, moral intuition, and use of imagination. Content thus includes a range of new kinds of knowledge that draw on all the senses, and involves a greater focus on values, purpose and meaning and understanding of humanity. Importantly it involves looking at things in new ways, and through different lenses, in making sense of the world in which we live. In this way it enables deeper levels of learning, and questioning of the status quo in the search for explanations for better ways of doing and understanding business. A focus on practical skills shows the commitment of several scholars to find better ways of teaching the realities of doing business.

A weakness of future management education is that there is no agreement on exactly what to teach and how to teach it, and there remains a disconnect between what business desires and what is offered in the MBA curriculum. A range of new kinds of knowledge and complex content will need to be developed, some of which question the very foundations of management education. Many of the new leadership competencies that are highlighted as important are difficult to teach, and there is resistance amongst business faculty.

### 4.5.2 Method

An important advantage of future teaching methods is that they are constantly shifting closer to matching the reality of business, and the processes involved, so that leaders will understand exactly what is required of them in performing effectively. The use of lenses and perspectives in making sense of business reality will help to make sense of complexity, and aid in the re-examination of how things are done so that improvements can be made and so things can be done differently. A more holistic teaching approach heightens the learning process as learners are engaged at different levels, which helps with engagement and retention, and enables the setting of multiple teaching objectives. Use of a variety of teaching methods, and drawing on emotion has a similar result. Through learning how to learn in this new environment, learners become adaptable, learn how to question and reflect. By drawing on more advanced technology there are various benefits for learners, such as convenience and flexibility, and deeper levels of learning are made possible.

However, there have been fragmented approaches to pedagogical development, and resistance to change. It is difficult to teach in real business environments, as it is to draw on emotions in the learning process, and learners find it challenging to apply what they have learned in practice. They also find it confronting to take on new perspectives as it means that they might need to change what they are doing and how they are thinking. Finally, the new opportunities for learning through technological means can take away the 'human touch' and this approach is unsuited to teaching soft skills or teaching that uses participatory methods. See ***Table 4.1***. for a summary of key strengths and weakness of future MBA education as analysed in section 4.5. Content and Method are addressed in the table.

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|---|
| **CONTENT** | |
| • More holistic broader education<br>• Greater balance in curriculum<br>• Need for new kinds of knowledge drawing on all the senses<br>• Moral development – socially responsible leaders<br>• Imagination and its impact on innovation<br>• Focus on values, purpose and meaning<br>• Deeper understanding of humanity<br>• Greater self-knowledge leads to better understanding of others – development of whole person<br>• Collaboration – empathising across borders<br>• Professionalism and sense of humanity<br>• Learning of practical skills<br>• Looking at things in new ways enables sense-making<br>• Deeper levels of learning<br>• Alternative models of business and business education emerging | • Little agreement exists on what to teach<br>• Disconnect between what business wants and business schools offer -difficult to anticipate business trends<br>• Learning to be self-aware is confronting<br>• Need to value differences – difficult to inculcate<br>• Difficult to shift mindsets<br>• Requires new types of teaching skills – difficult to teach morals, global mindset, practical, tacit, innovation skills – not a strength of academia<br>• Wider range of and more complex content needs to be created<br>• Tacit knowledge questions foundations of management education |

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|---|
| • More democratic leadership<br>• Education based on inspiration not motivation | |
| **METHOD** | |
| • Closer to business reality through active participation<br>• Through disciplines/subjects – teaching new ways of knowing and thinking<br>• Adoption of mindsets gives new perspectives<br>• Re-examination of 'what is' to improve<br>• Connect through emotion<br>• Learning how to learn teaches adaptability<br>• More holistic teaching heightens learning experience<br>• Use of a variety of teaching methods – helps with retention and achievement of multiple objectives<br>• Leadership increasingly a process rather than content<br>• Technology – can reach more people, offer deeper levels of learning, offers flexible and convenient learning<br>• Questioning and reflection<br>• Increasing need for collaboration in the learning process | • Fragmented approach to pedagogical development<br>• Resistance to pedagogical change<br>• Difficulty in applying what is learned in practice<br>• Difficult to teach in business environment<br>• Technology loses the human touch, not suited to teaching soft skills or participatory methods<br>• Against tradition to include emotion in the learning process<br>• Confronting to have to take on different perspectives – have to give up control |

**Table 4.1: Strengths and weaknesses of future MBA education**

## 4.6 Summary and themes

### 4.6.1 Themes

***Content***

1. ***It is important to appeal to the IMAGINATION in order to solve problems and be innovative.***

   Drawing on the imagination is directly linked to innovation and entrepreneurial behaviour (Zhou, Shalley & Hitt, 2015), and is expected to become more important in the future (Pink, 2006), not only to solve complex business problems but those of society more generally. It is also important in terms of developing pathfinding behaviour, which is key to a nation's competitiveness and business success (Leavitt, 1989).

2. ***Enhancing SELF-AWARENESS helps the learner to understand self, and thus others.***

   An important first step in developing leaders is to enhance their self-awareness (Datar et al., 2011). Great leadership involves a strong sense of self, which then makes it easier to understand and lead others (Goleman et al., 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002a). By providing honest feedback and through critical reflection, learners are able to challenge their worldviews, and make changes that help them to grow as leaders. Part of this involves developing oneself holistically by attending to the various aspects of self – heart, mind, body and spirit (Boyatzis, 2008; Boyatzis, 2009; Cashman, 2008; Palmer et al., 2010).

3. ***Finding the meaning in the learning helps to define PURPOSE about life.***

   Finding meaning has always been an important part of human nature (Khurana, 2007), and it is expected to become more important in the future (Pink, 2006; Pink, 2009). A sense of meaning in the workplace is important to cultivate in order to enhance job satisfaction and purpose (Klein, 2008; Palmer et al., 2010; Weisbord, 2004). Palmer et al. (2010) advocate the importance of connecting what one is learning to what is personally meaningful so that it resonates and involves deeper levels of learning.

4. ***Cultivating COLLABORATION helps learners value difference and to empathise.***

   In leading change, it has become increasingly important to possess the ability to collaborate across barriers of different kinds – cultural, religious, ethnic – as the economy has become increasingly globalised (Williams, 2015). The challenge in collaborating is to learn how to value differences (Metcalfe, 2012) as collaboration is essential in finding new solutions to problems (Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002). Empathising is a key character trait necessary in leaders, so that they are better able to understand and collaborate with others (McGrath, 2014), and increasingly globalisation has been a key factor in driving the need to develop collaboration skills (Datar et al., 2011).

5. ***Learning about MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES helps learners to make sense of complexity.***

One of the key aspects of learning at universities is to enable students to think critically and look at things from multiple perspectives (O'Toole, 2009), and this ability has become even more important for leaders of the future in using different lenses or frames to make sense of complexity. Many scholars suggest using frames (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Schön, 1983; Senge, 2010) and several point to the necessity of using multiple frames or mindsets (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Mintzberg, 2004a), but also being able to connect and integrate differing points of view (Datar et al., 2011).

6. ***Nurturing MORAL INTUITION helps learners to act responsibly.***

   In light of the unprecedented crises facing the world today, it has become more important than ever for business leaders to behave in a socially responsible manner, and aid in finding new solutions. Because business has the potential to play this role, and address the needs of multiple stakeholders (Ghoshal, 2005), there are calls for it to become a profession with moral obligations (Khurana, 2007; Khurana & Nohria, 2008; Khurana et al., 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). For this reason it has become crucial for business schools to develop 'practical wisdom' (Billsberry & Birnik, 2010; Nonaka & Toyama, 2007; Roca, 2008; Statler, 2014; Küpers & Pauleen, 2013) or phrónêsis abilities (Antonacopoulou, 2010; Birmingham, 2004; Nonaka & Toyama, 2007; Shotter & Tsoukas, 2014).

7. ***Learning PRACTICAL skills enables the learner to know what is appropriate to do in the workplace.***

   In order to become more practically relevant there are calls for a shift in the curriculum from explicit knowledge that is specifically organised to tacit knowledge (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009b) and more practical skills that involve an action orientation that is more applied (Bailey & Ford, 1996; Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Cheit, 1985).

***Method***

8. ***Learners need to be CLOSER TO REALITY in the learning process so they understand what is expected of them in the workplace.***

   In MBA teaching, various teaching methods, such as experiential and action learning, need to be used for learners to understand the realities of the workplace in a holistic way (Mintzberg, 2004a; Raelin, 2009b). This form of learning allows for deeper levels of learning, and learners are able to apply the learning. Furthermore, it allows for various levels of reflection, different modes of participation, and various time frames within which the learning can take place (Raelin & Coghlan, 2006). It can also involve reflection-in-action, which enables individuals to become more aware of the theories that determine their and others' behaviour (Argyris & Schön, 1974; Schön, 1995).

9. ***It useful to use the LENS OF OTHER DISCIPLINES AND SUBJECTS to better understand about leadership.***

   Looking at the business world through other disciplines and subjects enables a broader education, and enables learners to see things in new ways (Colby et al., 2011). This can be done, for instance, through looking at multiple disciplines (Colby et al., 2011) or specific ones like the arts (Gallos, 2009; Nissley, 2010; Spender, 2007), design (Dunne & Martin, 2006; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008; Schön, 1985) or personal development (Cashman, 2008; Conger, 1992).

10. ***By adopting different MINDSETS it is possible for learners to shift their thinking and look at challenges in new ways.***

    In order to solve highly complex challenges in a world where there are conflicting theories and values (Buckley & Monks, 2008), it is expected that the ability to adopt a range of mindsets will be necessary in the future in order to make sense of the environment (French & Grey, 1996; Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; Mintzberg, 2004a, 2004b; Mitroff & Linstone, 1993; Palmer et al., 2008).

11. ***The use of TECHNOLOGY enables learning to happen in flexible and convenient ways, and offers the opportunity for deeper levels of learning.***

    The ubiquitous availability of sophisticated technology tools enables new methods of teaching that are convenient and flexible and provide for a collaborative learning experience (Wankel et al., 2010), and learning platforms such as MOOCs enable a more democratic form of learning (Marques & McGuire, 2013). This form of learning is able to provide an enhanced learning experience with a deeply reflective component (Means et al., 2010).

12. ***Drawing on the EMOTIONS in the learning process helps learners to engage and find connect with the learning.***

    It has been determined that tapping on the emotions in the learning process is important (Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008; Conger, 1992; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b; Strebel & Keys, 2005), as there are benefits in terms of higher levels of engagement and retention by appealing to multiple aspects of self.

13. ***Through ACTIVE PARTICIPATION learners are physically and mentally engaged in the learning process***

    By taking part actively in the learning process, learners become engaged because they are stimulated at different levels, and it is also possible in this way to gain greater insights into the practical aspects of operating effectively as a manager. This can occur in various ways, such as by learning through one's own experience (Mintzberg, 2004a), reflection (Argyris, 1997, 2004; Argyris & Schon, 1974), or through service learning initiatives (Korpiaho et al., 2007).

### 4.6.2 Summary

Just as Pink (2006) aptly entitled his book *A Whole New Mind*, educating leaders of the future requires a whole new way of thinking. Leaders will need to be equipped to solve unprecedented challenges not only within business but in society more broadly, and will need to be adept at constantly looking at things in new ways. They will in fact need a much broader range of leadership skills than ever before. The emphasis has shifted from a narrow focus on intellectual skill development to the need for competencies relating to greater levels of self-knowledge and social interaction, especially in terms of collaboration. Also required is the development of a broader moralistic community perspective that involves partnering with stakeholders outside of the business world in the third sector.

Several of the competencies required in the future are difficult to teach, however, and new kinds of knowledge and teaching tools will be needed. Key to making choices about these issues will be the degree to which the intention is to achieve balance in terms of theory and practice in the teaching process. Within the MBA realm this will mean drawing on some of the same leadership competencies and tools being taught by business schools to look at both theory and practice in new ways, and find ways to capitalise on the core strengths of business school faculty.

From the perspective of enhancing the Harvard case study method, what can be useful? It will be important to find ways to inspire students by drawing on their imagination and emotion, rather than only on their intelligence. The setting of multiple objectives and various teaching methods (such as collaborative, conversational, and reflective approaches) whilst using the case method will aid in addressing the need for the broader range of identified leadership competencies, and embracing different perspectives and mindsets will help to understand the business world in new ways. Questioning of the practice of management and current business and economic models, and of own worldview, will help learners to become more critical of what works well and what does not, and should be part of a neo-Harvard case study method model. Use of sophisticated technology tools can also help to bring reflective and deeper levels of learning if there is a broad range of experience within the student-body, and virtual possibilities will take learning a step closer to business reality. As far as learning practical business skills are concerned, there should be an emphasis on bringing the people dimension into a new case method approach, as leaders today are increasingly expected to engage, motivate, persuade and inspire. Part of the answer may lie in aiming to understand human behaviour through the perspective of various disciplines, and this is the aim of the chapter that follows in making use of the lens of evolutionary psychology.

# 5 Methodology – the study framework enabled

> Everything that can be counted does not necessarily count; everything that counts cannot necessarily be counted. (Albert Einstein)

## 5.1 Introduction

This methodology chapter explains the method used for the above literature reviews, the rationale and process employed for the development of themes for exploration, the empirical methodology for the study of the Hardwired Humans case, and the dialogic methodology employed with the developer of Hardwired Humans in both describing and evaluating the programme, and for the development of a neo-Harvard case study methodology prototyping the design principles drawn from and combining the insights drawn from the literature reviews and the programme evaluation.

Design principles were derived from three sources: (i) three literature reviews; (ii) empirical research involving personal interviews with attendees of a novel and influential leadership neo-Harvard case study method type course and participant observation in the same programme; and (iii) dialogue with the developer and deliverer of the neo-Harvard case study method course. Each of these sources is depicted in ***Figure 5.1***. In the first instance of the literature reviews, secondary research is performed in three bodies of management education literature with the intention of examining strengths and weaknesses of each body of literature. The thesis is also informed by two strands of primary research: an empirical study which is a critical evaluation of the successful Australian experiential education programme, Hardwired Humans Zoo programme, and dialogic action research consisting of a series of interviews and co-design of an MBA course prototype with management education practitioner Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans.

There are four sections covered in this chapter. The first provides an explanation of the rationale behind selecting qualitative research, the use of a social constructivist lens and narrative methodology. The second describes the approach to developing literature reviews and how themes were derived from them, and the third explains the approach to the study of the Hardwired Humans programme using interviews and participant observation and the process of themes emerging from this study. The fourth and final section provides detail on the approach to the dialogue with the practitioner – in this instance the emergent themes from these discussions and those emerging from each research methodology, the development and refinement of prototype design principles, and their operationalising into the development of a pedagogical prototype are discussed.

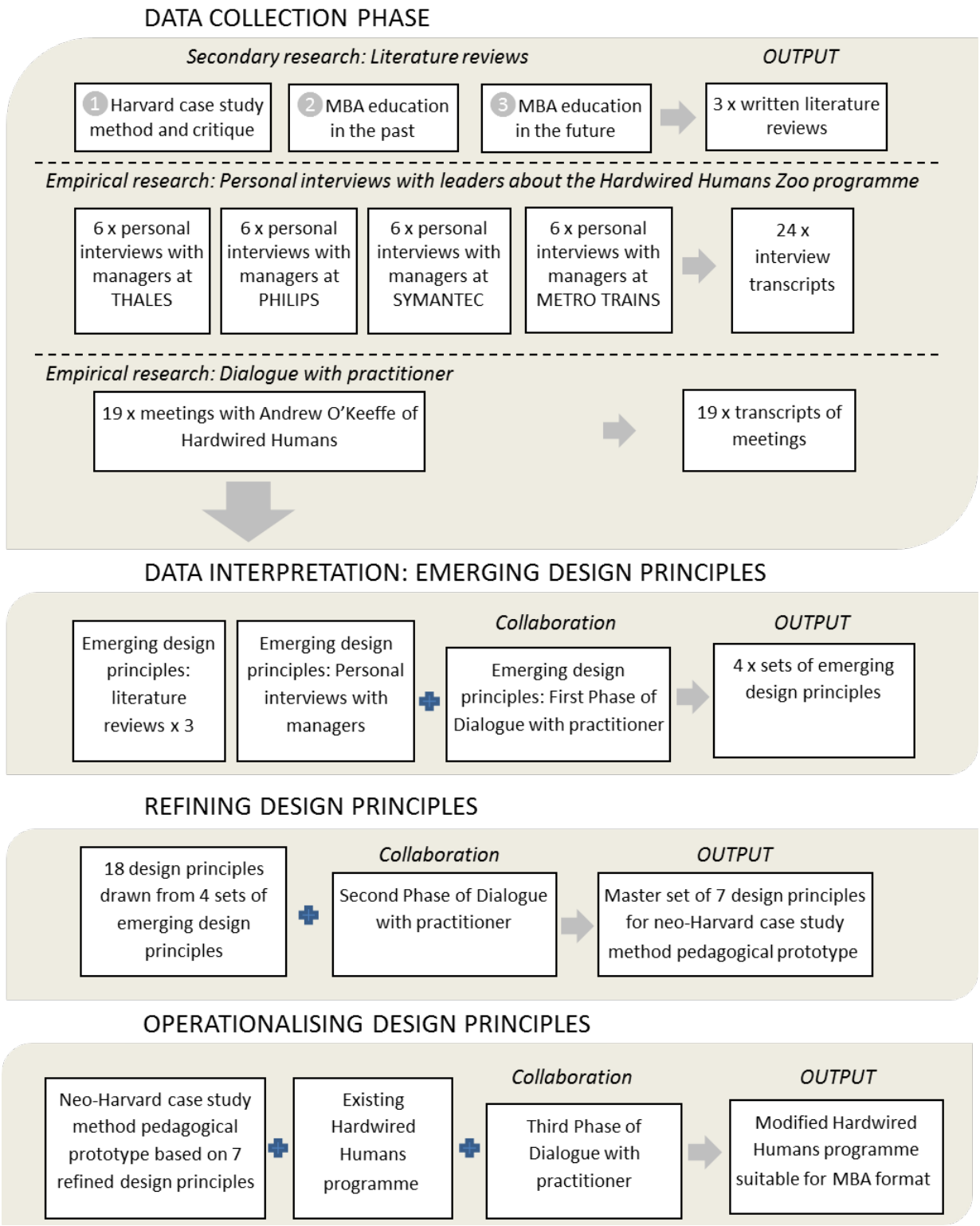



**Figure 5-1: Diagrammatic representation of research methodology**

## 5.2 Choice of research method: qualitative research, a social constructivist lens and narrative analysis

If I look back at my research and case study writing career, which has involved various quantitative and qualitative research projects, I have always been influenced by a positivist approach. The aim has

been to collect the data in a way that very clearly and simplistically shows the answers to the research problem.

My background in writing business case studies, mostly in the Harvard case study method style, was in many ways been a search for the 'truth' in providing narratives of business challenges faced by executives in the workplace. Of course, in writing these 30-odd cases over the last 15 years, I have been limited by my own reality, the way in which I see the challenge having unfolded for the chief protagonist who is the subject in the case. But what the business cases provided was a description of what has occurred in the business, a specific challenge that has been faced by a particular business leader, and gives context and meaning that could not have been presented by numbers and statistics in quite the same way.

Perhaps this reflects the traditional way that I was educated in South Africa, with a purely scientific philosophy underlying the way that I think about things. But my research efforts and case study writings have always been tinged with the search for findings that are even 'closer' to the truth. I remember that when I reached university and began to question things in new ways, there was a key turning point one wintry morning when I attended one of my first Sociology lectures, and the first quote I read up on the overhead was that 'Everything is not what it seems'. This is echoed by Berger (1963, p. 1) who suggests that:

> It can be said that the first wisdom of sociology is this: things are not what they seem. This too is a deceptively simple statement. It ceases to be simple after a while. Social reality turns out to have many layers of meaning. The discovery of each new layer changes the perception of the whole.

In a later edition of his book, Berger (2011, p. 4) offers the following: 'Sociology is not a practice but an *attempt to understand*.' Since exposure to my supervisor at Macquarie Graduate School of Management (MGSM), Professor Richard Badham, my research approach has been profoundly impacted by his sociological perspective. In meeting with Richard over the course of my PhD studies, I have experienced many more 'turning points', wherein my conception of reality has been questioned at a fundamental level. My assumptions about the way that I look at how life works – including the research of people within organisations – have been up-ended by some of the sessions that I have enjoyed with Richard. Many times, I have walked away from these meetings with my mind spinning in different directions!

An additional reason for my interest in adopting a more qualitative sociological approach to this study was the profound insight I gained by reading about evolutionary psychology and the powerful way that stories are used by humans (Dunbar, 1998; Gottschall, 2012; Gottschall & Wilson, 2005; Pinker, 2007). In learning about this narrative characteristic, I became even more convinced that my approach would need to be qualitative and constructivist, as after all, in communicating intricate

details about their lives, using stories and providing rich context to their interpreted experiences, it was unlikely that I would find what I was looking for in a purely quantitative statistical approach.

*Looking at the 'whole'*

For these reasons, an essentially interpretivist (as opposed to positivist) paradigm (Lewis, Thornhill & Saunders, 2007) developed in my own mind over time, and informed the qualitative approach adopted in this study. Rather than being limited by mere statistics, I strived in this study to look at the rich history and context of how the Harvard case study method was conceived, and transformed over the years, and within the context of the development of management education more broadly. I also aimed to understand in detail the experience of leaders being trained at the Hardwired Humans Zoo in a neo-Harvard case study style leadership programme based on evolutionary psychology principles. This predominately non-MBA leadership education programme not only provided a pedagogical example of utilising the strengths of the conventional Harvard case study method, it also provided a successful working example of attempting to overcome some of its weaknesses. The study sought to deepen the analysis through a series of dialogues with the practitioner who delivers this programme, uncovering the rich context within which he thinks and acts regarding his approach to teaching and learning.

Qualitative research methods are able to provide in-depth understanding of human behaviour, and the 'why' and 'how' of why people do what they do within organisations, and provide the kind of data that enables one to understand the subject of the study at depth. One of the important ways that they do this is by enabling an emergent categorisation of data into patterns as the chief basis for organising and reporting results. I selected the qualitative research method as one of the means to collect relevant data for this part of the study. This qualitative approach was selected so as to enable me to:

1. Explore problems and issues that learners encounter in connection with the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme;
2. Distil complexity of the programme into manageable pieces;
3. Understand the context of the programme by observing and collecting data in person;
4. Explain linkages of the programme to a theoretical framework for the study;
5. Gain insight into 'right things' to measure for programme success.

Allied to this is participant observation, which has been used to examine the same programme attended by the interviewees. I also chose to engage in dialogue with a practitioner as a form of action research, and by using all of these methods obtain a 'richer' and more meaningful conception of the particular subject (Lewis, Thornhill & Saunders, 2007; Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011): the use of the Hardwired Humans' evolutionary psychology-based Zoo programme as an example of an experimental prototype for a neo-Harvard case study method programme.

The case study of Hardwired Humans draws on multiple streams of evidence and is comprehensive in exploring this subject in its natural social situation (Stake, 2000; Yin, 2009), in an attempt to provide a holistic and in-depth description and analysis (Eisenhardt, 1989; George & Bennett, 2005; Yin, 2009). This case study allows new insights to emerge (Eisenhardt, 1989), and can help to explain causal links in interventions that are too complicated for experimental studies. Because this study aims to answer what Yin (2003) calls the 'why' and 'how' questions as opposed to 'what' questions, the use of qualitative methods such as semi-structured personal interviews, participant observation, dialogue with a practitioner, and a case study are most appropriate.

### *Finding the meaning*

Beneath the use of the research methods selected for the purposes of this study lies an interpretivist paradigm, which is also constructivist by nature. This is because the interpretivist paradigm involves the perspective of reality being socially constructed, influenced by people, and thus concerned with subjective qualitative occurrences that are rich in context (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991). By employing a qualitative approach, reality is not purely objective and is dependent on those who interpret it. Research towards the end of the 20$^{th}$ and beginning of the 21$^{st}$ century was characterised by a turn towards more interpretive, postmodern and critical practices, with the five main paradigms of this research approach being: positivism, post-positivism, critical theories, participatory, and constructivist paradigms (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). The non-positivist paradigms are different to positivist paradigms in that they are inductive and support theory generation, whilst positivist paradigms employ a deductive approach wherein theories are tested against the data collected.

According to Jean Piaget, a contributor to the foundations of constructivism, the theory suggests that learners construct knowledge out of their experiences. The constructivist paradigm, which grew out of the philosophy of phenomenology and hermeneutics, is used in the research process with the aim of understanding human experience and the 'meaning making' that occurs in this process (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006) as 'knowledge is established through the meanings attached to the phenomena studied' (Krauss, 2005, p. 759). This paradigm, which is based on the natural inclination of humans to find meaning in their experiences (Krauss, 2005), recognises the importance of the participant's view of the subject of the study, and in this way their experience and background impacts on the research findings. This study draws on constructivism in that understanding is gained by interpreting subject perceptions; at the same time it is understood that in this paradigm multiple realities exist and are dependent on the individual. Guba & Lincoln, (1985, p. 73) elaborate on this point in the following way:

> Our individual personal reality – the way we think life is and the part we are to play in it is – *self-created. We put together our own personal reality.*

In this study, there is also a partial reliance on a participatory paradigm in co-constructed learning, which means that intellectual and practical development occurs through democratic collaboration between researcher and subject (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). This paradigm is compatible with, and often informed by, constructivism and much of the work builds on the extension of several constructivist theories developed towards the end of the 20th century. In the work of Piaget, Bruner & Vygotsky, for example, research focus is shifted away from individual learning to include collaborative and social aspects of learning (Wood & Bennett, 1998).

Participation in the form of collaboration has been an important part of the qualitative research methodology process, not only in terms of regular interaction with an academic expert in constructivist and practice based learning (my MGSM supervisor, Professor Richard Badham), but also the on-going dialogue with a successful management education consultancy practitioner, Andrew O'Keeffe, over a four-year period. The interviews with the managers in large Australian organisations that attended O'Keeffe's Hardwired Human programme at the Zoo could also be seen as partially collaborative in the sense that the interviews moved from a semi-structured format to include more open and reflective discussions with the interviewees about their feelings and stories about their experience of management education.

### *Closer to 'reality' through story*

Traditionally, I would have approached this work by formulating simple questions that would help to reveal that data that I sought, without giving deep thought to the way in which I constructed the questions, the way in which I would communicate in the interviews, and the different ways in which I could analyse the data. For the purposes of this work, however, and with Richard's encouragement, I was strongly influenced by the work of Barbara Czarniawska (1995; 1999, 2011; 2007) on the use of narrative inquiry in organisations. There were two aspects of her approach to the organisational research process that particularly appealed to me. Firstly, I was attracted to her idea of asking questions in a way that would elicit story-telling in order to reveal data that would be 'closer to the truth' of the participants reality, and secondly, I liked her idea of creating a 'collage' by documenting my findings with different kinds of evidence unearthed during the research process, and which was relevant to my argument. This of course fitted within the realm of a social constructivist rather than a logical scientific and positivist approach, and for this reason I do not claim in this work to have presented a neat and orderly set of findings that is so characteristic of the latter tradition. However, what I feel I have offered, and it is for the reader to judge, are findings which through narrative inquiry provide context and reality to the data that is revealed through the research process.

Despite my interest in employing this narrative methodology approach, I was anxious as to how it would unfold, for it meant that I would need to approach the interview process by being prepared

with questions, yet being open to unknown stories that could be told as long as I was inviting them, and that they might emerge in ways that did not match my assumptions of logic (Chase, 2007).

Although narrative inquiry emerged early in the 20th century it was only towards the turn of the century and into the 21st century that it became increasingly popular as a qualitative research method. It uses field texts – such as stories, journals, field notes, letters, conversations, interviews – as the units of analysis to study and help to explain how humans create meaning in their lives as narratives. It is now believed that this process can reveal meaning much more broadly than meaning for the individual, and involves revealing the 'multiple truths' that are implicit in cultural narratives and how they impact on people's lives (Byrne-Armstrong, 2001). In this way, the intention is not to provide the 'truth' but rather the context within which the researcher and research subject resides (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005). Along with Czarniawska, there are many other researchers who promote the use of the narrative inquiry method (Boje, 2001; Connelly & Clandinin, 1990; Gubrium & Holstein, 2012; Riessman, 1993), and there are a range of analytic strategies and a variety of approaches that can be used in this regard.

The approach helps to give context to what occurred in the Zoo training sessions, which in turn ensures that the meaning behind the responses are of a higher quality than of a purely logical-scientific method were used to elicit purely objective responses that are without value and meaning. In analysing the data, I was very aware of the fact that, perhaps more than anything, I saw the narrative form as a device used to communicate meaning (Bruner, 1990). I was also looking for patterns and themes, as well as contrasts, paradoxes, and irregularities (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). At the same time I was trying the make sense of the stories that were told in terms of my research question. I realised that I would be drawing on my own experience and knowledge in making these interpretations, whilst also drawing on research findings (Riessman, 1993). But the 'power of knowledge' is in the hands of the person being interviewed (Czarniawska, 1999, p. 2), and I knew I had to take care in listening carefully to the narratives that emerged, and in using the stories to sense-make (Weick, 1995) as I analysed the data.

## 5.3 Conducting literature reviews

There were three literature reviews undertaken in order to inform the development of design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method prototype. There was also one literature review completed purely to provide context for the subject of the empirical study: a case study of the Hardwired Humans Zoo leadership programme which was grounded in the discipline of evolutionary psychology. Each literature review involved thorough searches of the main business databases in the Macquarie University Library, and using keywords identified specifically for the purposes of each review. These databases included all management and management education journals such as

*Business Source Premier, Emerald Management, Wiley Online Library, Expanded Academic ASAP, JSTOR, ScienceDirect*, and *Informit Online*. A search was also undertaken of all other publications within the main 'multi-search' function of the Macquarie Library. Each of the publications sourced was kept in an organised folder for each literature review and saved within the Endnote bibliographic software package for future reference. There were several publications which stood out in the process of reviewing the literature, and they are considered to be pivotal to the unfolding of this thesis, including:

- Datar et al. (2011) *Rethinking the MBA: business education at a crossroads*
- Khurana (2007) *From Higher Aims to Hired Hands - The Social Transformation of American Business Schools and the Unfulfilled Promise of Management as a Profession*
- Mintzberg (2004a) *Managers, Not MBAs*
- Palmer et al. (2010) *The Heart of Higher Education: A Call to Renewal*
- Schön 1995) *The reflective practitioner: how professionals think in action.*

*Approach to literature reviews*

The first literature review forms the heart of this thesis as it offers a critique of the existing traditional Harvard case study method: the review explains exactly what is meant by the Harvard case study method, the historical context within which the pedagogical method grew so that its trajectory can be understood, and the main points of differences between the traditional method and its variants. As part of this review, key words were entered into the library search mechanism, in particular, 'Harvard case study method', and 'Case method'. In addition, however, references and citations were followed up through a 'rolling' process of searching in order to be more thorough, and continuous searching took place every six months to see if any new publications could be revealed.

The second literature review of MBA education in the past was selected in order to provide broader context to explain the evolution of formal MBA education, what pedagogies have dominated, and what the chief failings of this form of education have been – this information helps to understand the role of the case study method, and why it played such a key part in this form of education. Key words entered into the literature search in this instance were 'MBA education' and 'management education'. Similarly the 'rolling' process of following up was used.

The third literature review on the future of MBA education was selected because it provides context in terms of pedagogical trends and possibilities; it also helps to identify and document future possibilities for MBA education transformation, and this in turn provides clues as to what a future Harvard case study method could look like. There were key words entered here including 'future MBA', 'new MBA', 'future management education'. Once again, the 'rolling' process of following up was used.

*Deriving themes*

Each of the above three literature reviews provides a valued incoming stream from which themes for the development of a new MBA pedagogical prototype, a neo-Harvard case study method, could ultimately be defined. As each review was complete, I analysed it for content and method, strengths and weaknesses. This was based on capturing the main established themes, and the dominant arguments made to support or criticise the method. These were then transformed into an emergent set of themes; the twin pedagogical components of content and method embedded therein were then refined over time in a shifting and changing process. At various stages over the years – most prominently shortly after interaction with interviewees and the interviews and discussions with the practitioner, O'Keeffe and the academic expert, Badham – I would revisit the themes to see if I felt differently about them and adjust them accordingly. The themes that were formed through this process provided the context within which the empirical study was undertaken, informing both the methodology used in the personal interview, and the dialogue with the practitioner.

## 5.4 Evaluation of Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme: participant interviews

A collaborative partnership between myself as Macquarie Graduate School of Business (MGSM) PhD candidate, Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans, and several well-known Australian private sector organisations was forged late in 2010. O'Keeffe had long had a working relationship with various MGSM staff members, and after discussion with several organisations who were his clients, he approached the business school to determine if there were synergies with the aims of his clients and himself as owner of leadership development consultancy, Hardwired Humans. Their aims were as follows:

1. The organisations: to identify if the Hardwired Human's body of knowledge and application provides a breakthrough for the development of leaders in organisations to increase the effectiveness of leaders so that a chronic challenge to organisational performance is reduced.
2. Hardwired Humans: to have well-documented case studies of the effect of the company's interventions in Australia and to make any changes that will enhance the effectiveness.

These intentions fitted well with the scope of my project, which was focused on promoting managerial and leadership development through researching alternatives to the Harvard case study method. Furthermore, working closely with O'Keeffe paved the way for me to pursue empirical possibilities in terms of the aims of my study.

O'Keeffe's Zoo-based neo-Harvard case study-style leadership programme looked to be an excellent candidate for intensive study since it drew on many of the strengths of the Harvard case study

method. It also appeared to draw on teaching and learning methods that went beyond the method in its traditional form. The course was considered relevant in terms of its 'people dimensions' content and method, and it had become extremely popular amongst a number of large Australian corporates as evidenced by its rapid growth. It stood out as it possessed the novel approach of using evolutionary psychology principles in terms of how they apply to management in organisations, and an associated 'people management' programme that organisations increasingly seek, and its teaching location at the Zoo provided an interesting alternative to the traditional classroom based programmes.

On meeting for the first time at MGSM City Campus in September 2010, we instantly found common ground. Professor Richard Badham and another MGSM academic at the time, Professor Robin Kramar, were also part of that first meeting, helping us to carve out a strategy for how we might go about a joint research project. It was decided that we would first meet with the interested industry partners, after which I would undertake an empirical critique of the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme. We met with representatives of each of the seven organisations (Ericsson, Flight Centre, Philips, QBE, Schenker, Symantec and Thales) three months later, after which O'Keeffe and I met another two or three times to work out the logistics of the personal interviews with leaders who had attended his Zoo programme. We felt that it would be mutually beneficial for me to attend a two-day Taronga Zoo (Sydney) Programme before selecting participants and undertaking the interviews, and this was planned for early in 2011. In this way I would be able to act as a participant observer, experiencing first-hand what participants learned in the programme, and how they responded to O'Keeffe's pedagogical approach.

### 5.4.1 Participant observation

On 19–20 January 2011, I attended the two-day leadership programme run at the Zoo for Symantec. In order for me to operate as a participant observer, I was included as one of the participants in the programme, being required to interact in the same way that each leader did, and enabling me to understand the intricacies of the programme and its participants. O'Keeffe had obtained permission from the company for me to do this prior to running the programme, and the organisation was willing to accommodate me for research purposes. In fact, I attended a further Zoo workshop at a later date with other organisations involved, from 23–24 July 2013, which enabled me to again closely observe the pedagogical aspects involved in running the programme. In both cases I made field notes, and was able to interact with both O'Keeffe and the participants throughout the two-day programmes. This observation was supplemented by further interaction with O'Keeffe in a series of meetings later on and at several related leadership development conferences.

This opportunity enabled me to understand what the 14 Symantec attendees had experienced first-hand. I interviewed six of the Symantec leaders who attended this same programme a few months

afterwards as part of the empirical study of the Zoo programme (I also interviewed another 18 leaders from three other organisations who attended at a different time). As a mere interviewer, attempts to understand the culture of the group would have been limited (Lindlof & Taylor, 2010), but by allowing me to also experience the phenomenon that they had experienced, this research method helped me to gain closer insights into the group's norms, motivations and emotions (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2010). The research method of participant observation has a long history, having evolved from ethnographic research by anthropologists in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, when researchers wrote about their experiences of living within cultures and gaining insights about them. Despite ethnographic research having a 'somewhat chequered career in the social sciences' (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994, p. 248), participant observation has been used in a variety of disciplines.

In this instance the method included different activities – such as direct observation and participation in the life of the groups – offering qualitative research insight into paradoxes and discrepancies such as when what group members say differs from what occurs in reality (DeWalt, DeWalt & Wayland, 1998). It was the first time I had met with any of the participants, and the only person associated with the programme that I knew was the practitioner running the programme, Andrew O'Keeffe. Thus, although I knew that I had the opportunity to engage in the research process in ways I had not done before, I was also aware that my presence might influence the behaviour of the group. I felt that it would be important to quickly establish rapport with members of the group, as there are generally four stages involved in participant observation: getting to know the people, immersing oneself in the field, recording data and observations, and consolidating the information gathered (Howell, 1973). I was aware that although the focus in the study was on the behaviour of group members and that of the instructor of the programme, my discipline, background and interests would influence my experience as a participant observer (Emerson, Fretz & Shaw, 2001).

### 5.4.2 In-depth interviews

#### *5.4.2.1 Selection of interviewees*

Prior to the set of interviews, there was a discussion between O'Keeffe and I of the parameters of the research and the methodology involved. The specifics of how we would go about the selection of interviewees was also discussed, and together we decided that the best way to go about doing this was to allow the companies themselves to select the participants within the constraints of ensuring a balance of gender and managerial level within the organisation. Before the interviews began, O'Keeffe and I briefly discussed his previous history with each organisation, and some of the 'evidence' which had emerged regarding his success in working with them (verbal feedback, observation, emails, published case studies), as I was interested in using this in drawing on Czarniawska's 'patchwork' narrative style.

A purposive sample of six from the Symantec programme held on 19–20 January 2011 was selected by their HR leadership team to attend personal interviews with me six months after the programme was run, with the proviso that there was a balance of male and female, and Tier 1 and Tier 2 managers included. The purposive sample was a non-randomly selected sample based on two specific characteristics – gender balance and a balance in Tier 1 and Tier 2 management representation in the sample.

Tier 1 managers were those responsible for directing the organisation as well as its development as a whole. Tier 1 management has ultimate control of – and responsibility for –the upper layers of management. Tier 2 management is directly below the top level of the organisational hierarchy and assists Tier 1 management by implementing organisational plans. Tier 2 managers are responsible for leading and directing the work of other managers of functional departments below them and may also be responsible for managing professional and specialists.

O'Keeffe had delivered a similar Zoo programme with three other organisations, so in order to gauge the experience of the participants more generally, managers were chosen by their organisation to take part in personal interviews with me. Six people who had had exposure to O'Keeffe, having attended the Hardwired Humans programme, were selected from each of these companies too, so in total 24 employees were involved in this empirical study. Each participant occupied a leadership position, and hailed from one of four Australian corporates (Thales, Philips, Metro Trains, and Symantec). See ***Table 5.1*** for more details.

| SYMANTEC | PHILIPS | THALES | METRO TRAINS |
|---|---|---|---|
| M – Tier 1 | F – Tier 2 | F- Tier 2 | M – Tier 1 |
| M – Tier 1 | M – Tier 1 | F – Tier 1 | F – Tier 2 |
| M – Tier 2 | M – Tier 2 | M – Tier 2 | M –Tier 2 |
| F – Tier 2 | M – Tier 1 | M – Tier 1 | M – Tier 1 |
| M – Tier 2 | F – Tier 2 | F –Tier 2 | F – Tier 2 |
| M – Tier 1 | M – Tier 1 | F –Tier 2 | F – Tier 2 |

***Tier 1 Managers = 10***

***Tier 2 Managers = 14***

***Males (M) = 14***

***Females (F) = 10***

**Table 5.1: The four organisations and the managerial level/gender of each participant**

Personal one-hour interviews were undertaken at the offices of the selected participants, with the interview questions having been e-mailed to participants before the time. This meant that Thales participants were interviewed at Garden Island, Sydney; Philips participants in North Ryde, Sydney; Symantec participants in the Sydney CBD; and Metro Trains in the Melbourne CBD area. The details

of each human instincts programme attended and length of time since the programme was attended reveals that at least six months had passed since any participant had been on the Hardwired Humans leadership programme. The length of each programme that had been attended was variable, from only one day to five days spread out over a number of months. Prior to starting the interview process, an Ethics form was required to be completed and approval was granted by Macquarie University by May 2011 (see ***Appendix A***). In accordance with MGSM Ethics agreements, the identities of the organisations and individuals have been disguised for the purposes of this study. The breakdown of those interviewed is as follows:

#### *5.4.2.2 Data collection*

Over the June–September 2011 period, experienced leaders from four Australian organisations were interviewed about their experience. The programme had been run by Andrew O'Keeffe of management education consultancy, Hardwired Humans, drawing primarily on the principles of evolutionary psychology that are relevant to contemporary management practice today as embodied in the works of an expert at London Business School, Professor Nigel Nicholson (1998a, 2000b). In particular the programme hinged on the notion of certain 'human instincts' knowledge enabling leaders to more easily understand key motivations and behaviour in the workplace.

In initially arranging the personal interviews with each of the 24 participants, an interview time of 45 minutes was planned, but on average 50 minutes per interviewee was clocked. The shortest interview lasted 26 minutes whilst the longest was held over one hour and 21 minutes. In total, 20 hours and 15 minutes of interview time was spent interviewing across all four organisations, with the most interview time being spent at Philips (see ***Table 5.2***). On meeting up for each interview, participants were provided with a letter which they were required to read and sign which secured privacy and ethics issues related to the investigation (see ***Appendix C***).

| **SYMANTEC** | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Interviewee** | **Date of interview** | **Duration (mins.)** |
| M - Tier 1 - Ned | 19-Aug-11 | **45** |
| M - Tier 1 - Roy | 19-Jul-11 | **39** |
| M - Tier 2 - Timothy | 25-Aug-11 | **64** |
| F - Tier 2 - Ruby | 19-Jul-11 | **59** |
| M - Tier 2 - Edgar | 19-Jul-11 | **26** |
| M - Tier 1 - Nathan | 19-Oct-11 | **51** |
| | **Number of minutes** | **284** |
| **PHILIPS** | | |
| **Interviewee** | **Date of interview** | **Duration (mins.)** |
| F - Tier 2 - Susan | 28-Jul-11 | **59** |
| M - Tier 1 - Thomas | 28-Jul-11 | **60** |
| M - Tier 2 - Ian | 01-Aug-11 | **34** |
| M - Tier 1 - Koby | 27-Jul-11 | **44** |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| F - Tier 2 - Nadine | 28-Jul-11 | **70** |
| M - Tier 1 - Yuri | 01-Aug-11 | **81** |
| | **Number of minutes** | **348** |
| **THALES** | | |
| **Interviewee** | **Date of interview** | **Duration (mins.)** |
| F - Tier 2 - Nellie | 19-Aug-11 | **47** |
| F - Tier 1 - Emma | 19-Jul-11 | **63** |
| M - Tier 2 -Eddie | 25-Aug-11 | **36** |
| M - Tier 1 - Lain | 19-Jul-11 | **52** |
| F - Tier 2 - Lianne | 19-Jul-11 | **51** |
| F - Tier 2 -Siobhan | 19-Oct-11 | **52** |
| | **Number of minutes** | **301** |
| **METRO TRAINS** | | |
| **Interviewee** | **Date of interview** | **Duration (mins.)** |
| M - Tier 1 - Hugh | 19-Aug-11 | **63** |
| F - Tier 2 -Olivia | 19-Jul-11 | **35** |
| M - Tier 2 -Yves | 25-Aug-11 | **46** |
| M - Tier 1 - Nathaniel | 19-Jul-11 | **39** |
| F - Tier 2 - Naomi | 19-Jul-11 | **44** |
| F - Tier 2 -Daphne | 19-Oct-11 | **49** |
| | **Number of minutes** | **276** |
| | **Total number of minutes** | **1209** |
| | **Total number of hours** | **20.15** |

**Table 5.2: In-depth personal interview dates and time period – leaders in organisations**

For the purposes of the interviews there were 14 open-ended questions (see ***Appendix D***) that were informed by an initial review of the literature (Argyris, 1997, 2002; Goleman et al., 2004; Mintzberg, 2004a; Schön, 1995; Shulman, 1992; Shulman, 2005), and intended to explore management education themes relating to pedagogical content and method, and impact, especially in regard to change in behaviour or worldview. Through the questions I was also aiming to understand the context within which participants were working, and the nature of other training programmes that might have been impactful. Questions were designed with Barbara Czarniawska's (1999) approach to methodology in mind. A qualitative narrative technique was used in this primary data collection process whereby evidence is collected through collaboration and negotiation with participants in the research study. Thus, in my questions, I was highly conscious to the idea of invoking a narrative response in striving towards rich contextual understanding. Underlying the entire interviewing process, and constantly at the top of my mind, were the two key pedagogical tools – content and method.

The questions also involved the impact of the programme on participants, and ideas on teaching and learning, inviting narrative-type responses so that a more in-depth understanding of experiences and their meaning could emerge. Care was taken to ensure that participants would be prompted to talk

in detail about their experiences without constant interaction or instigation from the researcher – most particularly by asking them to tell a story or by asking the same question in a number of ways. In this way, it is believed that the participants would be more accurately divulging the meaning they have gained out of their learning experiences both during and after the programme.

Each leader was interviewed in-depth, and encouraged to provide 'stories' of their experiences in other impactful training programmes as well. They were also asked other questions about their workplace context as a leader within the organisation. This was done in order to elicit meaning and detail about the context within which they worked and the extent to which learnings from the programme had impacted. This approach provided depth to the interview process in terms of the meaning that was elicited through the narratives that were invoked. The interviews are important because they provide detailed and in-depth feedback about the content and method of a management education experiential programme that has similar elements to the Harvard case study method (such as use of story, interaction, active learning, use of real-life scenarios, group work, and sharing of experiences).

#### *5.4.2.3 Data analysis*

Narrative analysis was the chief method of analysis of the 24 interviews. Each of the interviews was [26]transcribed by a professional transcriber in Sydney, after which each was interrogated for aspects relating to pedagogical content and method, and manually coded. Although the main emphasis of the empirical work was to undertake a critique of the Zoo-based Hardwired Humans leadership programme, data was also collected which provided the context within which the participants worked and their insights into other training programmes they had attended. The data collected was thus organised into three main categories within which various themes emerged through an interpretive 'lens' in the data analysis process:

1. Workplace context – What is the working place context of participants in terms of most challenging problem faced, hopes and expectations, past training experiences and the expectations of organisations about training (questions 11, 12 and 13)?
2. Experience of Zoo-based human instincts programme – What did they think of the human instincts programme in terms of content and method, and what other ideas did they have about teaching leaders at the Zoo (questions 1-6, question 9 and question 14)?
3. Other impactful training programmes – What other training programmes have they experienced, and what has been most impactful in terms of changing thinking and/or behaviour or has stimulated or challenged (questions 7, 8 and 10)?

[26] The professionally transcribed recordings of interviews were spot-checked against the actual recordings by myself.

When I first began to look at narrative analysis, I realised the complexity involved. I knew I needed to look beneath the stories being told, and interpret what was being said at a deeper level. This was done through careful attention, via focused observation, to the emotion with which the stories were relayed, and most particularly, by constantly filtering the data for the twin pedagogical aspects of content and method. I realised that it would suit my approach to the study at hand, as it would enable me to understand how the participants had made sense of their learning experience at the Zoo.

#### *5.4.2.4 Emergence of themes*

The themes were derived through deep analysis of the findings – elements of content and method that had worked well or had not worked well were drawn out and translated into themes for what were considered to work well in a new kind of Harvard case study method. An initial set of themes was developed, but they evolved over time through discussions with Andrew O'Keeffe, and through discussion with my supervisor, Richard Badham. As my thoughts shifted, it became a more refined set of themes that would directly inform the dialogue with the practitioner about pedagogy for leadership. ***Figure 5.2*** shows the interactive sequence involved in identifying the themes (and then prototype design principles) at various stages throughout the study, and in this instance discussion occurred in the 1st phase.

## 5.5 Dialogue with practitioner

Since the 1950s, there have been many criticisms of the lack of academic–practitioner dialogue (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014; Empson, 2013; Hughes, O'Regan & Wornham, 2008; Rynes, Bartunek & Daft, 2001), both in the literature and in the general reflections on academic knowledge, and this is my primary reason for including this component in my research method. This divide between theory and practice, or rigor and relevance is a critical roadblock to developing effective MBA education practices, including pedagogy. Chen, Jim Wu & Wu (2013) suggest that in looking back at papers attempting to bridge the rigor-relevance 'gap', the common element in finding solutions is collaboration. Several scholars see dialogue across the divide as the ideal starting point in resolving these shortcomings (Beech, MacIntosh & MacLean, 2010; Chen et al., 2013; Dull, 2010; MacIntosh, Beech, Antonacopoulou & Sims, 2012), and argue that the tensions and differences between the two are in themselves valuable to explore (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014). Without collaborative efforts to work more closely with business practice, business schools will find it difficult to move forward constructively, as stated by Worrell (2009, p. 129):

> Knowledge will win when business school academics become less distant from the world of business practice and commit themselves as active participants working to impact the future of management practice.

The dialogical approach – being a bridge between myself (as an academic) and a management education practitioner - enabled me to reflect on my learnings through continuous interaction and dialogue over a four-year period with a highly experienced practitioner, providing a wealth of useful material and meaningful outcomes. The experience and knowledge that the practitioner had built up over time provided powerful insights about pedagogy for leaders that I would not have been able to access without his participation in dialogue, and my experience as researcher and academic provided him with the opportunity to build insight into the broader context within which pedagogy had developed, and where it was headed in MBA education.

This integrative and cyclical dialogue process, involving a two-way learning process, has synergies with the work of Russian philosopher Mikhail Bakhtin (2010) in his publication, *The Dialogic Imagination*, wherein he emphasises the differences between the monologic and dialogic work of literature. He explains that dialogic literature is constantly in flux, changing as it informs and is informed by other literary works. In this way, both the current work of a writer is influenced by past works, and past works are transformed in a two-way process. In the same way, I felt that this two-way dialogical process could enhance the co-production of knowledge and understanding between practitioner O'Keeffe and myself as researcher. This collaborative and open sharing of experience provided the possibility to enhance relevance (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014; Beech et al., 2010) in learning about appropriate pedagogy for leaders, and at the same time to resolve practical problems (MacIntosh et al., 2012).

Furthermore, our interaction possessed the potential, through exposure to different perspectives and backgrounds, to act as a catalyst for deeper levels of learning, self-reflection, and possible transformative experiences. Bartunek & Rynes (2014), for instance, suggest that the underlying deep tensions between practitioner and academic – which they ascribe to differing logics, time dimensions, communication practices, conceptions of rigour and relevance, and interests and incentives – can provide invaluable insights if the process is carefully managed.

Figure 5.2 maps, with timelines, the three phases in the development of design principles for the neo-Harvard case study method. Phase 1 – the processing of emerging themes - centred on the interactive discussion and review of emerging themes associated with the Harvard case study method, the past MBA education themes, the future MBA education themes. This first phase concluded with an empirical critique of themes. Phase 2 – the formulating and refining of prototype design principles - started with an integration of themes that became a feed into the documentation of a 1st version of design principles and a model. Interactive discussion focused on design principles and further revisiting of themes during this phase. A 2nd version of design principles and a model was a key intermediate output of the phase. The continuing cycles of interactive discussion of design principles coupled with revisiting of themes was a core part of the process that yield versions 3 and 4

of revised design principles and an updated model. The 3rd phase – operationalising design principles – again involved interactive discussion of design principles coupled with 'final' revisiting of themes.

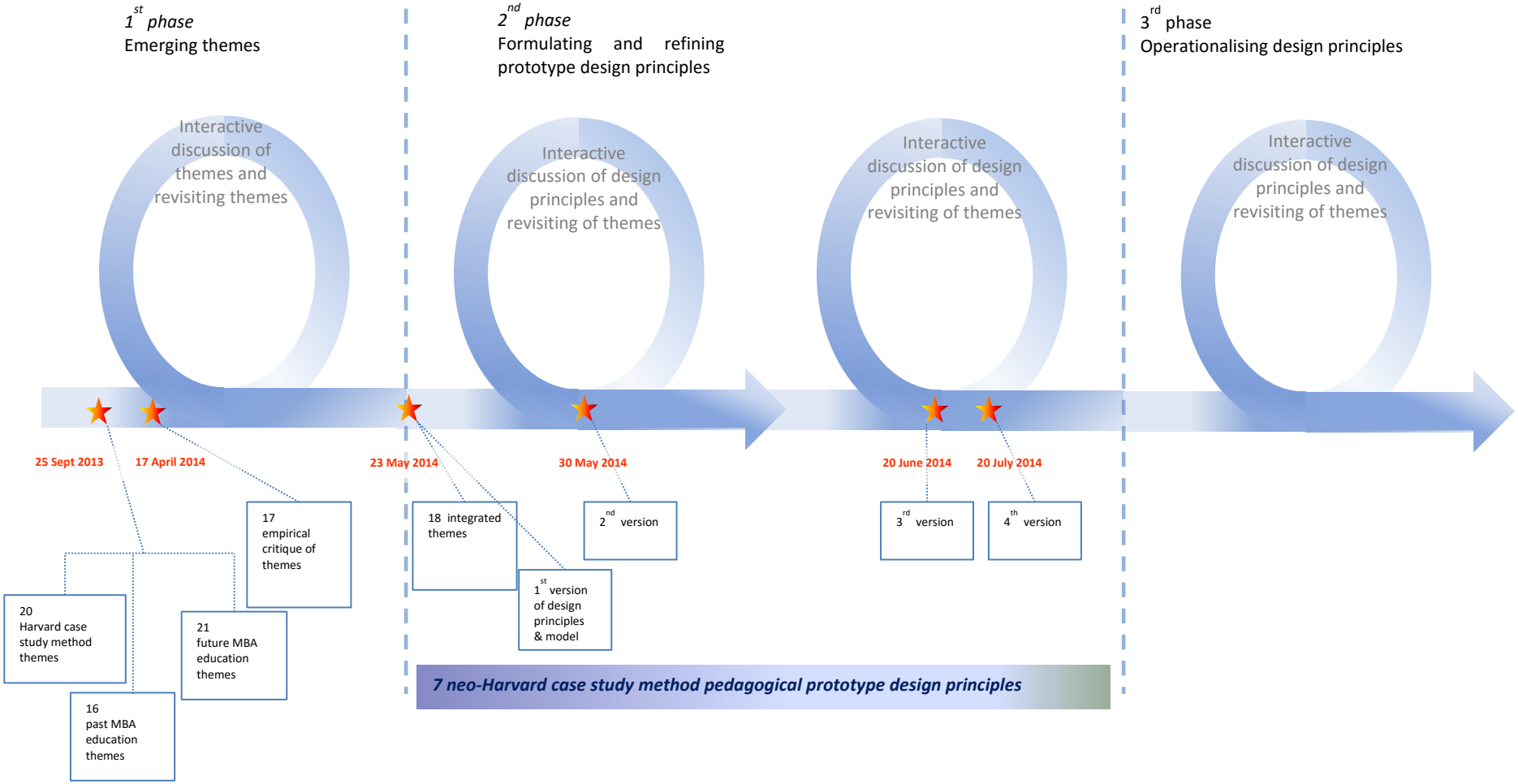
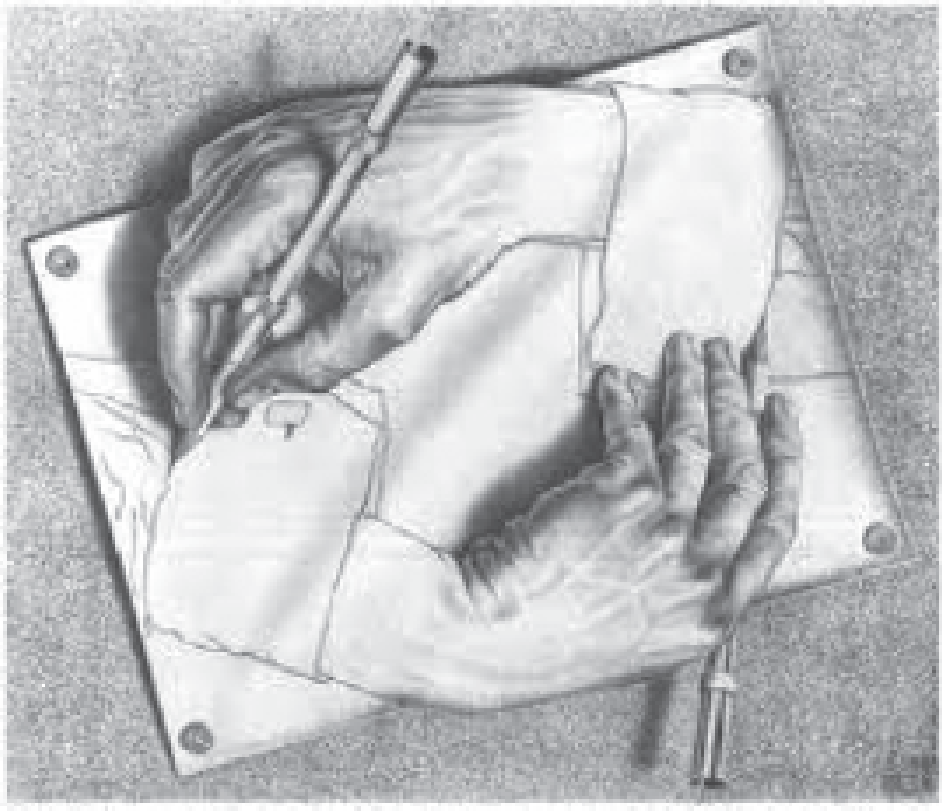



**Figure 5-2: The 'cycle' involved in formulating themes and then design principles for the neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype**

In *Engaged scholarship*, Van de Ven (2007) emphasises the significance of the relationship between theory and practice, and the importance of collaboration with specific stakeholders in the research process in resolving complicated social issues. He defines this process as 'engaged scholarship', which is:

> … a participative form of research for obtaining the advice and perspectives of key stakeholders (researchers, users, clients, sponsors, and practitioners) to understand a complex social problem (Van der Ven, 2007, p. ix).

In his view, the different kinds of knowledge that emerge from this process produce outcomes that are far more prized than if each were working on their own. Interest in each other's form of knowledge and of wanting to engage in solving research problems in a collaborative manner is appropriately represented by the drawing of two hands working together in ***Figure 5.3*** (MacIntosh et al., 2012).



Source: 'Drawing Hands' by MC Escher. © 2012 The M.C. Escher Company-Holland. All rights reserved, www.mcescher.com. Drawing accessed from (MacIntosh et al., 2012).

**Figure 5-3: 'Drawing Hands' by MC Escher**

As can be seen from ***Figure 5.2***, dialogue with the practitioner took place over the three stages during which the neo-Harvard case study method prototype design principles evolved. It included a highly interactive sequence throughout not only with O'Keeffe, but with Badham as well. After each stage in formulating the principles, there was discussion which aided their reformulation in a cyclical

process. There was also a constant cross-referencing of new design principles with the literature view and interview data bases.

### 5.5.1 Selection

In the forging of a partnership with O'Keeffe late in 2010, he had indicated that he would be interested in working closely with me in the research process. As a practitioner and owner of a management education consultancy, and the deliverer of a neo-Harvard case study method type of leadership programme, he was my selected candidate from whom I could learn about pedagogy. He was able to provide a new 'lens', that of evolutionary psychology, to the teaching process. His almost 10 years as practitioner and owner of Hardwired Humans, and his solid industry experience, had equipped him with deep knowledge about what pedagogical components worked and what did not work in teaching about leadership. Despite a dip in the management consultancy market (IBISWorld, 2015) over the period of existence of Hardwired Humans, his company had grown strongly and consistently.

At the same time, through our discussions he would be questioned and held accountable for his choice of pedagogical method at close range, providing him with time to reflect and think about how he could strengthen his programme. The dialogue that took place between practitioner and researcher is of exceptional value, as it is seldom that a practitioner has the time or inclination to invest in researching and evaluating his own pedagogical methods or the pedagogical research of others. Some of the elements of his teaching approach reflect those of the Harvard case study method, and his insights with regards to what works well and what does not are valued. Through this dialogue, there is value in terms of his contribution to:

1. identifying possibilities for the improvement of his own Hardwired Humans Zoo programme (for example, ways to remember the human instincts, participants drawing more on the experience of each other, more of a focus on development and understanding of the self;
2. providing insights into his own teaching methods regarding content and delivery, through the use of narrative inquiry where he explains himself in his own words which provides greater depth and explains the meaning that this involves;
3. sharing his wisdom and experience through an engaged scholarship approach that is employed as methodology, in the process of developing a set of design principles for a new kind of Harvard case study method – and a new prototype.

At the same time he could glean much from the insights provided by the literature reviews, and the empirical evaluation of the Hardwired Humans programme; he had the opportunity to talk about some of his ideas for change, to some extent possibly using the meetings as a kind of 'sounding board' opportunity.

### 5.5.2 Data collection

In the dialogue with Andrew O'Keeffe interviews and discussions took place over a four-year period. In this series of interviews with the practitioner, dialogue took place regularly, which encouraged collaboration and the co-production and development of a set of design principles used to inform the construction of a post Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype to be used in an MBA setting.

In total there were 19 dedicated interviews, which took place with the practitioner over the 2011–2014 period, either held at MGSM in the Sydney CBD or at North Ryde, Sydney. O'Keeffe spent almost 23 hours in these interviews with me, engaging in dialogue about various pedagogical issues in a focused fashion (see ***Table 5.3*** for the timeline regarding the personal interview process). This does not include other forms of interaction I had with him at the two-day workshops that I attended at Taronga Zoo in 2011 and 2013 – and which are also reflected in the Table – or the related leadership conferences to which I was invited. In the interview interactions the learning was a two-way process, and in each set of interviews there was a focus on a particular challenge:

1) co-developing a story of Hardwired Humans and its most valued pedagogical content and method components;
2) outlining O'Keeffe's experience in working with the four organisations - Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains, and Thales - whose representatives were interviewed in the empirical critique of the Zoo programme;
3) reflections on and rating of desirable neo-Harvard case study method themes from the literature review and the empirical study of attendees of the Hardwired Humans programme;
4) co-developing a set of pedagogical design principles and model for a neo-Harvard case study method prototype; and
5) operationalising the design principle model: co-developing the pedagogical prototype based on these principles for the MBA context.

The findings of the first 1)–(4) are discussed in ***Chapter 8*** (and the story of Hardwired Humans in ***Chapter 6***), and the findings of (5) are discussed in ***Chapter 10***.

## Meetings with Andrew O'Keeffe

(1) developing the story of Hardwired Humans and its teaching methods (8 interviews)
(2) practitioner's own critique of the Zoo programme (6 interviews)
(3) discussion about design principles drawn from the literature reviews and the empirical critique of the Zoo programme (6 interviews)
(4) formulating the master set of pedagogical design principles (4 interviews)
(5) developing the neo Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype for the MBA module (8 interviews)

| | | | | | | | | | Interview hrs |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **2010** | | | | | | | | | |
| Sept | Meeting with AOK for the first time | | | | | | | | |
| 14-Dec | Meeting with companies re collaboration possibilities | | | | | | | | |
| **2011** | | | | | | | | | |
| 19-20 Jan | TARONGA ZOO WORKSHOP - LEADERSHIP PROGRAMME | | | | | | | | |
| 14-Feb | Feedback on Symantec Zoo Workshop, email feedback, LSI training, more training, and choice of interviewees | 1 | 2 | | | | | | 3/4 |
| 30-Jun | Discussion of interview process, evidence of HH success, end goal details, evaluation possibilities | 1 | | | | | | | 3/4 |
| 7-Jul | LEADERSHIP FORUM, TARONGA ZOO | | | | | | | | |
| 5-Sep | Empirical research - questions for AOK (Q1-5) regarding HH programme and story | 1 | 2 | | | | | | 1 1/2 |
| **2012** | | | | | | | | | |
| 4-Apr | Empirical research - questions for AOK (Q6-12) regarding HH programme and story | 1 | 2 | | | | | | 1 1/4 |
| | AOK BOOK LAUNCH, SYDNEY | | | | | | | | |
| **2013** | | | | | | | | | |
| 15-Mar | Feedback on empirical report, discussion of measures/evidence for HH story | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | 1 1/2 |
| 23-24 July | TARONGA ZOO WORKSHOP - LEADERSHIP PROGRAMME | | | | | | | | |
| 20-Sep | Feedback on Harvard case study method literture review | | 2 | 3 | | | | | 3/4 |
| 25-Sep | Feedback on reports of past and future MBA literature reviews and rating of design principles for all literature reviews | | 2 | 3 | | | | | 1 1/4 |
| Sept-Feb 2014 | WRITING TWO HUMAN INSTINCTS THALES CASE STUDIES FOR AOK | | | | | | | | |
| **2014** | | | | | | | | | |
| 11-Apr | More details of HH story and teaching methods, discuss perceptions of empirical research | 1 | | 3 | | | | | 2 |
| 17-Apr | Rating of design principles from empirical interview research, idea of a new MBA module | | | 3 | | 5 | | | 1 |
| 24-Apr | Hardwired Humans programme details and new MBA modul | | | | | 5 | | | 1 |
| 9-May | Further discussion about design principles and new MBA module | | | 3 | | 5 | | | 1 1/4 |
| 23-May | Discussion of list of 18 principles, and creation of 1st version of a design principles model | | | | 4 | | | | 1 1/2 |
| 30-May | Refining to formulate 2nd version of design principle model, main findings from empirical, evaluation for new MBA programme | | | | 4 | 5 | | | 1 1/4 |
| 2-Jun | A MORNING WITH JANE GOODALL ON LEADERSHIP, SYDNEY | | | | | | | | |
| 20-Jun | Developing 3rd version of design principle model, MBA programme outcomes, changes to HH programme | | | | 4 | 5 | | | 1 1/4 |
| 18-Jul | Refining and clarifying to form 4th version of design principle model | | | | 4 | | | | 1 |
| 22-Aug | Clarification of teaching methods, content, prioritising of teaching methods (list) | 1 | | | | | | | 3/4 |
| 5-Sep | Rest of prioritised teaching methods (list), ideas for new model and how to go about putting it together | 1 | | | | 5 | | | 1 1/4 |
| 10-Oct | New MBA programme | | | | | 5 | | | 1 1/2 |
| 17-Oct | New MBA programme | | | | | 5 | | | 1 |
| | | | | | | | | *Total number of hours* | 22 2/3 |

**Table 5.3: Meetings with practitioner, Andrew O'Keeffe, 2010–2014**

As can be seen from ***Table 5.3***, discussion regarding each of the five areas took place in several interviews over time. There were overlaps in terms of the useful data that emerged in the meetings that occurred with O'Keeffe, some of which helped to clarify the findings, and some of which helped to extend the data into a far richer format. For instance, although the story of Hardwired Humans was sketched out in the initial interviews with O'Keeffe, there were discussions further down the line which helped to further flesh out the case study of this leadership development consultancy, providing a unique insight into the philosophy behind O'Keeffe's approach and the way that he approached leadership education from a pedagogical perspective.

One of the key challenges in such dialogic interaction with practitioners is the constraint of time. Frequently, O'Keeffe was challenged in his commitment of time to this project as the business was flourishing, and his programme was already working well so there was not a strong urgent business imperative for change. It was a challenge for me personally because I tend to like to have things organised, and an open-ended discussion process was difficult as I needed to be patient and wait to see what emerged in a process that was constantly shifting and changing as new data emerged.

1) Co-developing a story of Hardwired Humans and its most valued pedagogical content and method components (8 interviews)

The details of the journey that Andrew O'Keeffe had undergone in his Hardwired Humans business – and his pedagogical approach over time – were discussed in a number of meetings over the period that the dialogue took place (2011–2014). There were three meetings in 2011, one each in 2012 and 2013, and another three in 2014. In 2014, further pedagogical changes that he had employed in the business were discussed in three meetings. Thus in that four-year process, there were discussions at some point in every year, and the pedagogical changes and additions that had been introduced by O'Keeffe were tracked and discussed in some detail. O'Keeffe was very keen to have his leadership programme written about, and despite being time-poor, was always very interested in sharing his insights and progress. This was particularly important as the company developed over time, adopting several different strategies and teaching approaches.

(2) Outlining O'Keeffe's experience in working with the four organisations - Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains, and Thales (6 interviews)

Feedback about Andrew O'Keeffe's impressions about the Symantec Zoo Programme which was run in January 2011 chiefly took place over the 2011–2012 period, but the bulk of the formal open-ended questions occurring in two interviews, one towards the end of 2011 and one in the first half of 2012. The interview questionnaire can be found in ***Appendix E,*** revealing the 12 questions that were asked of O'Keeffe. Similarly to the approach in the design of the questionnaire for the in-depth interviews with organisational leaders, Czarniawska's (1999) method of eliciting 'stories of the field' was used,

and the questions were delivered with the intention of prompting O'Keeffe to describe his experiences in context. O'Keeffe gave further feedback in four subsequent interviews on the empirical study conducted with participants of his programme and on each of the literature reviews.

(3) Reflections on and rating of desirable neo-Harvard case study method themes from the literature review and the empirical study of attendees of the Hardwired Humans programme (6 interviews)

This involved discussions with O'Keeffe about the three literature reviews and the empirical study of the Zoo Programme. In each case, we would meet and discuss the main principles that had stood out as important to each of us, and we would together negotiate to isolate those that could stand as a set of design principles for each of them. In each case we rated the list that was compiled (in relation to the performance of Hardwired Humans) in an effort to further prioritise the importance of these design principles. The first ones took place late in 2013, focussing on the three literature reviews, and then early in 2014 the same process took place with the empirical study. There were further related discussions, which looked at what had stood out most in terms of the empirical study that O'Keeffe might incorporate into – or take out of – his Hardwired Humans programme going forward. In terms of dialogue about the design principles, prior to giving O'Keeffe the literature reviews I asked him to look for principles that stood out for him along the way. I reminded him of this constantly throughout the process, so that when we met he would have been thinking about the importance of design principles. The conflict was that he was interested in improving his programme, and did not have any vested interest in developing principles that could specifically inform a neo-Harvard case study method prototype, so it was a constant balancing act to achieve success for both of us.

(4) Co-developing a set of pedagogical design principles and model for the neo-Harvard case study method prototype (4 interviews)

A total of 18 design principles were formulated by drawing on each of the set of design principles from the three literature reviews and the empirical study, some of which overlapped or were similar to each other. The 18 principles had also been partly derived from the ratings that O'Keeffe and I had provided in previous meetings about each segment of work, wherein each were prioritised according to how we felt Hardwired Humans had performed. Gradually, over four meetings held close together in mid-2014, these 18 principles were prioritised, grouped and regrouped, and gradually whittled down to be used to develop a pedagogical model comprising a master set of seven prototype design principles. This involved a cyclical process of shifting and grouping, and grouping and regrouping, which continued before, during and after the discussions with O'Keeffe.

(5) Operationalising the design principle model: co-developing the pedagogical prototype based on these principles for the MBA context (8 interviews)

Over the course of six meetings with O'Keeffe in 2014, interspersed between discussions about other issues, the idea of developing a pedagogical prototype for an MBA module at MGSM was deliberated. This was then followed by two meetings, which took place towards the end of 2014, during which there was an exclusive focus on developing a pedagogical prototype for the MBA module. This prototype was directly informed by the master set of prototype principles, which were reflected in the new model that we had co-developed. The idea was to transform the existing Hardwired Humans model so that it would reflect each of the design principles, and was suitable to teach in an MBA format at MGSM, most likely in an Organisational Behaviour (OB) module. In the meetings, O'Keeffe and I tasked each other to separately review the existing Hardwired Humans programme, and upon meeting again, to share ideas on how to include the master set of pedagogical principles reflected in the new pedagogical model. Once we had done this, and reached agreement on the way in which the principles could be included, the details were then used to develop a new Hardwired Humans programme that could be taught as part of an MBA programme.

### 5.5.3 Analysis

The data collected in each of the sets of interviews was interrogated with regard to each of the five areas laid out above[27]. As themes emerged from each area through narrative analysis, they were captured and illustrated with narrative-type responses, aimed ultimately to inform the set of design principles that encapsulated pedagogical content and method.

The first area, that of developing the story of Hardwired Humans and most valued teaching methods, involved analysing the stories and data that O'Keeffe provided, and as this changed over time the Hardwired Humans case study was gradually transformed into a most up-to-date narrative, providing insight into its key drivers influencing how the business had changed in terms of its pedagogical techniques and strategies. Each of the versions of the case study that developed over time about the story of the business was sent to O'Keeffe for his perusal and he was invited to provide me with track changes where necessary through the review process in the Office Word computer programme. In this way a comprehensive story was written up.

The second section involves outlining O'Keeffe's experience in working with the four organisations - Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains involved analysing content and delivery aspects that emerged from the 12 structured questions that he was asked (questions 3, 4, 5, 12 in particular).

[27] 1) co-developing a story of Hardwired Humans and most valued pedagogical content and method components; 2) outlining O'Keeffe's experience in working with the four organisations - Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains; 3) reflections on and rating of desirable neo-Harvard case study themes from the literature review and the empirical study of attendees of the Hardwired Humans programme; 4) co-developing a set of pedagogical design principles and model for the neo-Harvard case study method prototype; and (5) operationalising the design principle model.

In the third area, the aim was to chart early insights about reflections on and themes emerging from the literature reviews and the empirical critique of the Zoo programme, O'Keeffe and I used a rating system to determine which themes stood out for us individually in regard to how Hardwired Humans had performed, enabling this to be captured in the analysis of these interviews. Each of us had read the chapters before we met, and we used the opportunity to discuss the issues we felt most strongly about. In the instance that we rated something very differently, we would discuss what our interpretation of the issue and why we felt the way we did about it.

The discussions each of us had previously had in earlier interviews fed strongly into the fourth area, formulating the master set of prototype design principles. By now we were both familiar with the material, and prior to our set of meetings I had drawn up a list of 18 themes reflecting those that we had together previously deemed most important. This process by which these were whittled down to seven occurred through continual interaction and discussion between myself and the practitioner, taking care to elevate the most important pedagogical aspects, and avoid leaving out critical issues.

In the final area that entailed dialogue with the practitioner, that of developing the pedagogical prototype for the MBA module, the current Hardwired Humans programme was analysed by both parties, and ideas for change were reflected upon prior to meeting up. This was a challenging process, as the programme had already proven highly successful, and within the constraints of having to shorten the programme to suit the MBA setting, O'Keeffe was hesitant to change much relating to content and method.

## 5.6 Summary

The research methods I have used in this chapter provide the mechanisms through which to mine for rich and contextual data relating to pedagogical content and method, the twin tools to informing a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype. There are four forms of data collection, one of them involving secondary research in the form of three in-depth literature reviews which provide a theoretical base - connected to the theoretical framework and to the rest of the study. The literature review of the Harvard case study method represents the heart of the study as it provides a theoretical base from which to move forward in the search for innovative pedagogical approaches. The themes emerging out of these theoretical reviews directly inform the secondary research process, and contribute to a set of prototype design principles informing the neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype.

The other forms of data collection involve primary research of a qualitative and constructivist nature, employing a narrative methodology to capture the 'realities' and meaning relating to pedagogical experiences of those being interviewed. The first form of primary research involved a critique of a management education programme being run at Taronga Zoo. In interviewing 24 participants from

four different Australian organisations, involving over more than 20 hours of interview time, I was able to invoke rich contextual responses. These were most often in the narrative form I was looking for, providing me with detailed feedback about experiences of pedagogical content and method components in the programme. Again, themes emerged which ultimately informed the neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype in the same way as the literature review themes.

The second form of data collection was participant observation of this same Zoo programme, enabling me to experience the learning first-hand as if I were a participant. This invaluable process provided the opportunity to understand the intricacies of the programme far more than I would have if I had only interviewed other participants, as I was able to detect for myself the undertones and dynamics that are often difficult to explain.

Dialogue with the practitioner was the third form of primary research, involving collaboration in finding solutions in the research process. As a highly experienced practitioner, Andrew O'Keeffe provided practical insights and knowledge that I could not have gained easily elsewhere, but it was the co-construction of new knowledge that I found to be most precious for the purposes of this thesis. We met in the middle of the 'divide', drawing on the themes from the literature review and empirical study, and formulated a set of prototype principles that we could practically use to then develop our final product: a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype. In this way, through complementing his strong practice-based experience with my emerging academic background we committed to together make a contribution towards effective MBA education practice.

In the next chapter the 'content' background to the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme is provided, which involves looking at the discipline of evolutionary psychology and how it applies to management. It also provides context around the evolution of the Hardwired Humans business, and the ways in which some of the principles of evolutionary psychology have been applied in practice.

# PART TWO: Case Study – Hardwired Humans

# 6 Background to the Hardwired Humans Programme

> [Our theories of human nature have the power to affect, dramatically, the way we relate to each other. And maybe even to ourselves. (Barash, 2002)

From the time I first learned to read, I was deeply intrigued by two books stored on my parent's mantelpiece, one with the cover showing a slightly dishevelled looking and almost naked man behind bars and the other a sort of man-chimpanzee staring out at me with half-closed eyes, looking as if he knew everything there was to know. I was too young to understand these books, but always wondered what they were about. By chance, these books now fall within the subject of my study in this chapter, and have made for particularly interesting reading some forty years later. They are *The Human Zoo* (1969) and *The Naked Ape* (1967) penned by Desmond Morris, and they provide the backdrop to my understanding of the emergence of evolutionary psychology as a discipline. Some writers lament that these publications and others like them were not more profoundly valued at the time they were published (Degler, 1991).

With its focus on the discipline of evolutionary psychology, this chapter forms part of a set of chapters that explores and evaluates a successful case – the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme. It begins here with the intellectual background to the programme, and continues to describe the programme in some detail. In the chapter that follows an evaluation of the programme is described, and in later chapters the programme is modified to become a prototype suitable for MBA education. Thus this chapter provides background to the programme, as well as justification of the intellectual credibility of the content, and how this has also been used to inform the method of delivery. Evolutionary psychology provides the first scientific argument against the 'tabula rasa' notion of the human race where the human mind is passively shaped by culture, replacing it with the idea that 'our modern skulls house a stone age mind' (Cosmides & Tooby, 1997). Evolutionary psychologists argue that human behaviour is in response to the 'adaptive' problems of the ancient past, and that the mind has evolved in the same way as the body through natural selection. There is a range of innate behaviours explained in this way, with most of them based on survival, reproduction, and social issues such as co-operation and conflict. This discipline draws on rigorous testing methods in psychology, neuroscience, palaeontology, comparative analysis of other species, and archaeology, and despite methodological criticisms of this approach, evolutionary psychology has been praised for the insightful nature into human behaviour provided by the range of embedded instinctual tendencies that it has uncovered (Nicholson, 2000b; Pinker, 2002; Wright, 1996). The foundations and development of this approach are described at length in ***Appendix F***.

In the first part of this chapter, the application of evolutionary psychology to management education is discussed, with the main scholarly contributors in this area identified and Professor Nigel Nicholson from London Business School in particular. This is followed by a portrayal of the inception and

growth of Hardwired Humans, and its relationship with Nicholson. In this chapter there is a strong focus on how this discipline of evolutionary psychology, which is positioned to become a unifying mechanism of the natural and social sciences, offers pedagogical mechanisms and insights such as narratives and metaphors in terms of the story of ourselves and our behaviour as human beings that is inherent in this discipline.

## 6.1 Applying evolutionary psychology to organisations and management

### 6.1.1 What is the main idea behind it?

The idea of drawing on evolutionary psychology to make sense of behaviour within organisations is argued to provide insight into new ways of designing and managing organisations in the future in ways that are more closely aligned to human nature as conceptualised in evolutionary psychology terms (Nicholson, 1998a, 2000b). However, in the late 1990s Pierce & White (1999, p. 844) argued that there were few solid examples of this happening, and that 'management researchers have not considered evolution as anything more than a metaphor'. More recently Nicholson & White (2006, p. 111) advocate that it was only in the subsequent decade that well-known and recognised scholars of organisational behaviour began to write explicitly about how Darwinian theory, and noted:

> The relationship between the 'new Darwinism' and the field of Organizational Behavior is in its infancy, but revealing rich potential and intriguing future challenges.

It was the London Business School academic Nigel Nicholson who has most prominently challenged management scholars and practitioners to seriously consider evolutionary psychology as a tool for understanding organisations. Despite the slow uptake of evolutionary psychology in organisational behaviour, and unlike its application in many closely related disciplines such as sociology and psychology (Nicholson & White, 2006), Nicholson spearheaded the growth of this new area, arguing that it has 'potency as a paradigm' (Nicholson, 1997b) for three reasons: it is general and provides an account of human nature that integrates the nature and nurture dimensions; there is increasing support from a variety of realms that supports evolutionary processes and outcomes; and it involves asking questions about familiar social occurrences. Nicholson suggests that the challenge is to question our beliefs about human nature and to tap on the new framework provided by evolutionary psychology in order to move towards practices that:

> … uphold the dignity of our essential natures and individuality, and in so doing help us rediscover the meaning of community in organizational life (Nicholson, 1997b, p. 1074).

### 6.1.2 Scholars in support of evolutionary psychology theories

Since interest escalated in evolutionary psychology as a discipline during the late 1980s, a number of scholars have written about how evolutionary psychology principles can be applied to the field of organisations and management. In the early 1990s, Studd & Garriker (1991) looked at sexual

harassment in organisations whilst other early publications on the subject were scribed by scholars such as Bernhard & Glantz (1992), Salter (1995), Waldron (1998), Pierce & White (1995, 1999) and Nicholson (1997a, 1997b, 1997c, 1998a, 1998b). During this time there were also contributions by Markóczy & Goldberg (1997; 1998; 1999). Many of these scholars argue that although the concept of evolution is not new in organisational and basic psychology theory, its implications for applications of psychology in organisations is a novel concept.

One of Nicholson's publications, *Executive Instinct* (Nicholson, 2000b) explicitly spells out how management can work in tune with the Darwinian conception of human nature by merely being aware of what motivates people and managing them accordingly. Soon after that, Harvard Business School scholars Paul Lawrence and Nitin Nohria (2002) portrayed their understanding of what motivates human beings in *Driven: How Human Nature Shapes Our Choices*. They explain that behaviour is shaped by a 'four-drive framework': the drive to acquire, to bond, to learn, and to defend. Since Darwin proposed his theories, the concept of human nature had been largely neglected by the social sciences and the early attempts to misuse evolutionary biology to justify racism and gender discrimination in particular had resulted in a 140-year gap where an examination of human nature was taboo:

> We think the time is now ripe to reinvigorate the quest for a unified theory of human behavior that is consilient across the natural and social sciences (Lawrence & Nohria, 2002, p. preface).

This work highlights the priority placed on a new understanding of human nature. The authors underline the importance of new social institutions being founded with an entirely different conception of human nature than that which has predominated in contemporary times i.e. the neoclassical view of human nature where humans focus on maximising their own self-interest. They conclude that although humans are partly driven by self-interest they are also motivated by other innate drives, and they see this as a model that can apply to organisational behaviour.

After the start of the new millennium, Nicholson and a number of his colleagues (Nicholson, 2000a, 2005a, 2005b, 2006, 2008, 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2012; Nicholson & White, 2006; Spisak, Nicholson & Van Vugt, 2011) continued to work extensively in this area, as did other scholars such as Van Vugt who collaborated with various others to write about how evolutionary psychology can provide insight about leadership and group behaviour (Spisak, et al., 2011; Van Vugt, 2006; Van Vugt & Ahuja, 2011, 2010; Van Vugt, 2008; Van Vugt & Ronay, 2013). Other scholars who published in the first two decades of the 21st century included: Hill & Buss (2006) who wrote about envy and positional bias; Colarelli (2003; 2006) who looked at the management of human resources and sex composition in organisations; Tooby, Cosmides & Price (2006) who looked at the psychology of exchange in organisations; and Sewell (2004a, 2004b) who provided critiques of the role of evolutionary psychology as it applied to management and organisational behaviour.

Soon after the mid-1990s, Nicholson became the leading advocate of the field, and began to publish his findings on how evolutionary psychology could be applied to the field of organisational behaviour and management, in the belief that

> EP seeks to understand and identify the common biogenetic themes of human nature which underlie the manifest diversity of ways of living (Nicholson, 1997b, p. 1060).

After several early works (Nicholson, 1997a, 1997b, 1997c), his ground-breaking *Harvard Business Review* article appeared, 'How Hardwired Is Human Behavior?' (Nicholson, 1998a), followed by a seminal publication *Executive Instinct – Managing the Human Animal in the Information Age* (Nicholson, 2000b). In these works, Nicholson proposes that evolutionary psychology offers a framework that can enable organisations to be designed in sync with the ancestral psychological architecture of human beings. However, the way that organisations currently operate, especially with trends such as job insecurity and outsourcing, this works against the most positive aspects of our human nature and exacerbates the worst features (Nicholson, 1997b). ***Table 6.1*** highlights some of the common evolutionary themes he has identified that have implications for managers.

| If people are hardwired to… | Then the message for managers is… |
|---|---|
| use emotions as the first screen for all information received | • recognise that people hear bad news, such as a negative performance review, first and loudest, even when the majority of the news is good<br>• be careful of who is in charge of the organization's performance appraisal system |
| avoid risky situations when feeling relatively secure and to fight frantically when feeling threatened | • understand that people will resist change except when they are dissatisfied<br>• realize that people will act and think creatively when given space, safety, and support |
| feel more self-confident than reality justifies | • routinely question whether they or their employees are understanding the difficulty of work-related challenges |
| quickly classify people, situations, and experiences into categories- good or bad, in or out-rather than engage in time consuming and nuanced analysis | • be careful that the interview process has controls for objective judgment<br>• realize that mixing disparate functions or teams means having to overcome a deep-rooted human propensity to stereotype strangers |
| gossip | • not waste time trying to eradicate rumours. Plug into the grapevine and make sure it stays healthy, not malicious |
| participate in public competitions for status and chest thumping about their success (true of men in particular) | • encourage employees to refrain from one-upmanship but understand you are fighting their programming |
| feel most comfortable in communities with no more than 150 members | • keep organizations from growing too large and break them into smaller cells if they do<br>• refrain from asking people to identify with more than one group at a time- such as a regional group and a product group |

| If people are hardwired to… | Then the message for managers is… |
|---|---|
| seek superiority or security in hierarchical systems | • recognize that hierarchy is forever and that people will establish status distinctions even if the organization tries to remove them |
| lead in different ways or not be leaders at all | • understand that the desire to lead is perhaps the most important characteristic a leader can possess<br>• accept that people cannot demonstrate leadership qualities they don't innately possess, even if the business situation urgently demands it |

Source: Nicholson 1998, p. 142)

**Table 6.1: Nicholson's common evolutionary psychology themes – implications for managers in organisations**

In *Executive Instinct*, which is aimed at a wide audience and intended to be used by management practitioners, Nicholson (2000b) provides his interpretation of human nature and proposes that evolutionary psychology principles offer a new science-based perspective of the world, and can help to understand what motivates managers and others in organisations so that it is possible to see how management methods work against the grain of human nature. In compiling evolutionary psychology principles or themes that resonated with him, Nicholson drew out the essential motivational and cognitive elements that he had observed and had read about. The following are the 10 key human themes that he felt have implications for managers in organisations:

1. Emotions Before Reason
2. Confidence Before Realism
3. Loss Aversion and the Quest for Control
4. Classification Before Calculus
5. Contest and Display
6. Group Discrimination
7. Gossip, Narrative and Grooming
8. Hardwired Individual Differences
9. The Trading Instinct
10. The "As If" Principle

He draws on each of these themes to explain how they can be used in the business world, especially in terms of the contribution they can make in the 21st century to manage and organise in new ways. His chief message is that it is important to understand our instincts – how we are 'hardwired' – and 'manage them with insight' (Nicholson, 2000b, p. 2). He describes how the main features identified through an evolutionary psychology perspective negatively impact on organisations in a recurring fashion – what he refers to as the 'seven deadly syndromes'. Each of them, together with their suggested antidote is included in **Table 6.2.**

| Syndromes | Use evolutionary psychology perspective to avoid the worst effects |
|---|---|
| Suppressed emotion and stress | Accept emotion at work, raise awareness of emotional experience, develop ways of helping people work through rather than against feelings |
| Disempowerment | Ensure inclusive management practices so that lower ranking people also have a say |
| Low-trust politics | Keep politics out in the open and see where they can be managed |

| | |
|---|---|
| Discrimination | Ensure that not only key people get moved across departments, find common goals for diverse teams |
| Ineffective teams | Ensure teams are small and diverse, are self-managed, and function informally and non-hierarchically |
| Bad decisions | Use decision-making aids that protect against irrational tendencies of human thought and judgement, leaders encourage people to be open about errors and learn from them |
| Management by fear | Encourage exposure of abuse of power and find ways to keep it in check |

Source: Adapted from Nicholson (2000)

**Table 6.2: Nicholson's seven deadly syndromes**

After looking at some of the chief elements of evolutionary psychology – the differences between the sexes and individual differences (especially in terms of leadership), thinking and feeling, social relations, communication – he elaborates on how these elements have impact in organisations just as they do in communities. Within organisations Nicholson pays special attention to how *Homo sapiens* reacts to various organisational structures and the underlying forces that determine corporate culture (Nicholson, 2000b).

Since the turn of the millennium Nicholson has published papers on evolutionary psychology in relation to various aspects of the business world – business and management (Nicholson, 2012), organisational behaviour (Nicholson & White, 2006), career success (Nicholson & DeWaal-Andrews, 2005), the employment experience (Nicholson, 2006), work design (Nicholson, 2010), family business (Nicholson, 2008, 2013) and leadership. In many of these publications he refers to examples of businesses that have grown substantially by drawing on his work, including management education consultancy Hardwired Humans. Exemplars of the practical application of evolutionary psychology principles in organisations have also been written about by others, and include organisations such as travel business Flight Centre (Johnson, 2005) and Brazilian manufacturing firm Semco (Semler, 1995; Semler, 2006), a sign that the field of evolutionary psychology being applied to organisations has 'arrived' (Nicholson & White, 2006, p. 118).

Nicholson (2005b) has also responded to criticisms of evolutionary psychology being applied to management, as published by Sewell (2004a, 2004b), whose main arguments are that evolutionary psychology is unable to satisfy the demands of experimental evolutionary biology and fails to explain some of the main challenges faced by mainstream psychologists. Nicholson argues that common ground between logic and assumptions can be found, entailing an inter-actionist approach to the analysis of individual agency and action, and a co-evolutionary perspective on the social context.

As regards teaching at London Business School, Nicholson feels that the subject has made his approach distinctive. He feels that although it does not always surface in his discussions of a topic, it

has profoundly influenced everything he says and teaches as it underpins the way that he analyses the world (Nicholson, 2014)[28].

### 6.1.3 Criticism of the evolutionary psychology theories

Evolutionary psychology theories are not without criticism.

Wallace (2010) contends that key claims of evolutionary psychology use the analogy of the human brain operating like a digital computer and since this model of the brain is not accepted as representing a clear sense of comparison then the evolutionary theory is 'compromised'.

Richardson (2007) questions the evolutionary credentials of evolutionary psychology. He opines that evolutionary psychology claims are not substantiated with factual evidence – they are largely based on speculation rather than on sound science.

Buller (2005) offers a substantive critique of evolutionary psychology. His critique covers much ground including taking issue with the theoretical foundations of evolutionary psychology.

## 6.2 The story of the Australian Hardwired Humans Programme

The information in this section was accessed through a series of dialogues over the 2011–2014 time period with Andrew O'Keeffe, owner and deliverer of the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme. Semi-structured questions were utilised and are included in ***Appendix E***.

### 6.2.1 How did it all start?

The relevance of evolutionary psychology to leadership in organisations began for Andrew O'Keeffe, the developer of the Australian Hardwired Humans Programme, when he read the *Harvard Business Review* article 'How Hardwired Is Human Behavior?' penned by Professor Nigel Nicholson of London Business School. O'Keeffe came across the article in 1998 but it was almost another decade before he came to launch his own Hardwired Humans business. At the time that he read the article, he was operating as HR director in a large Australian organisation, and he found the approach to be particularly helpful in this role. O'Keeffe had previously filled HR and IR roles in mining, manufacturing and technology organisations and took great interest in observing challenges around the executive table that were common from one industry to another[29]. Despite the people-

[28] He highlights some of the challenges in drawing on evolutionary psychology in teaching management education: 'One, is co-evolution and multi-level selection processes. How much can we steer our own evolutionary path by the way we construct cultures, institutions and societies? Two, is emerging stuff in epigenetics and associated fields, to do with how we can shape evolved capacities through experience. Very mysterious! Third, my own personal obsession is the idea of the self in evolutionary theory, or more specifically self-control – a matter of controversy, and rejected by some of my EP colleagues as smuggling in free will by the back door. I disagree, and raise the challenging question of to what extent can we through insight into our own evolved nature manipulate and manage it? Can we save the planet from the next mass extinction (caused by us)? I am on the pessimistic side' (Nicholson, 2014).

[29] Challenges such as silos and intra-organisational rivalries, politics and alliances, managing change, the power of the informal grapevine, criticisms staff express about communication, how most managers find it hard to manage poor performers, and common frustrations with performance appraisals systems.

challenges being common across organisations and industries, there was no leadership model which explained to his satisfaction what he was observing in the field. But suddenly, upon reading about the instincts or natural behaviours that humans carry with them as a species from the days on the savannah, it seemed to O'Keeffe that everything fell into place. He applied the thinking behind this model for seven years in his HR director roles, looking at organisation design, restructures, mergers and acquisitions and other change initiatives.

O'Keeffe entered into self-employment at the end of 2006[30] and came up with the idea of taking leaders to zoos as an ideal location for taking a zoological view of humans. At about the same time he attended a lecture by Dr Jane Goodall (a world-renowned primatologist, humanitarian, conservationist and UN Messenger of Peace) in Sydney, and her stories about chimp behaviours and social systems revealed a whole additional dimension – that leaders could learn more about our social nature by comparing and contrasting with another social species. O'Keeffe contacted the Sydney representative of the Jane Goodall Institute and an important relationship was forged. He also made contact with Nicholson, and formed a relationship with him that lasted over the years.

### 6.2.2 What is the philosophy and aim of the Hardwired Humans Programme?

The aim of the Hardwired Humans consultancy is to give leaders insight into the people-elements of their role and to develop management capabilities that enable managers to do their job effectively. The focus is on helping leaders make good choices in relation to people leadership. The skills that are intended to be developed through the consultancy's educational programme involve the ability to motivate and engage team members. They include specific skills and decision-making about issues such as organisation design, influencing and persuading, change management, team dynamics, motivation, communication, performance management and the enablement of high performance. According to O'Keeffe (2013):

> Hardwired Humans focuses on aligning people practices to human instincts. The approach helps leaders and HR professionals understand more about the people dimension of business by taking a zoological view of the species. If leaders have a framework for making better sense of why people think and act the way we do then they can make more informed decisions.

In his first book, *The Boss* (O'Keeffe, 2006), reveals the deeper intent behind his teachings – he believes that organisations play a fundamentally important role in the lives of their employees, and that managers have the biggest impact on people's enjoyment of work. He notes that, compared to his parent's generation, there is less loyalty because there is less commitment from the employer, making the relationship more transitory. This book, which is based on real-life narratives gathered by O'Keeffe over a number of years, is a novel about the dynamics between workers and their bosses. With a female employee as the lead character in the book, the story is about 'the impact of work on

[30] Initially O'Keeffe started the business up with a colleague who left two years later for family reasons.

the human spirit' (Hardwired Humans, 2013) and the range of challenges involved in corporate politics. In his second book, *Hardwired Humans – Successful Leadership Using Human Instincts* (2011b), O'Keeffe delves into the nine human instincts which he has adopted from Nigel Nicholson's *Executive Instinct* (2000b) and illustrates them with stories about the behaviour of apes, offering insights about human behaviour.

### 6.2.3 What content does Hardwired Humans teach and what are its teaching methods?

#### *6.2.3.1 Content*

O'Keeffe extracted nine 'instincts' from Nicholson's work, seven of them listed as 'thinking and feeling' instincts and two of them as 'social living' instincts. Whilst the philosophy and framework employed by O'Keeffe in Hardwired Humans is driven largely by the framework derived from Nicholson's (1998a, 2000b) publications, he created the training content, methods, activities, scenarios and simulations to inform participants as to how to use their knowledge of instincts to lead people effectively. A comparison of the instincts used by O'Keeffe in his training programmes and those proposed in Nicholson's two publications are shown in ***Table 6.3***. Explanations for those instincts included by Nicholson that do not feature in O'Keeffe's programme are provided in a footnote on the same page as the table.

The instincts selected by O'Keeffe are similar to those in the *Harvard Business Review* article – the most obvious elements excluded are 'Leadership' and 'Organisational behaviour'. The latter was seen by O'Keeffe to be included under 'Hierarchy and status' and 'Social belonging'. Whilst O'Keeffe initially included a 'Leadership requirement' (motivation to lead) as a tenth instinct, but because not everyone has the motivation to lead, and it is thus not a universal instinct, he decided to exclude it in later human instincts offering. There are four themes from *Executive Instinct* that are not overtly included as part of O'Keeffe's nine instincts: group discrimination ('us and them'); hardwired individual differences; the trading instinct; and the 'As if' principle. In explanation for this, O'Keeffe did not see individual differences as a separate instinct as in his view it underlies all of the instincts, and results in behaviour playing out differently for each individual; the same applies regarding gender or cultural differences. He looked at group discrimination and concluded it belonged under the 'First impressions to classify' instinct as 'them and us' is one way in which people classify; similarly the 'As if' element is included by O'Keeffe under 'Social belonging' and 'Empathy and mind reading'. He felt that the trading instinct could be subsumed under 'Gossip' in that it was a form of grooming or 'gift-giving', but was considering including it as another instinct because it involved important aspects of behaviour in the workplace such as co-operation and altruism (O'Keeffe, 2014a).

There were a range of topics that O'Keeffe had found common across organisations he used in his programme as applications of the instincts – including leadership, persuasion and influence, performance feedback, gossip and team dynamics, organisational design and change management. Each participant received a binder with all overheads and explanations for each human instinct and the applications. Another important aspect of the content was the focus on the comparison between human and primate behaviour. O'Keeffe attributes the connection with nature and animals as a highly resonant aspect of his teaching methods, and he sees using the zoo and the primates as important psychological hooks which help engage participants at an emotional level. But perhaps most importantly is the impact of the realisation that many of the human behaviour patterns he talks about are similar to other big-brained social species such as chimpanzees. He hears participants say: 'Wow, that is not very different to us!' or 'Wow, that does explain a lot!'

To O'Keeffe, it was clear that leaders and managers found his material resonated because what he taught matched their reality and 'codifies what they know to be the case anyway, they just didn't have a framework or an explanation for it'. He also felt that what they learned through this programme gave managers a framework to make better choices about what they do as a leader. ***Appendix G*** provides a simple overview of the five-day programme and ***Appendix H*** reveals a more detailed breakdown of the two-day programme, whilst in ***Appendix I*** there is a copy of the A4 laminate of the human instincts that O'Keeffe distributes to all participants so they are able to keep it near them at work.

#### *6.2.3.2 Teaching methods*

Working together with the client, O'Keeffe tailors leadership programmes to the needs of the client. Prior to running the programme he makes telephone calls to each participant to find out what each person will value most. He also uses the call to answer questions and to explain what else to expect before the programme begins, and this communication represents O'Keeffe using human instincts himself through influencing their 'classification' of him and the programme.

There are ideally 12 leaders participating, and whilst not mandatory to do so, the programme is usually run in a zoo conference room. This allows for participants to visit the primates. The preferred approach is to have a number of days spread out over a year, which allows for time for participants to learn, apply, refresh and apply further. On a programme with multiple deliveries, leaders know that each time they return to the zoo the session will begin with each leader sharing by way of example how they have applied the learnings since the previous training session. For that reason, they make the connection to an important focus area for themselves, and are able to take appropriate action by using instincts to solve a challenge.

Overall, the training programme could be described as 'practical and active', making use of role-plays and small syndicate groups in order for the training to be hands-on, practical and engaging; it includes a variety of activities. O'Keeffe feels it is important to avoid the over-use of PowerPoint presentations and keep the programme fast-paced so that there is little opportunity to become distracted, although this means little time for personal reflection. O'Keeffe places substantial emphasis on engaging the audience through the power of story and pictures.

| HARDWIRED HUMANS | | NICHOLSON (Executive Instinct – Managing the Human Animal) | NICHOLSON (*HBR* article) |
|---|---|---|---|
| THINKING AND FEELING | | | THINKING AND FEELING |
| Emotions before reason | Humans trust their emotional instincts above all else and use emotions as their first screen for all information received. We hear negative news first and loudest. | • Emotions before reason<br>• Classification before calculus<br>• Loss aversion and the quest for control<br>• Confidence before realism<br>• Gossip, narrative and grooming<br>• Contest and display<br>• Group discrimination ('us and them')[31]<br>• Hardwired individual differences[32]<br>• The trading instinct[33]<br>• The 'as if' principle[34] | • Emotions before reason<br>• Classification before calculus<br>• Loss aversion except when threatened<br>• Confidence before realism<br>• Gossip<br>• Empathy and mind reading<br>• Contest and display<br>• Hierarchy<br>• Organisational design[35]<br>• Leadership[36] |
| First impression to classify | Humans quickly classify people, situations and experiences into categories (good or bad, in or out), based on first impressions and "gut feelings" rather than engage in time-consuming analysis. | | |
| Loss aversion | Humans seek to avoid loss and risky situations, but fight frantically when feeling threatened. We explore and are curious about the world around us when we feel safe. | | |
| Confidence before realism | Humans radiate confidence to move forward in the world, often denying what is realistic. We allow confidence to conquer realism to get what we want. | | |
| Gossip | Humans are hardwired to seek and share information. We share information with others we like and use it to build alliances. We | | |

[31] Group discrimination involves seeing people as in or out of our own group.
[32] Everyone behaves in different ways because we are all different.
[33] We are deeply attuned to implicit contracts and expect them not to be violated.
[34] All relationships have primal origins, so we assess most social interactions by thinking of basic ways to deal with kin and non-kin.
[35] Organisations work best when they are made up of no more than 150 people, similar to clan sizes on the Savannah Plain.
[36] The motivation to lead is the most important requirement for competent leadership.

| HARDWIRED HUMANS | | NICHOLSON (Executive Instinct – Managing the Human Animal) | NICHOLSON (*HBR* article) |
|---|---|---|---|
| THINKING AND FEELING | | | THINKING AND FEELING |
| | love to tell and hear stories. | | |
| Empathy and mind reading | Humans utilise empathy and mind reading to build relationships, be friendly and gather information. | | |
| Contest and display | Humans seek to impress others and to demonstrate their worth as a means to gain advantages. We spend inordinate amounts of time and energy making ourselves look good in various ways. | | |
| SOCIAL LIVING | | | |
| Social belonging | Humans desire strong bonds within family sized groups or around 7 people and gain a sense of belonging in clans of up to 150. | | |
| Hierarchy and status | Humans seek superiority or security in hierarchical systems. We seek status symbols, recognition and elevation within the hierarchy. | | |

**Source: O'Keeffe (2014b) and Nicholson (1998a, 2000b)**

**Table 6.3: Hardwired Humans human instincts vs. Nicholson's evolutionary psychology common themes**

O'Keeffe unpacks a specific perspective in terms of explaining and making sense of human behaviour in the workplace, and the ways in which it is most appropriate to respond. He does this in various ways, including looking at the human instincts identified by Nicholson (an evolutionary perspective) and discussing and observing chimpanzee behaviour. In this way O'Keeffe draws on metaphors[37] in the way that he teaches about various aspects of leadership – he uses the metaphors to help explain complex concepts by relating them to concrete examples that can be seen by participants.

***Metaphors***

[37] In order to explain exactly what is intended by unpacking the metaphors it is useful to consider this working definition (which is how O'Keeffe sees it too): 'Metaphor is a mental/linguistic technique that helps us understand a complex concept by relating it to our more concrete, observable experiences; by comparing two discrete ideas, we expose similarities and can infer logical relationships.' (http://sourcepov.com/2011/08/31/metaphor/) (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

*Modern human behaviour is similar to Stone Age man (it is hardwired).* O'Keeffe kicks off his training session by observing that the challenges to organisational performance are uncannily similar from one organisation, industry or country to another. He lists frustrations that will be commonly experienced by participants. He makes the point that that phenomenon can only be explained by the identification of a common attribute: that we all employ humans. Soon after he divides the group into small syndicate groups and requests them to imagine the scenario that if the group went out to the zoo right now and went to an exhibit of *Homo sapiens.* What behaviours would be listed on the poster at the side of the exhibit explaining the behaviours of this species? He finds that the groups always identify almost all of Nicholson's instincts. He designs this exercise for two purposes. First, it creates insight in that people realise they already had this knowledge, only now their minds have been turned to the question, and second, it removes any defensiveness to accept the model – the group has identified much of the framework that is about to the shared. He then shares, in the form of a laminate, the nine human instincts. Set within the context of the savannah plains, the argument behind the existence of these instincts is that there has been little change in human behaviour over time, yet the physical realities within which humans operate have changed considerably. This means that humans still operate with the social natures and information processing that served hunter-gatherers well. With these hardwired human behaviours being explained from the perspective of evolutionary psychology it introduces both a science and history dimension that appeals to participants in different ways.

*Human behaviour is similar to that of other primates (in terms of group behaviour).* By involving the Jane Goodall Institute as a fixture in his training programme, O'Keeffe is able to draw participants into the world of the chimpanzee. He explains that we can better understand human nature by comparing and contrasting humans to a species that is closest to them. Chimpanzees are the next closest because of the size of their brain and the complexity of their social groups – multi-family, multi-male, multi-female and multi-generational. With the stories of the Jane Goodall Institute representative and the local primate zookeeper, the research of animals is introduced in a personalised way. An important part of the training programme involves visiting the primate exhibit at the zoo and observing the social behaviour of the primates. This session is led by the primate zookeeper, who describes the setting and tells further stories about some of the main characters. O'Keeffe explains the visit to the enclosure as follows:

> Leaders experience an invigorating moment of insight! Suddenly people's behaviour, including their own, makes sense and they can make more informed decisions about people leadership. People see the patterns of social species (O'Keeffe, 2011a).

Furthermore, the obvious support of Goodall, as a world-renowned primatologist, humanitarian, conservationist and UN Messenger of Peace, adds credibility to the programme. For the Jane Goodall Institute, the programmes provide a source of funding for their involvement and also an audience for

sharing their message of conservation of chimpanzees and the other great apes and of the urgency of ensuring a sustainable environment for all forms of life.

#### *6.2.3.3 Pedagogical changes over time*

Since inception, certain aspects of Hardwired Humans' programme have remained central, such as using a zoo as the location for its training programmes, and drawing on the relationship with the Jane Goodall Institute. The primate keepers from the zoo have also been involved from the very start. O'Keeffe noted that the quality of the programme activities and the materials have changed over time, as he has received feedback from participants and reflected on where he feels there could be more value added. For instance, after the first few programmes he changed the way that he introduced the programme: instead of spending time contextualising and setting the scene for the common challenges at work, he received valuable feedback that it would be more impactful to immediately teach the nine instincts.

Early in 2010, O'Keeffe changed the structure of the programme from offering it over two days to a five-day programme. In the new format, a two-day programme was run as before but three days followed at four-month intervals, so that overall the programme was run over a 12-month period. The idea of the follow-up days was to add more content and more activities such as role-plays and scenarios. On the first follow-up day, each participant gets to share how their learning has been applied by way of example, which is very powerful. Depending on the needs of the client, O'Keeffe offered programmes in different configurations, but recommended two days followed by at least a further day a few months later so that the impact of the learning could be leveraged.

For a number of years O'Keeffe made use of a Harvard case study that focused on change management, but in the last few years he has refrained from using it as he felt it did not achieve the outcomes he was hoping for. Instead of the case study, O'Keeffe found an alternative that worked better: running several real-life change management scenarios. One of his scenarios was, for instance, about managing office relocation where seven people lose their offices. O'Keeffe explains why an activity like this becomes valuable:

> The scenarios are really tight but raise critical issues and so they can be workshopped. It is easier than using the Harvard case study and participants know soon into their syndicate work that I can share with them what actually happened. They realise that it is a manager like them who leads using human instincts (O'Keeffe, 2014b).

There have also been some changes made to the content of the programme. On two occasions over the years, O'Keeffe felt the need to engage an adult education expert to add a further sophistication to his teaching of some of the instincts. This was done by introducing more engaging activities, such as the introduction of a quiz. The consultant was also the designer of the Savannah Game, which was introduced in 2010. In this simulation game, participants are in syndicate teams of between three

and five members, and the game is designed to run between 9 and 25 people. Participants are the leaders of their clan back in the ancestral setting on the savannah, and in the game they are presented with a number of change scenarios and are required to design their approach using human instincts to manage the change harmoniously through the use of role-play. The de-brief at the end of the game focuses on the chief 'take-aways' about what resonates with the participants' work environment, and participants are asked to have a discussion with their team and discuss items they would put on their change management checklist given their learnings from this experience.

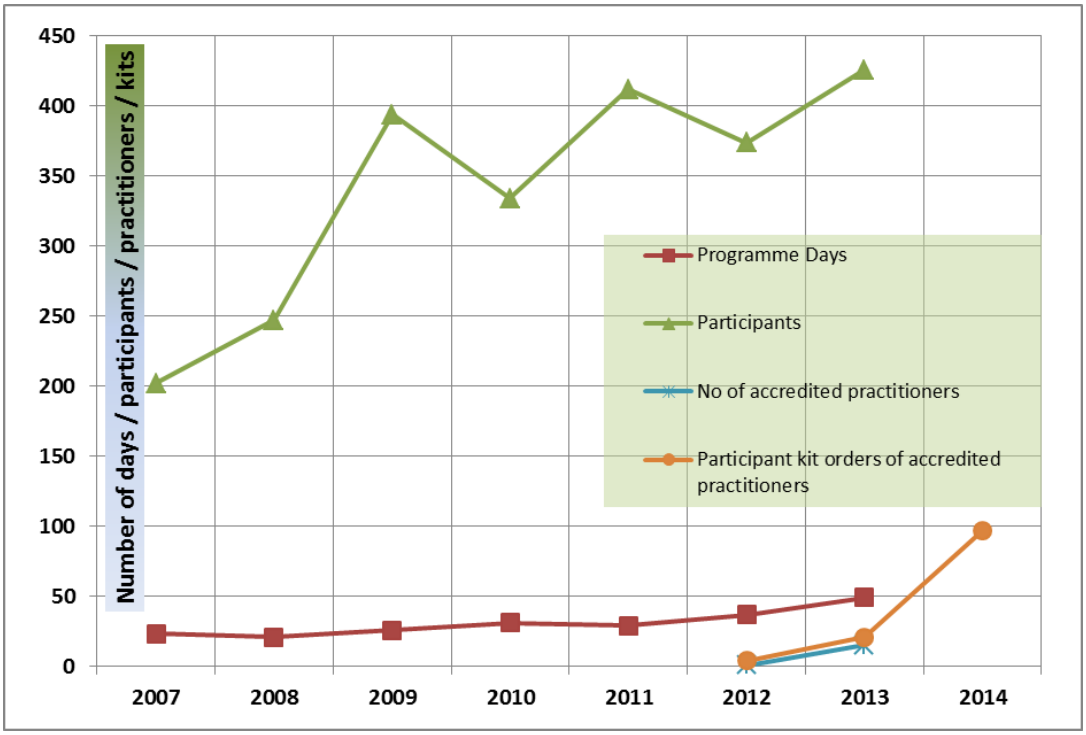
### 6.2.4 Development of the Hardwired Humans Programme

Initially, the focus of the business was determined by the clients who were very interested in the human instincts concept. Through his previous experiences in HR services, O'Keeffe had learned the importance of having a concrete deliverable to provide, as opposed to a mere concept, and that he should match a line item of a client's budget with regards to leadership. Whilst 80% of the business has involved the delivery of leadership training programmes, the other 20% includes HR services such as coaching, succession planning, leadership assessment, and change management implementation. Over the years O'Keeffe actively generated new business, through speaking at conferences, by word of mouth, through clients who move to new organisations, and through a Hardwired Humans monthly e-newsletter. Goodall remained personally involved in the organisation in various ways, and O'Keeffe had toured with her several times, speaking together to business audiences about the implication of human social nature to the leadership of organisations.

In the seven years since inception, more than 100 programmes or visits to zoos have been held, both nationally and internationally, and the company has growth rapidly. ***Figure 6.1*** shows the number of programme days has risen consistently, as has the number of participants trained. There are other measures of growth reflected, such as number of people accredited, and participant kits ordered by accredited practitioners (discussed later on in this section). The impact of his programme was often measured in terms of Synergistic's Lifestyle Inventories Impact (LSI) tool (see ***Appendix J***).

#### *6.2.4.1 Phase One: Start-up*

In 2007, when the business first began, the go-to-market strategy was deliberate, thoughtful, and well planned out. A two-day programme was designed and offered as a public or open programme at Taronga Zoo, in Sydney, Australia. This meant a deliverable needed to be designed, which could then easily be offered to O'Keeffe's close network of professional colleagues and friends. Two programmes were set up so that if professionals were unable to make the first programme, they could attend the second one a month later. In these early stages of the business, O'Keeffe did not engage much in cold calling and most of the growth was from word-of-mouth and, most importantly, speaking at conferences. The two programmes were well attended, with 10 participants in each, and O'Keeffe quickly saw the positive reception to each of the programmes.




Source: Personal communication with O'Keeffe in April 2014

**Figure 6-1: Growth of Hardwired Humans**

About 18 months into the business the partners became concerned that although they had been successful in growing the business, they were not keeping in touch with their clients after the programme ended. They decided to send out a monthly electronic newsletter in which they would share interesting aspects of human instincts implications for leaders that would be of value to the reader.

Although the focus of this initiative was not to promote the Hardwired Humans business, O'Keeffe soon saw that it worked exceedingly well as a marketing tool and became a critical vehicle to grow the business as subscribers grew exponentially.

#### *6.2.4.2 Phase Two: Repeat programmes*

The second phase began two years after the business started and was based on the idea of offering repeat programmes to a single client so that it was not always a case of being required to sell the programme as a one-off session. At this juncture, O'Keeffe had begun to think that the business would be more commercially successful if he was not always 'selling afresh'. The shift began with one particular client, Metro Trains. They showed interest in running a series of programmes – seven programmes involving 80 managers. This proved highly successful with 'graduates' lobbying to get their colleagues on the programme and new entrants to the business required training, and this trend towards multiple or repeat business has continued throughout the life of the business.

#### *6.2.4.3 Phase Three: Accreditation*

In April 2012 O'Keeffe decided to start licensing individuals to use the Hardwired Humans method, which involved individuals becoming accredited in the programmes. They could be internal HR/L&D professionals who would deliver Hardwired Humans programmes within their organisation or external consultants who would deliver the programmes in client organisations. The 'accredited practitioners' paid to become accredited and to acquire the facilitator materials, and then also paid for materials each time they ran a programme. All along, O'Keeffe had imagined that he would get to the accreditation phase, and was attracted by both the passive income associated with that and also the extension of human instincts to a broader audience than he could reach alone. O'Keeffe felt that the strategy to accredit had been a modest one and was focussed more on quality than quantity. The option to become accredited was communicated to those on the Hardwired Human's database for the first time in February 2013 and within 12 months 20 people had become accredited or were in the process of being accredited.

#### *6.2.4.4 Phase Four: E-learning?*

The next phase was planned to involve an e-learning offering, planned to become a reality in 2014/2015. A learning and development professional who had heard O'Keeffe speak at a conference had contacted O'Keeffe, interested in developing e-learning options. O'Keeffe was exploring a possible relationship within which he would provide the intellectual property and the professional would convert that into e-learning modules so that current clients or individuals anywhere in the world could, through the Internet, enrol and participate in short programmes.

### 6.2.5 Who are its main clients and how have they benefitted?

Hardwired Humans had a number of key clients, and those who had invested in substantial intervention are listed in ***Table 6.4***. Clients were primarily interested in investing in and developing their middle managers. Of the total 166 programmes run over the eight years to date (May 2014), only 14 – or 8% – were public programmes. There were a number of other clients who had engaged the consultancy for briefer activities, such as a day at the zoo for professional development. These included Flight Centre (HR development day), General Electric (HR development day), MLC (employee development), Gilbert & Tobin (HR development), Parsons Brinkerhoff (HR development and development of future leaders), and Ericsson (staff development). Public programmes tended to be scheduled after a few people enquired about when the next programme would be held, and that group became a quorum to build dates around. In the event that a major event was being held, such as a presentation by Jane Goodall, further public programmes would be scheduled for a month or two later.

| Client | Industry | Intervention |
|---|---|---|
| Metro Trains Melbourne | Rail | Leadership development<br>HR skilling |
| Thales | Engineering | HR skills in change management<br>Leadership development<br>Change management with office relocations |
| Symantec | Information Technology | Leadership development<br>Organisation design<br>Leadership coaching |
| Philips | Medical equipment | Change management with a restructure |
| NAB | Banking | Leadership development |
| NEXTDC | Information technology | Organisation design<br>Leadership development |
| Office of State Revenue (NSW State Government) | Public sector | HR development<br>Change management |
| Wise | NGO – Mental health | Organisation design<br>Leadership development |
| Stroke Foundation | NGO | Organisation design<br>Leadership development |
| Australian Defence Force | Government | Leadership development |

Source: O'Keeffe (2013)

**Table 6.4: List of clients who have had substantial intervention in human instincts training**

## 6.3 Summary

The application of evolutionary psychology to organizational behaviour rose to prominence from the mid-1990s, strongly influenced by the work of Nigel Nicholson and his work on the 9 'hardwired human instincts:

1) 'emotions before reason': human beings trust their emotions more than any other faculty and emotions are thus the first screen for any information received;
2) 'first impression to classify': humans tend to classify people, situations and experiences into categories based on first impressions or gut feelings;
3) 'loss aversion': people tend to avoid situations where they may be at risk of losing something and fight if they feel threatened;
4) 'confidence before realism': humans are not realistic about situations and instead radiate confidence to get what they want;
5) 'gossip': human beings tend to seek and share information in building alliances;
6) 'empathy and mind reading': people aim to build relationships and gather information through empathising;

7) ‘contest and display’: humans try to impress others in order to gain advantage;
8) ‘social belonging’: humans desire strong bonds and prefer to be in family-size groups of around 7 people and in clans of up to 150 people; and
9) ‘hierarchy and status’: human beings seek status or superiority through hierarchical systems.

The development and rapid growth of our case study programme, the Hardwired Humans programme in Australia, has been documented. According to its founder, Andrew O’Keefe, this growth is testament to the support large organisations have for the lessons implicit in this discipline, not least because it helps their leaders to understand what they find as the most challenging part of their role: managing people. In the absence of a superior model to explain human behaviour in organisations, evolutionary psychology principles as portrayed by Nicholson resonated immediately and deeply with Andrew O’Keeffe and, as we shall see in ***Chapter 7***, the programme participants. But it is, arguably, the way that O’Keeffe packaged his concrete delivery, as outlined above, that contributes strongly to making his programme so successful. The Zoo location and the multiple sessions he prefers to run, as well as the stories of application make his programme highly unusual. With the use of Stone Age man and primate metaphors, and the use of narratives and images, as well as a variety of activities and presenters, the programme has captured the imagination of programme participants, as represented in its rapid growth as well as the reflections captured in ***Chapter 7***.

# 7 Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme: Interview Findings

> There were heaps of 'aha' moments in the room so a lot of the material resonated with people. So when we were talking about rumour or something there was a heap of people figuring out 'Oh, that's why that happens!' or 'That's why this happens!' So I think encapsulating and getting an audience online and working on why the 'aha' moments are good for them – if you can do that it takes a bit of a skill. [Lain, Interview, Hardwired Humans programme participant] [38]

## 7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the empirical study of responses to the Hardwired Humans programme from 24 leaders in four well-known Australian corporations who attended the programme. Firstly, the insights gleaned from participant observation are described, followed by a presentation of the findings from the personal interview process. Each of the [39]14 questions asked of attendees on the programme generated responses which are grouped and organised into themes in regard to method and content, with participant identities protected in accordance with Macquarie University ethics agreements. The responses cover:

1. workplace context of participants in terms of most challenging problem faced, hopes and expectations, past training experiences and expectations of organisations about training;
2. experience of the human instincts programme in terms of content and method, and what other ideas participants have about teaching leaders in the programme; and
3. other impactful training programmes that participants have experienced, and what has been most impactful in terms of changing thinking or behaviour.

The themes that emerged within each grouping were filtered for pedagogical content and method components in order to inform the themes in the conclusion at the end of the chapter. These were integrated with the findings from the literature reviews to develop the master set of design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model and prototype is presented in ***Chapter 10***.

## 7.2 Background: participant observation and preparation for interviews

Prior to the interviews, I was invited to be a participant observer at Hardwired Humans' leadership training programme at Taronga Zoo in Sydney where leaders from one of the clients, Symantec, were being trained in January 2011[40]. A group of 14 sales managers were being trained over a two-day

[38] In accordance with Macquarie University ethics agreements, the identities of the organisations and individuals have been disguised by giving them other names for the purposes of this study.

[39] Appendix D is a part of the thesis package and is dedicated to the 'Australian Hardwired Human Zoo Programme Interview Questions'. The questions themselves have linkages to the theoretical framework applicable to this study.

[40] I attended another Hardwired Humans programme run on 23–24 July 2013 as a participant observer. ***Appendix K*** provides a description of this programme, which was offered to the public, and it also includes a description of typical days 3–5.

period at Taronga Zoo, and they had agreed that I could attend for research purposes. I had limited formal leadership experience, but found it relatively easy to blend in as the learning was thought-provoking and different, yet somehow familiar. At first I was surprised at the level of interest in this human instincts training, and the extent to which the CEO of the organisation was so committed to it. I was also surprised how focused the team members were during the two-day period, not least because I was unfamiliar with exactly how and what could really be involved in leaders learning from the apes! Throughout the workshop the workshop participants were high-spirited and typically quick-witted salespeople, creating an atmosphere of humour and fun. Details regarding pedagogical content and method of the two-day programme are outlined in ***Appendix H***.

### 7.2.1 Content

At the beginning of Day 1, when O'Keeffe introduced the training programme, I felt slightly uncomfortable in that he did not provide considerable detail on exactly what would happen over the two days. It seemed he took care in ensuring that we were not provided with too much information, in verbal or written form, and I soon realised that this was intentional throughout the programme as he did not want attention to be diverted from the learning process. I found the ice-breaker at the start to be insightful and engaging: O'Keeffe asked everyone to introduce themselves, and tell the group something about themselves that only someone who knew them well would know.

Overall, from my perspective, the content appeared to completely engage most of the audience. In the first half an hour we covered the outcome of the programme, which O'Keeffe described as 'a practical dimension so that human nature makes so much more sense', and the learning objectives:

- why people behave as they do at work;
- apply the insight to practical topics;
- enhance your personal effectiveness; and
- carry a framework for quick, effective people decisions.

We also briefly looked at several common frustrations for leaders such as silos, change, informal grapevine, performance appraisal, feedback, and managing poor performers. O'Keeffe then provided background on human evolution, explaining that it has only been in the last 250 years that we have moved into offices, and that we are a big-brained social species very similar to chimpanzees. The programme was held in the Conference Centre of Taronga Zoo, where O'Keeffe asked everyone to imagine a 'human exhibit' at the Zoo similar to the exhibits for each animal species, and in this way began to draw out our assumptions about human behaviour. In groups of three, he asked us to discuss the characteristics we would ascribe to the exhibit, write them up on a white-board and then report back into a plenary group. This exercise provided the backdrop to the introduction of the

central part of the programme, which was the human instincts framework that O'Keeffe had adopted from the work of Professor Nigel Nicholson.

The next hour and a half was used to explain the nine human instincts[41] in some detail, mostly through the use of stories and images, and after that the next three and a half hours was spent focused on chimpanzees and understanding how similar they are as a big-brained social species to humans. Presentations were given by the chimp keeper at the Zoo, and a representative of the Jane Goodall Foundation, and we personally observed the chimpanzees in the Zoo enclosure.

Most of the rest of the programme covered the applications of the human instincts to leadership, including areas such as organisational design and persuasion and influence. There were a range of methods used to cover this, primarily using active participation through small group activities. The only other aspects that were covered within this time were, firstly, a *Harvard Business Review*[42] article about 'Inner Work Life' that had been sent to participants before the programme began, and this was discussed as O'Keeffe felt it closely aligned with human instincts, encouraging participants to reflect on the interplay of emotions and impressions on motivation and performance. Secondly, a Harvard Business School case was looked at through the 'lens' of human instincts and role-played by participants.

#### *7.2.1.1 Making sense of behaviour*

I found the material on the human instincts to be extremely powerful, not only because it was highly unusual and unconventional to be talking about such things in a leadership programme, but because it resonated deeply. This was evident from the degree to which I could see participants being engaged, and how they responded to O'Keeffe. Hearing about the instincts felt comfortably familiar, and made sense of so many behavioural experiences. When O'Keeffe talked about how groups dissolved when a fifth person joined in, or how we classify someone in the first few seconds within meeting them, this resonated with me as a result of what I had observed and experienced through participation in the programme. The link between the human instincts and where they had come from, i.e. the discipline of evolutionary psychology was not that clear to me at that stage, though, and I was eager for more information. Why had those particular instincts been chosen? Were there additional instincts that would be useful to know about, I wondered? I wished that resources had been made available about the discipline of evolutionary psychology more broadly and its application to leadership. It was almost as if he was tantalising us with these new thoughts but without enough solid background, so that we wanted to know more.

[41] 1) emotions before reason, 2) first impression to classify, 3) loss aversion, 4) confidence before realism, 5) gossip, 6) empathy and mind reading, 7) contest and display, 8) social belonging, and 9) hierarchy and status.

[42] The reference for this article is Amabile, T.M. and Kramer, S.J. (2007). 'Inner work life: understanding the subtext of business performance', *Harvard Business Review*, 85(5).

#### *7.2.1.2 Aha and ha-ha*

Sporadically throughout the programme, there was much banter about being at the Zoo and 'learning from the apes', and it was a playful and fun atmosphere. I did not feel like I was learning, and the time passed quickly. I found that bringing in the idea that humans are so similar to chimpanzees, not only in DNA terms, but in terms of behaviour, was an eye-opener to me. There was considerable interest and almost disbelief amongst participants regarding the facts presented that human beings are only 1% different to chimpanzees in terms of genes. Everyone found it fascinating that we are so similar to another large-brained social species, and perhaps that is why interest escalated in terms of what could be learned from other primate's behaviour. Watching the animals in the Zoo enclosure was insightful, and there was so much about the way they behaved towards each other that felt familiar and provided 'aha' moments of why we humans behave as we do. I could see many of the other participants feeling the same way, and I heard many of them laughing and joking about 'who was who in the Zoo'. Participants appeared to find the behaviour of the alpha male particularly humorous, and I could not help but wonder how many human 'alpha males' in the audience had begun to look at themselves in a different way after the programme.

### 7.2.2 Method

O'Keeffe made use of various delivery techniques – role playing, the significant use of images, story-telling, various different speakers on related topics, discussion in small and large plenary groups, workplace scenario-building, observing and discussing chimpanzee behaviour, and making use of the Harvard case method through the 'lens' of human instincts. The programme was run at a fast pace, and for most of the programme there was almost continuous active participation by the participants. The Zoo was certainly a different place to be for a leadership programme, and the view from the conference room where we were located was spectacular, as it faced out onto Sydney Harbour. There were several pedagogical methods that stood out for me, and I was struck by the high level of engagement throughout.

#### *7.2.2.1 Images and stories*

It was easy to take part in the learning process and afterwards when I looked through my notes I could see why. I had marked down what we covered in some detail and I was surprised by how many pictures had been presented and how many stories had been told. In the sections presented by O'Keeffe there were 27 pictures and more than 20 stories told, not counting the stories elicited from O'Keeffe of participants. Most of this occurred within the first three hours of Day 1, until the human instincts framework had been presented. Most of these stories provided a personal connection to the participants in that they were meaningful as a member of the human species (about our past or our characteristics), or were recent and relevant examples from the media, illustrating the human instincts. Furthermore, the presentations by the chimpanzee zoo-keeper and the Jane Goodall

Institute representative were chiefly characterised by story-telling, not only about characteristics and habits of chimpanzees, but about the antics of individual chimpanzees.

#### *7.2.2.2 Active participation*

Besides a few PowerPoint slides shown by O'Keeffe introducing the human instincts and their application to leadership, it was evident that he placed a strong emphasis on other delivery techniques instead. He was determined to include each person through active participation in the programme, using small groups, plenary sessions or individual activities. They had no time to check their phones, and O'Keeffe was careful to begin sessions on time, ensuring that everyone knew that it was time to take part in the proceedings. In the first three hours, the only interaction was a small group session in which everyone was asked to come up with ideas about how the human species would be described in a zoo enclosure and write them up on white-boards. This was then reported back to a plenary who determined the characteristics of the 'human exhibit', which almost exactly matched up to the nine instincts that O'Keeffe then presented. After this, interaction escalated dramatically. Throughout the rest of the programme where the application of the instincts to leadership took place (each of which would take no more than half an hour to present), O'Keeffe punctuated the proceedings with individual, small group or plenary activities and discussions, details of which are in ***Appendix H***. These included role-plays about specific workplace scenarios, resolving challenges, and exercises. The only part of the programme that I found confronting was the role-plays, where I was required to play the role of manager dealing with difficult situations, and my inexperience showed.

#### *7.2.2.3 Sticky[43] messages*

There were specific exercises used by O'Keeffe in the programme that I found invaluable, and that I used afterwards in various ways. The concept of 'the first seven words' (which was an application of the human instinct 'first impressions to classify' to leadership) was an exercise in which we were required to individually determine what to say to an airline administrator in order to persuade her to allow a switch to an earlier flight. It was challenging to think about the most effective words to use, and it made me realise how important it was to think carefully about the impressions one makes in the first few words that are spoken. The 'gossip map' (which was an application of the human instinct 'gossip and grooming' to leadership) was a further exercise that we were required to undertake individually. In this case, we had to draw a large circle, with small circles around the outside representing all team members, and then draw lines representing our relationship with team members who were represented on the outside of the circle. The thickness of the line represented

[43] 'Sticky' is defined by Andrew O'Keeffe as 'Memorable, so a stimulation in the future triggers memories of the program and the connection of the current situation to content and the learnings from the program'. To me, it includes components such as 'the unusual', practically useful, emotionally engaging, examples of successful application and the fact that the learning can be applied to life in general.

the strength of the existing relationship. This was insightful, providing 'aha' moments to a number of leaders, and I too found it useful and something to remember. The concept of the 'alpha male' was a resoundingly sticky concept, not least because of the humour attached to it. To actually see this played out in the enclosure was very funny, and so very basic, yet it resonated because it was so similar to behaviour I had seen in many human situations. I could see these sticky messages resonating deeply with the other participants in the way they responded, and the things they said.

#### *7.2.2.4 Metaphors*

O'Keeffe used a primate metaphor to unpack the similarities between chimpanzees and humans. He did this in a number of ways:

- talking about our similarities to chimpanzees in terms of DNA and being a big-brained social species;
- drawing on the different facets of chimpanzees by guest speakers (such as the stories about specific chimp individuals and the work of the Jane Goodall Institute);
- reminding of the scientific credibility offered by the work of Jane Goodall; and
- inviting us to personally observe chimpanzees in their Zoo enclosure.

I found it useful to watch the un-staged behaviour of the chimpanzees, and it helped me to understand why humans behave in some of the ways that I had observed. This metaphor provided many of us with 'aha' moments resonating at a fundamental level because it was about who we are as a human race, as did the metaphor of 'Stone Age man': O'Keeffe's proposition that human behaviour today is not very different from that of Stone Age man was difficult for me to comprehend at first, because how could it be? He used various methods to unpack it:

- talking about human evolution and how it was only 250 years ago that we moved into offices;
- asking groups of us to label the 'human exhibit' with characteristics and report back to a plenary (and ended up being very similar to the nine human instincts); and
- presenting the nine human instincts through using stories and images.

Our groups had volunteered a list of human characteristics that were not very different to those presented by O'Keeffe. He alluded to the historical and scientific evidence inherent in the evolutionary psychology rationale, which was even more convincing – but I was keen to read up on this and find out more. It all made sense, and it was fascinating, but I wanted more of an explanation for exactly where these ideas had come from.

## 7.3 In-depth interviews

During the interviews I asked 14 semi-structured questions (see ***Appendix D***), with the aim of exploring management education themes relating to pedagogical content and method, and impact, especially in regard to change in behaviour or worldview. Through the questions I was also aiming to understand the context within which participants were working, and the reasons for why other training programmes might have been impactful. They had been informed by the early literature reviews that I had undertaken (Argyris, 1997, 2002; Goleman et al., 2004; Mintzberg, 2004a; Schön, 1995; Shulman, 1992; Shulman, 2005), and I had realised that I would need to understand what was behind the success of the programme by inquiring about the ways in which it had resonated regarding shifts in behaviour and perspectives, and how it had impacted on self-knowledge. The intention was to elicit 'stories' which could provide context and meaning to the responses, and which I wanted to filter for pedagogical content and method aspects.

### 7.3.1 Workplace context

In this section a summary of the responses to questions about what participants found most challenging in their role as manager, what they hoped for in the organisation and what they expected in delivery of the role. They were also asked to describe their training experiences at work, and what they felt the organisation expected of them with regard to this training.

**Most challenging problem faced.** As regards the most challenging situation in the role as leader, 39 responses from the 24 interviewees revealed that almost all involved people management issues. Analysis of the 39 responses to this question revealed that the most challenging issues appeared to involve behavioural issues, with performance management mentioned as often by participants. This was followed by motivation, influencing and politics, employee engagement, retrenching, team diversity, and when to go into detail. All 39 responses are grouped into the 13 categories as depicted in ***Figure 7.1***.

Going into more detail, seven responses revealed how critical performance management is to managers, and especially the unexpected aspects that can be involved. Some of the situations mentioned included the unexpected retaliation from a non-performing employee, trying to get the most out of people, and managing someone who used to be on the same managerial level and was a personal friend. One of the participants explained as follows:

> The most challenging situation that I have found in my role as a manager is trying to get the most out of people. So, what I mean by that is people come with their own histories and their own energy levels, and their own paces in which they want to participate, but you can't pick and choose, you are constantly being challenged every single day on keeping people focused and engaged and motivated, to ultimately deliver a result because that is what we need to do. And that is performance management, good and bad behaviour, all of that. That is by far the biggest challenge. So one goal, one vision, one strategy, we talk about

> them, try and deliver that through individuals. And every single person is different. [Timothy]

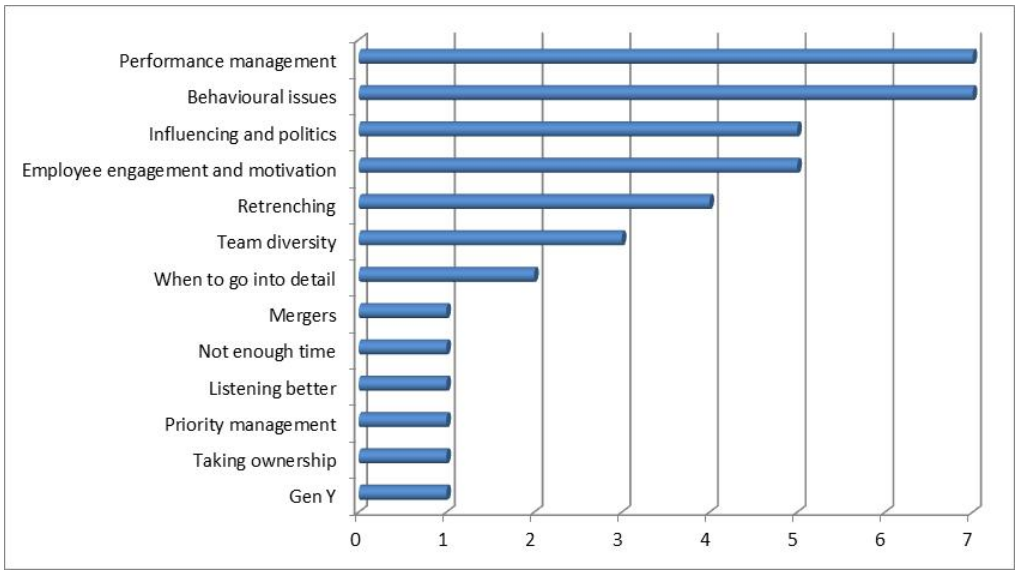



**Figure 7-1: Most challenging experience in role as leader – number of responses for each "issue"**

Another seven responses in the 'behavioural issues' category showed that there were three participants suggesting the most challenging situation was to stay calm and be able to separate emotions from business issues. A further two responses were around understanding people and helping them to resolve issues, and another noted the most challenging issue was to deal with conflict. The final response in this category related to the challenge involved in dealing with organisational culture. One of the responses from this category stated the challenge as follows:

> To have people extract themselves from the hurly-burly of what they are working on and stay one step away so they can view the situation through a cool mind. In other words, yes, there are emotive issues, there are disagreements, there are customer issues, there are people inside our own organisation that don't agree. Some of my managers to this day feed on that as a justification as to why they are allowing certain things to happen or why some things don't move on. I don't enjoy that and I still get frustrated by it. It is important to quarantine the emotional issues and the personalities from the business issues because we mix them up, and for us as humans...that is a defence mechanism. To mix them up is a defence mechanism because it justifies your own behaviour, it means you don't have to do anything, plus it is somebody else's fault. To break that mix is to me important....if there is any role I would have after working in this career, it would be to help managers confront things in a positive way where their outcomes would improve by having a settling influence, a rational influence, but still have an emotive content and recognising the emotive content - because without emotion you don't drive anything. [Koby]

Of the five responses regarding 'influencing and politics', the most challenging issue was to manage up and down (but particularly up), but also to influence people to do things differently especially in a constantly changing environment. A further five responses fell into the 'employee engagement and motivation' category, with one noting that this was particularly the case when under high pressure

and another if there were silos in the organisation. Yet another participant felt that the most challenging issue was to get buy-in and credibility.

There were four participants who found retrenching to be their most challenging issue as a manager. Some of the aspects around retrenchment considered difficult were selecting those that were to be retrenched, informing those that were to be retrenched, dealing with the shock after telling someone they were retrenched, and facing everyone else after doing the retrenching.

**Hopes and expectations.** There were 33 responses regarding what participants hoped for in their organisation, and 28 responses noting what they expected from the organisation. In describing what participants hoped for in the organisation, around one third referred to some aspect of learning and growth. Another six hoped for enhanced performance, either by themselves or on the part of the organisation. The other responses revealing what participants hoped for involved the importance of people, communication, collaboration and improved conditions of employment. In looking at what the participants expected of the organisation, just under half of the 28 responses were focused on issues around leadership. Five responses were concerned with engagement, and the other responses highlighted a learning and growth focus, a people focus, recognition, a pragmatic relationship with unions, and improved organisational performance.

**Training programmes at work.** Almost all of the participants inferred or stated directly that they had been on a number of different training programmes, and that in each instance it was expected of them to apply what they had learned in the workplace. In describing their experiences, the majority of the participants described their training as 'traditional' or 'conventional', and 'nothing very different'. Specific participants described most of their training experiences as involving problem solving, or very practical and logical with direct learning outcomes, or merely adding more knowledge rather than changing mindset. Several participants stated that they preferred training that made a positive impact on them in the role of manager or leader by providing a new way of looking at things, or by giving new ideas that could be implemented. There were three characteristics of successful training noted by one participant: relevance and usefulness in what she was doing in her job, being able to immediately apply what she had learned, and having her thinking transformed or enriched.

Just over half mentioned the human instincts programme in their response, with most of them noting that they had found that it stood out as very different to any other kind of training programme they had attended. Not only was it considered as one of the few programmes that could be related back to day-to-day challenges as manager and leader, it also encouraged internal reflection as to how to utilise what had been learned. Its unusual teaching method involving the observation of animals and the high degree of interaction with other participants was perceived as

successful, as was the simplicity of the programme. At least two of the participants noted that it had resulted in them seeing things differently. Participants discussed various ways that their training experiences – with specific reference to the human instincts programme – had impacted on them in the organisation. It had provided a coping tool or a 'magnifying glass' to help understand behaviour, or made several participants think about how to do things differently. It had had a positive impact, resulting in heightened consciousness regarding the 'people stuff' and helping to depersonalise the way that teams were managed. One manager said that she had found that the only way to change the behaviour of others was to change her own behaviour. Another said that she had made more use of storytelling as it resonated more with her team and helped them to remember more.

### 7.3.2 Experience of human instincts programme

Right at the crux of the findings – and at the essence of the thesis itself – was the inquiry into what worked and what did not work from a pedagogical perspective in the programme. For this reason, there were a number of questions asked, such as how the audience responded to O'Keeffe, and what seemed to work, and not work so well. They were also asked how the human instincts knowledge from his programme resonated with their broader perceptions of human beings. Questions were asked regarding the impact of the programme after the fact, especially in regards to a change in behaviour. They were, for instance, asked about what happened the next day at work, after the training programme, and what others thought about it. Participants were asked what they had learned about themselves in the programme, and if there were situations when they had made use of what they had learned. In order to assess what other aspects they might have found relevant in terms of the learning experience, they were asked what management or leadership capabilities they felt had not been addressed through this training, and what could be done to improve on this. Furthermore, they were asked to imagine themselves as an expert in leadership training, and how they would go about training leaders at the Zoo.

#### *7.3.2.1 Content – resonance of human instincts knowledge*

From the results it was clear that the content had helped participants to better understand behaviour of both self and others through the use of a new perspective or framework, offering a new way to behave. There was only one participant who did not enjoy the content of this programme. Another participant noted that for him the programme was all about the content and the delivery was not important at all. It seemed easy for people to identify with the behaviour of the apes, with some commenting that they could see the same behaviour evident in specific human individuals they knew. O'Keeffe was considered to have used this to good effect, drawing in his audience from the start with images and stories appealing to the imagination and of course the strong feelings we have about exactly who we are as human beings. Another aspect that appealed to some of the

programme participants was that Jane Goodall's substantial body of work about the apes – and her obvious support for the programme – gave factual scientific credibility to content.

For this question, there were 86 responses noted in total from the 24 participants. Each of the responses detailing how the human instincts knowledge resonated with participants are grouped into the areas shown in ***Figure 7.2***. It is clear that the human instincts knowledge imparted in the training programme was considered to have a positive effect overall.

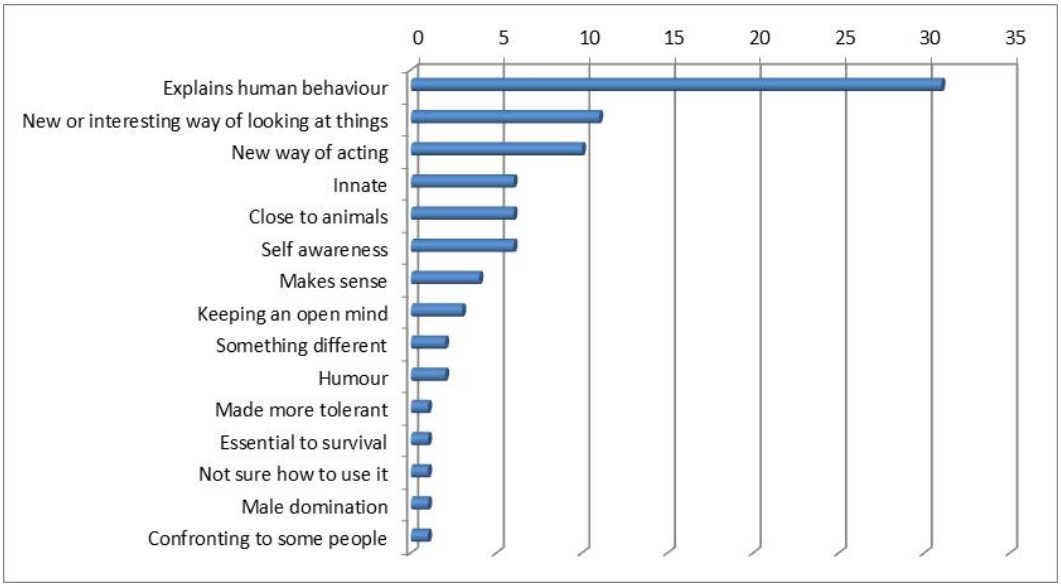



**Figure 7-2: Resonance of human instincts knowledge – number of responses for each "issue"**

In fact, one participant passionately volunteered that:

> …using instincts is essential. And to me that was easy, because I couldn't survive without them. [Hugh]

Another noted that human instincts knowledge had made her far more tolerant of the differences between people and between herself and others so that she could adjust her behaviour as a leader, especially as regards expectations of work performance:

> It gives you answers to problems you encounter in the workforce and all of a sudden you think, 'Oh that is why a person is behaving in a certain way!' It has helped me! I have even had comments from my team saying that I seem more relaxed. I think I just understand the individuals in my team more…linking their behaviour back to the human instincts, so I am more tolerant. I have also had to have a look at myself and I am a high achiever, I have very high standards, and I think I have realised that I can't expect that of every individual. Yes, I can guide them and help them, and ensure that they are doing their work as expected, but I can't get upset or stressed about it. [Olivia]

The highest percentage of responses revealed that human instincts knowledge resonated well with the participants because it helped to explain or predict human behaviour, either of the group or of oneself (those that noted that the knowledge had resulted specifically in heightened self-awareness are grouped in another category, 'self-awareness', as displayed in ***Figure 7.2***). One participant

suggested that the human instincts knowledge had provided her with a framework to explain and predict human behaviour, which was especially useful in a changing environment. Another noted that human instincts knowledge worked on several levels, whilst another spoke of how it enabled her to look at human behaviour from a number of different angles. Several of those responses noting that it explained human behaviour in the organisation are reflected in the following quotes:

> I guess what stood out was the making of a level of awareness about how people behave and why they behave, so understanding the people element in terms of leadership which is what it is all about. [Yuri]
>
> It is absolutely hand-in-glove because you see it every day, you see exactly what is happening, how see how people interact. [Thomas]

Of all 24 participants, there were two who did not report that the experience resonated altogether positively with them personally. In explaining this, one was not entirely negative in that he believed that the human instincts knowledge

> …captures us well as human beings I am not sure how to take that a step further. [Yves]

The other response was adamantly against human instincts knowledge and the programme overall:

> I did not identify with the material and it did not resonate with me because I felt it did not suggest an appropriate role for women in the organisation. It made me feel insignificant and that it was all about male domination. [Ruby]

One of the other 22 managers that participated noted that, although personally he felt that human instincts knowledge was beneficial, he felt that not everyone would have found the material to resonate. He explained that some people did not feel the need or were unable to understand how the programme could help them, and found it confronting and uncomfortable. In this instance he recommended that a reference could be made to the need for an open mind and an appreciation that this material could be useful even in certain roles where the perception was that this knowledge is unnecessary.

> There are those who don't have an interest or understand what we are trying to learn in these sessions who walk away thinking what a waste of time that was. [Nathaniel]

#### *7.3.2.2 Method – what worked and did not work*

On the whole, participants revealed that they found the material attention-grabbing and potentially useful in understanding the behaviour of others and of themselves, yet some found it hard to understand, remember and apply after the fact. Most felt that O'Keeffe presented in a confident manner, gradually drawing participants in by appealing to what they already knew but could use in new ways. He was characterised as someone who took care to ensure that all participants interacted, encouraging a climate of mutual respect, with time spent learning from each other. The following narratives give a sense of what participants felt about the programme:

> I think he captured his audience. We as sales leaders in the business, most people would say that we are scarred, cynical, sceptical individuals because what we do for a living is convincing people to do things that they don't necessarily want to do, right...and so I think you have to become a little cynical about things. And sales people are always very arrogant and there are all those sorts of personality flaws that we have, so I think for him to have been able to, you know, capture... I don't like the phrase...but capture the hearts and minds of that audience... I think he did. [Nathan]

> It was one of those courses where – you know how we do corporate training quite often – and this was one of the ones where the majority of the people spoke about it for at least several months afterwards. We even spoke about it a couple of weeks ago over dinner with some colleagues who attended with me. [Ian]

Eighty per cent of the responses to this question, which involved delivery aspects, were positive. Of the 121 responses from 24 participants, only 24 responses involved suggestions as to what had not worked so well in the delivery of the programme. The delivery aspects that were positive or considered to work well are described in more detail, followed by a section looking at the delivery aspects considered to require attention.

#### 7.3.2.2.1 What worked

In analysing the 97 responses made by the participants about what worked, it is evident that there are a number of areas considered to have worked well, each of which are displayed in ***Figure 7.3***. A total of 17 broad categories were defined. As can be seen, the depth of experience and personality of the presenter, Andrew O'Keeffe, is considered to have played a key role in the success of the delivery largely ascribed to his facilitative delivery style.[44]

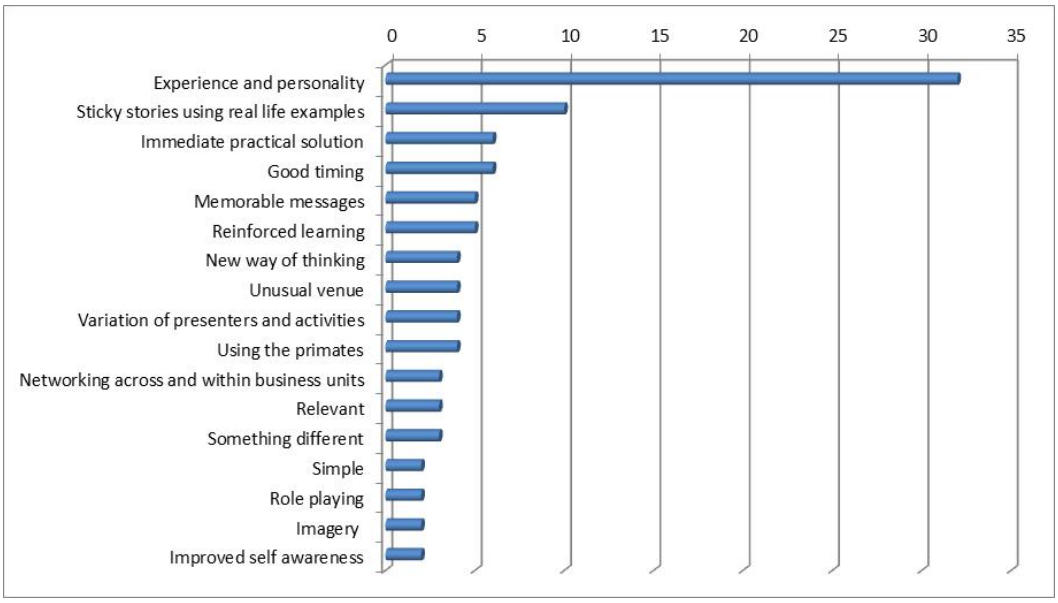



**Figure 7-3: Method – what worked – number of responses for each "issue"**

[44] This resonates with another question where participants were asked to provide a metaphorical perspective of O'Keeffe, asking to classify him as an animal. Perhaps not surprisingly, the highest percentage of respondents described him as a primate, such as the following: 'I would have to think chimpanzees because that was the context in which I was introduced to him. I would see him as one of the male 2 OCs. So very supportive, understands the hierarchy, but wants to be the architect and engineer of the group working well… so I see him as a real facilitator.' [Koby]

Other than personality, the characteristics that most impressed the audience were O'Keeffe's ability to open dialogue, his ability to understand the audience, his engagement with each participant at a personal level, his ability to facilitate the group, and his knack of simplifying content and translating it so that it was easy for participants to understand. There was also a comment that O'Keeffe delivered well because he practiced what he preached in terms of the content of the programme and was a good storyteller. As reflected in the following, there were several references to his ability to put the group at ease, firmly encouraging participation which led to some useful sharing and discussion.

> It is interesting in terms of the general engagement of the people and particularly given that it was quite different and the audience didn't necessarily have a lot of insight to what they were going to…it is always interesting at the end of the day in a programme and you go 'Wow, is that the time?' It is a good indicator of the content, the method of delivery and the presentation, so I would rate him very very high in terms of the engagement and the connection with the audience. [Yuri]
>
> I think we warmed to him very well. I certainly warmed to him very well – I think he has amazing energy and passion and enthusiasm come through for what he does and what he believes in. I really believe that he is talking to each and every one of us…you feel that he is talking directly to you and not just addressing the group so I felt that quite strongly. He is obviously very experienced at what he does and it comes through but he does it with such ease, and I think that because we are at ease, then it opens up for lots of dialogue and so on [Nadine]
>
> I wouldn't say I am jaded but a lot of the time I probably go in with the wrong perception, you know, I am staying out of work, but I was completely rapt from the moment that the training started to the time that it finished and if I think about my baseline perceptions, I don't remember him talking the whole time. I remember him more from a facilitative perspective if that makes sense. He would stop and let other people talk, so a lot of the time we spent learning from each other and I think he probably gave us the base core principles but then we took them and we ran with them and he allowed us to do that. [Siobhan]
>
> I think people warm to him so at the start he is quite unassuming, seems quite methodical about the process but then as the group's awareness of the alignment between chimpanzees and human behaviour and the tantalisation of the thought process starts to happen he gets that engagement. So it is actually a very good way of presenting because most people present very hard-hitting up front, you know, give you a challenge, whereas the nice thing – and I think it is a style thing – was that he gets his engagement over time to make you really look forward to the next thing. [Koby]

O'Keeffe was described as engaging the audience well despite teaching content and new ways of thinking about human behaviour that most would consider unfamiliar. What made the delivery of the programme more challenging was that the groups were a blend of different levels of managers and different business units or disciplines and O'Keeffe would need to relate to all of them simultaneously.

One of the aspects of the programme that participants most liked was when the presenter relayed 'stories' or examples of what had occurred at other companies but especially of company-specific case studies illustrating recurring problems in their own organisation.

> He draws the audience in…a very simple way to see that people are interested is to watch if they are sitting forward in their seats…there was a lot of engagement, mostly through the use of stories, strangely enough. [Nathaniel]

Closer analysis of the 10 responses regarding stories reveals that at least five of them had a reference to the telling of stories about examples within their own organisation that participants felt had enhanced the delivery because they could more easily relate to what was trying to be achieved through the programme. The fact that the presenter was perceived to understand the business in the use of his examples gave participants confidence in what he had to say. In the responses it could be gleaned that the use of recent examples in other organisations or institutions – or even in the media – had been useful as it had also illustrated what O'Keeffe was trying to relay in his programme. His use of examples also made the theory simpler to understand. These findings are reflected in the responses below.

> One of the most impressive things, I find often people running courses may not know the business that you have come from so whether he knew much about our company or industry before, I don't know, but he came across like he understood our business and he gave examples. It is quite clever because you suddenly think 'I've been in the situation', and I felt that I could relate quite quickly to whatever questions were being asked. [Yves]

> Certainly the content works because we have always used company-specific case studies, and (Andrew) has always worked with us, that actually pulls in those participants as opposed to hearing about Coca-Cola or Fisher-Paykel dishwashers. You are using examples that you can really relate to. [Emma]

> If it is too theoretical, it loses context very quickly. So I personally get a lot of benefit from real-life examples. I like reading these things and saying 'Wow, actually I don't know how I would do that…how did they do that and what was the outcome?' I think he doesn't get bogged down with theory, so he tends to explain the theory through examples. [Yves]

Also high on the list of areas described by participants as working well in the delivery of the programme was an immediate practical solution which helped in understanding, engaging, and responding to people. The perception that the material was delivered in a way that was simple to understand was echoed in what several participants said, and this was despite some comments that it was not always easy to remember all aspects of the content.

> I think that is what he was teaching or what we were part of his programme for, it wasn't just interesting, it was providing solutions. It provides solutions especially in terms of getting people on board. [Lianne]

> It is great to break things down, look at them from a different perspective. Not to exactly pin something to, is it loss, is it hierarchy and status, or any of the other things within his programme; it is more to actually look at things in a different

> light and different way, and that gives you a better understanding of why a particular situation went a particular way. [Timothy]

Some of the other areas or aspects considered to have worked well include good timing, either in terms of where participants felt they were placed as an organisation, especially regarding change management initiatives, or in terms of the good timing of the presenter in delivering the programme as described below:

> He gives plenty of time for the knowledge to soak into people's brains and let them absorb what they have heard. I am from a training background myself so I appreciate that because I think people need time to absorb. [Naomi]

Memorable messages were also considered an effective delivery mechanism. There were particular aspects of the programme or messages that stood out across the interviews, not least the power of the 'first seven words', the concept of 'loss aversion', the use of the 'relationship matrix' (also known as the 'gossip map'), and the behaviour of the 'alpha male'. These messages as well as other key aspects of the programme, as documented in a laminated A4 one-pager (see ***Appendix I***), were drawn on by O'Keeffe constantly throughout the training programme – and also afterwards by the participants themselves. These messages and the role they played in providing a common 'language' to all participants played a role in enhancing the delivery of the programme. They are highlighted in the comments that follow.

> Something simple, something memorable…for example one of the very first things Andrew talked about was the importance of the first seven words in any conversation you have and, it's funny, but of all the things that I have taken away from the programme – and I have done four of the five days now – that is the thing that I think about more than anything. And that has got nothing to do really with the majority of what he taught us but I have just found tremendous value in it. [Yves]
>
> What was good about it was that essentially post that time everybody stared to use the same verbiage – or similar verbiage. Maybe we all can't remember them all, but we certainly do remember some of them like loss aversion. [Thomas]
>
> That relationship matrix…I walked away and the first thing I did the next day was I started to work out how I could schedule more one-on-one time with those that I am not spending enough time with…so I think that is when you can say it works. [Nathan]

Also mentioned was that reinforced learning had strengthened the delivery of the programme. Participants emphasised that learning had been reinforced in a number of ways. It was felt that it was reinforced in terms of the preparation taking place before the programme started, as well as by repeating key elements of the course throughout the training programme. Participants felt that it was well reinforced by providing memorable messages and a common language that participants could share, both during the programme and afterwards within the organisation. Some references were made as to how the programme was talked about by participants for months afterwards, mostly because it was different and interesting. Some of the other ways that the learning was reinforced and that were mentioned in the responses included providing every participant with a

condensed laminated A4 page highlighting the nine human instincts discussed in the programme, and the presenter sending out regular newsletters about the material after the programme. A further strategy that was used in certain instances was to hold follow-up training sessions where the learning was reinforced through the sharing of key success stories or by working together and making use of human instincts concepts in an identified actual problem area within the business. Some of the comments by participants highlighting the effect of reinforcement in the delivery process are presented below.

> We have his A4 handout with us all the time, we use it, we always refer to it, he has definitely made an impact on all of us and we live and breathe it. [Nellie]
>
> Day Three is such a fantastic concept. That is probably the best part of the programme because when you come back with a story it is not just to Andrew that you are justifying what you learned but all of your peers, other managers, are listening to you, and there is pressure on you to make sure you come up with a clever story. [Naomi]

7.3.2.2.2 What did not work

The 24 responses to this question regarding the delivery aspects of the human instincts programme were categorised into 10 areas, and are graphically presented in ***Figure 7.4***. The chief delivery area considered to need attention was regarding improved contextualising of the programme.

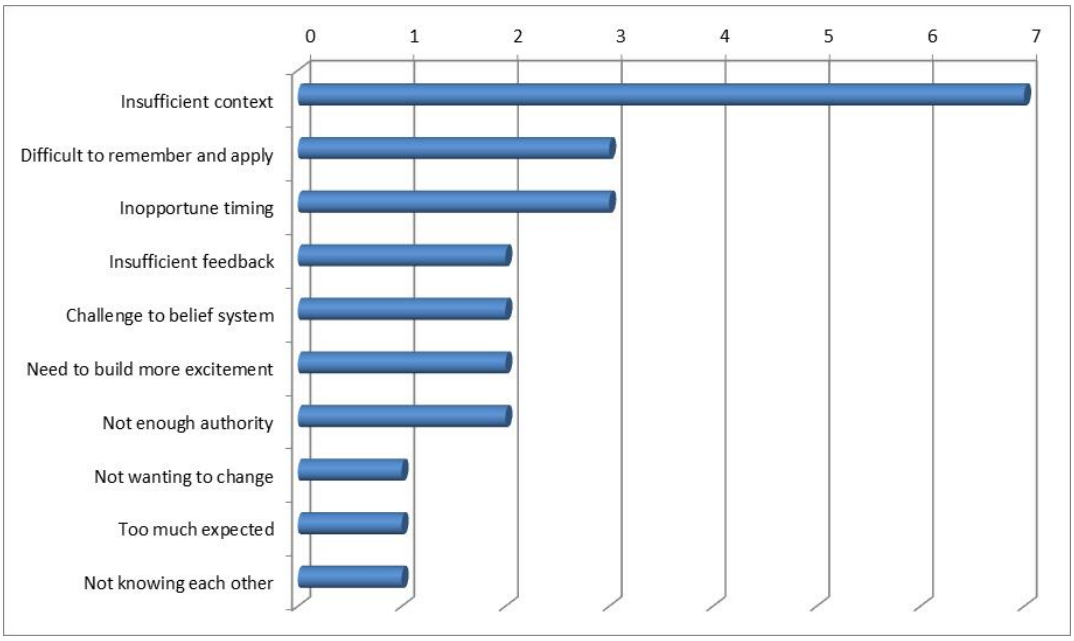



**Figure 7-4: Delivery – what did not work – number of responses for each "issue"**

Seven responses revealed that participants in the programme felt that more needed to be done to better prepare them before the time – and also during the programme itself. Most of these referred to a need to explain the material in more detail during the programme. However, one participant referred to the need for the programme to be explained more fully from an organisational perspective before the programme actually took place. This was especially important for those who had not been exposed to this kind of material before, as it could be difficult to for them to engage

with the programme if they did not fully appreciate how central it was to their everyday job as manager.

Although some of the participants, especially those who possessed a human resources background, were comfortable with the content of the programme and understood clearly how to apply it, this was not the case for everyone:

> What doesn't work so well with some of the people who go on the programme is their appreciation of what he is really doing, and their engagement with the course. For an HR person it works really well, whereas for an IT or finance person or an engineer, because of the traits that those individuals have, it isn't natural for them. Preparation and providing context beforehand is required for those kinds of people. [Nathaniel]

Echoing these sentiments was another comment suggesting that that the delivery of the programme would not work so well if participants did not have a good sense from their leaders of why the course was so important and how imperative it was to be fully involved in the programme from the start.

The majority of the responses in this category, however, argued that the delivery of the programme failed to work optimally because it was felt the material was not explained in sufficient detail during the programme itself, especially as this was a new way of thinking for most participants. It was felt that the theory behind the content needed to be explained more fully overall, so that it could be more appreciated. It also needed to be explained in specific ways if certain aspects of the course had the chance of upsetting participants due to their belief system. With regard to the latter, one participant felt that perhaps some aspects needed to be either more fully explained in terms of how they related to organisations or downplayed.

Three responses referred to the feeling that what was being delivered in the programme was difficult to remember and apply.

> I don't remember all of those messages, but I do recognise them regularly. [Ian]
>
> Maybe we all can't remember them all, but we certainly do remember some of them like loss aversion. [Thomas]
>
> With the person, depending on the situation, you are supposed to determine how the person is going to respond within your conversation…determine what instinct they are going to use, how they are going to deal with something. So it is not a normal thing to think of…it was good and it was interesting but it is hard to remember and apply. [Daphne]

Another three responses showed that delivery had not worked well because of inopportune timing, with regard to the presenter himself or organisational circumstances. All the other responses are shown in ***Figure 7.4*.**

#### *7.3.2.3 The next day at work*

For some participants there was a significant time lapse between the training programme and the interview – between six months and two years – so it was difficult for them to remember the specifics of the next day at work. However, they were able to relay what happened after the programme in a more general way. On the whole, the feedback from other participants about the course was positive, with most attributing it to certain memorable concepts that had been used in the delivery process (see ***Figure 7.5***).

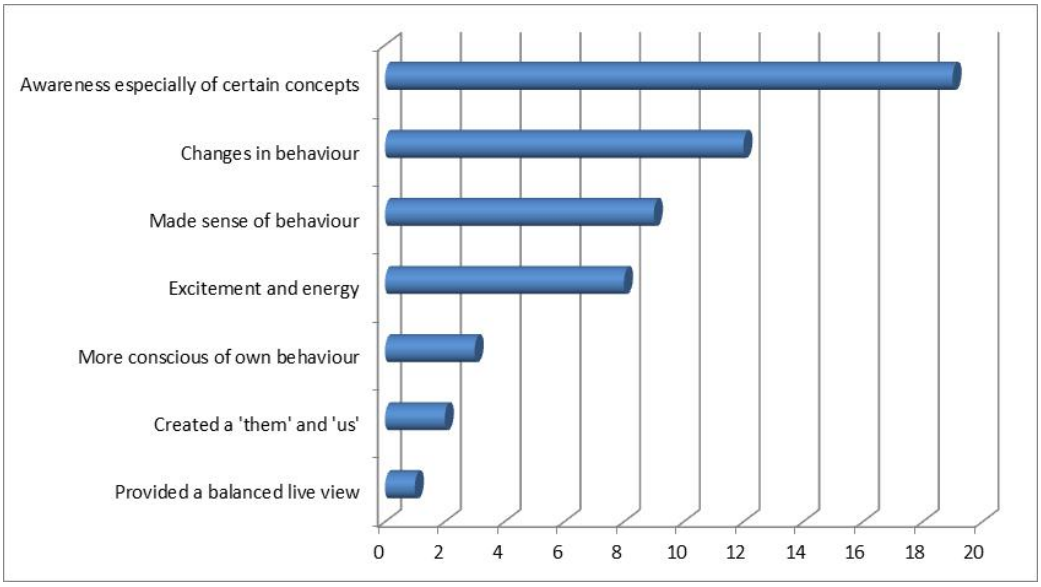



**Figure 7-5: The next day at work – number of responses for each "issue"**

In fact, several participants talked of being 'wowed' by the course and 'being on a high', and O'Keeffe's impact in terms of content and delivery appeared to have left a powerful impression. As noted by two of the managers:

> Certainly being at the Zoo makes it different and gives you a topic that you can talk to non-HR people, non-content, whatever you are training people who worked there, 'Ah, I was at the Zoo today, it was really cool'. I think...so that gives a gloss to it but if you take away that gloss you are still left with some very powerful stories. I am a great believer in storytelling. And I think because Andrew's style is very story-telling, you know, he puts up a picture of a tribe and tells a story, or an old Chinese guy and he says 'The mother is 110 and the son is 90-something you know' and he tells a story and they resonate with you, so it resonates to your personal experience outside of the content and they are stories that you can easily relate to so you learn quite quickly. [Emma]
>
> Everyone I spoke to was enthusiastic about what he said. And I think once again because it sounds simple it is when you put it together that you go 'OK, yeah'. It gives you more information than each individual thing. [Eddie]

Participants saw the programme as providing a leading mechanism or being used as a change management tool. Others saw the usefulness of the framework as a coping mechanism. Most participants talked of how the programme had heightened their consciousness about the impact of their behaviour and that of others, and some mentioned that they found the material useful to help

them think through possible scenarios rather than immediately react to a situation. There were certain concepts that stood out for participants - such as the impact of group size, the first seven words, or how gossip can be used to advantage.

Of the 54 responses, the highest number relayed that the next day at work they were more aware of certain concepts talked about in the programme, for example 'loss aversion' and the 'first seven words'. There were 12 responses revealing that participants saw or experienced a change in behaviour the next day at work, while nine responses highlighted making sense of behaviour as occurring the next day at work. There was a high level of energy and excitement the next day at work noted in another eight responses, largely ascribed to the fact that the programme had taken place somewhere as different as the Zoo, the common verbiage that emerged, and the bantering about the programme.

#### *7.3.2.4 Implementation difficulties regarding change in behaviour*

In looking more closely at the specific aspects of human instincts training that participants found difficult to implement, the 32 aspects mentioned by participants are grouped as in ***Figure 7.6***. As is evident, the highest number spoke about the challenge to stay conscious to what had been learned in the programme once they got back to their busy manager roles. Others talked about how a resistance to change on the part of others made it difficult for them to implement what they had learned, the difficulty of finding the time to think about what they had learned and implement appropriately, and how it was challenging to plan sufficiently so that one ended up instinctively doing.

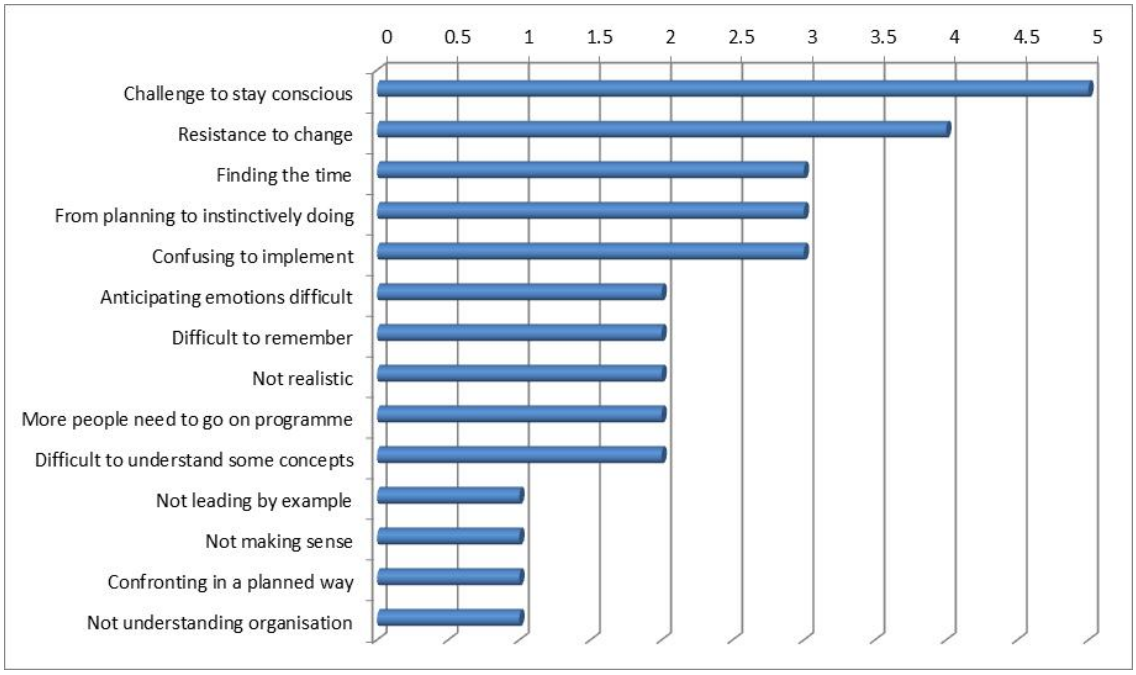



**Figure 7-6: Implementation difficulties in terms of change in behaviour – number of responses for each "issue"**

Three of the 24 participants reported that they did not have any difficulty with implementing what they had learned in the human instincts training programme, as they found they identified wholly with the material and how it could be used. They had also experienced some form of behaviour change. However, the remaining 21 participants found some aspect of implementing human instincts training challenging, and gave a total of 32 responses, with the highest number of them finding it difficult to stay conscious to the learning. One of the male managers explained that although he found it difficult to implement what he had learned in the programme, it had been the catalyst for a change of his behaviour as manager:

> No-one comes up and tells you, critiques your management style, so this is the first time that has happened and I think because I am fairly easy to get along with and people feel comfortable talking to me, and as far as I know, feel comfortable working for me, that everything is rosy, why would I change? And that made me think actually there are things I can work on...and do differently. [Yves]

Several of the 21 individuals found that although they had not experienced a dramatic change in behaviour, they felt that they had modified some of the ways they did things and at the very least had become more aware of behaviour.

> It didn't turn my behaviour round 360°, I mean obviously you are who you are, but I think certainly there were things that I was much more aware of that I wasn't before. [Nadine]

Of those that commented on their change in behaviour, it was mostly around seeing things in a different light and trying to elicit a more positive outcome. One participant described the way he had changed his behaviour as follows:

> Knowing how people are naturally going to react to a change situation and forming methods to make that easier for them to deal with and make those changes in a more positive aspect. [Thomas]

Another stated that:

> I have to say that every time you try to change the behaviour of a human being, it is going to be difficult. It is never easy, whether it is extremely difficult or impossible, whether it was easier than others, I am not sure whether there was any particular one which I thought was more difficult because there are things that are maybe outside of our control…It is easier now having these things because to me when we went through this training it was like, 'Well of course, why didn't we think of that?' It is almost common sense, yet it is almost like you didn't know about it until that light bulb moment I guess. [Nellie]

#### *7.3.2.5 Learned about self and how learning was used*

There were a number of ways in which participants described what they had learned about themselves by participating in the human instincts programme. In total there were 37 responses regarding what participants had learned about themselves. One participant found that the programme had provided him with a tool to question himself and his instinctual reactions:

> This framework or methodology gives you the ability to look at things and consider things a little differently and you go, 'Hang on, maybe I shouldn't go with my gut!' At the core it is actually the instinct, the gut, but you delay that and it is actually quite analytical and it is almost considered versus instinct. [Timothy]

For one of the participants who had also learned some useful things about himself, his view was that the tool provided him with choices to make him more effective as a leader.

The highest number of responses was around some aspect of self-awareness, with participants revealing what they had learned about how they behaved, whilst the other responses were about aspects of themselves that related to their behaviour as a leader or towards other people. Each of these was grouped into the following categories: awareness of own behaviour (19 responses), own leadership style (13 responses), and interaction with others (5 responses).

#### *7.3.2.6 Other ideas about teaching leaders at the Zoo: content and method*

It had become clear that the participants had gained much from the Zoo learning experience, finding the material resonant because it was familiar and practically useful, and they had acquired a new way of looking at the world that made sense human behaviour.

| Method | | Content | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Interaction | 4 | Workplace-based scenarios/examples + general | 4 |
| Hands-on practical physical experiential | 4 | Different animals | 3 |
| Preparation | 4 | Simple | 2 |
| Location | 3 | Condense more | 2 |
| Real-life example | 2 | Looking at oneself | 2 |
| Follow up | 2 | Give more context | 2 |
| Common vision | 2 | Relate ape behaviour to specific human behaviour | 2 |
| Imagery | 2 | Corporate human instincts rather than animals | 1 |
| Multi-media | 2 | Examine one's leadership skills | 1 |
| More observation time | 2 | More specific workplace based examples | 1 |
| Sharing of experience – own and others | 2 | Give more detail | 1 |
| Reflection | 1 | Female emphasis | 1 |
| Understanding how to implement | 1 | Gen Y | 1 |
| Include entire team | 1 | What is effective management behaviour | 1 |
| Asking questions…and leaving | 1 | Story based | 1 |
| Multiple levels | 1 | Other models of leadership styles | 1 |
| Collaboration | 1 | Sporting analogy | 1 |
| Multiple viewpoints from leaders | 1 | | |
| Debriefing | 1 | | |

**Table 7.1: Other pedagogical ideas for teaching at the Zoo: content and method (no. of responses)**

Furthermore, there was common language that had emanated from this experience and the reinforcement provided through various means. But there were other ideas as to how participants

stated they would go about teaching leaders at the Zoo. In total there were 64 responses to this question, with 37 relating to delivery aspects and 27 to aspects around content (see ***Table 7.1***).

**Content.** Several participants talked about how they would be interested in drawing on specific workplace scenarios as a learning tool whilst three of these same participants believed a combination of specific workplace scenarios as well as more general ones was key. Several other participants referred to the idea of making use of different animals in their leadership programme at the Zoo.

**Method.** Aspects of preparation for a training programme were noted by several participants (n=4) as being important if one could imagine oneself training leaders at the Zoo. One of these participants suggested that it was useful to talk to each participant after the programme about achievements whilst another three of them felt that preparing well before the programme took place was critical, either by holding individual discussions with each participant about goals or by encouraging participants to spend time understanding who is going to be teaching them so they get the most out of the day. Examples or workplace scenarios thought up before the time were considered by a participant to give direction to the programme from the beginning, with high involvement from 'insiders' from the organisation. It was also suggested that strategically organising participants beforehand would enhance training leaders at the Zoo and it should directly reflect the intention of the course, typically in terms of teams for 'breakouts' according to needs of business/knowledge base/personality types/business unit.

There were four participants suggesting that they would ensure that more interaction of various kinds was used. Some examples mentioned include role-play, debate, business cases, walking, talking, and especially making use of different methods or examples in showing what one is going to do. The importance of using hands-on, practical and experiential or simulated approaches was highlighted by another four participants in being important in training leaders at the Zoo, as were making use of real-life workplace-based scenarios. It was considered important to ensure that practical exercises occurred at an individual level to avoid the 'free rider' problem where some participants let the group do most of the work. One participant felt that learning should be applied in the workplace and these experiences brought back to the training group, almost like in a cadetship or apprenticeship scenario. Participants made comments about the location of the training programme they could imagine holding for leaders at the Zoo. One noted the importance of training taking place at an off-site venue helped to create a totally different 'mind space'. Another suggested that having held the human instincts programme at the Zoo made it:

> …one of the differentiators, it makes it stick in your mind, and helped in terms of visualising what happened in the course after the fact. [Yuri]

The third participant noted that it would have been more convenient to have held most of the programme in the city where it was easier for people to attend. See ***Table 7.1*** for the other suggestions regarding delivery.

### 7.3.3 Other impactful training programmes

In this section, responses to questions about other impactful training programmes, especially those that had resulted in a change in thinking or behaviour were asked of participants, including those in which they had experienced a dramatic shift in the way they viewed the world. They were also asked if they could give a story of when they had been stimulated or excited by an educational experience.

#### *7.3.3.1 Training programmes that change behaviour*

Some of the ingredients mentioned by participants as heightening the chance of a training programme to result in behaviour change include the following: ensuring the content is relevant and useful but simple enough to remember, immediate and easy practical implementation without a high overhead, providing ways for participants to remember what they had learned, setting up the programme in a particular way, ensuring it is held in the right location, using story and examples to get a message across, creating the desire to use the skills being taught, and providing a role for participants to play in the learning activity. Some of the other aspects that participants noted as possible catalysts for changing behaviour included: understanding different leadership styles, understanding the broader business context and how one fits in, making peers aware of one's performance, ensuring that training is driven from the top down, and the acquisition of crucial skills such as negotiating and listening skills and giving and receiving feedback.

There were 32 responses in total from the 21 participants who noted that they had been part of a training programme that had resulted in a behaviour change. Of the 32, 10 referred to human instincts training and how it had caused their behaviour change, whilst the others talked about other kinds of programmes - see ***Figure 7.7***.

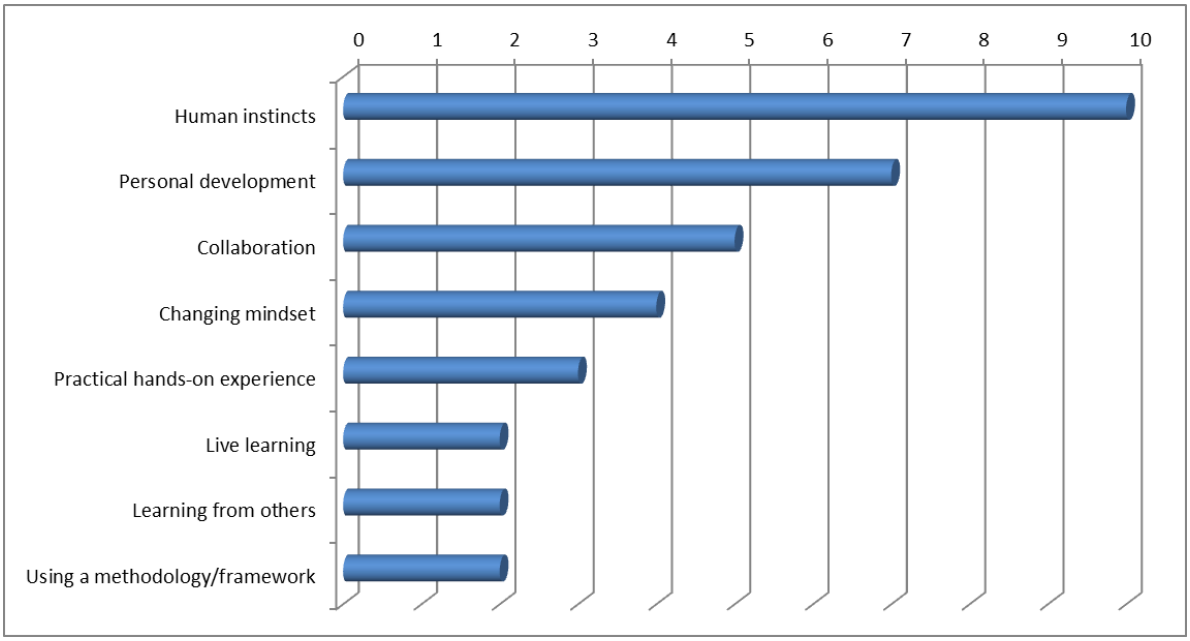



**Figure 7-7: Impactful training programmes that change behaviour – number of responses for each "issue"**

A participant noted that one of the biggest challenges in trying to change behaviour through a training programme was that it was difficult to remember what had been learned. In his view learning is limited in each programme that one attends and because there are usually several programmes that managers attend it is even more difficult. He explained it as follows:

> I think what tends to happen is you will take little tiny pieces from a lot of these courses, and that is always the challenge and then it is recalling them. But you will sit in the courses, and there will probably be a couple of little nuggets that you will pick up through the course and those things you will start to think about. [Edgar]

There were three participants who claimed that they had never been part of a training programme that resulted in a change in behaviour, and one that talked of small changes that had occurred over time.

#### *7.3.3.2 Dramatic shift in worldview due to education*

To be capable managers, it is important to be definite, yet it is also critical to be prepared to learn and be open to new ideas and different ways of thinking. This question is particularly interesting as it gives an idea of the kind of experiences that could shift the way that managers view the world. In responding to this question many of the participants explained that the dramatic shift in which they saw the world was not through a formal educational experience. Instead it was through other kinds of experiences. There were 45 responses to this question – see ***Figure 7.8*** for all the themes that were reflected in the responses.

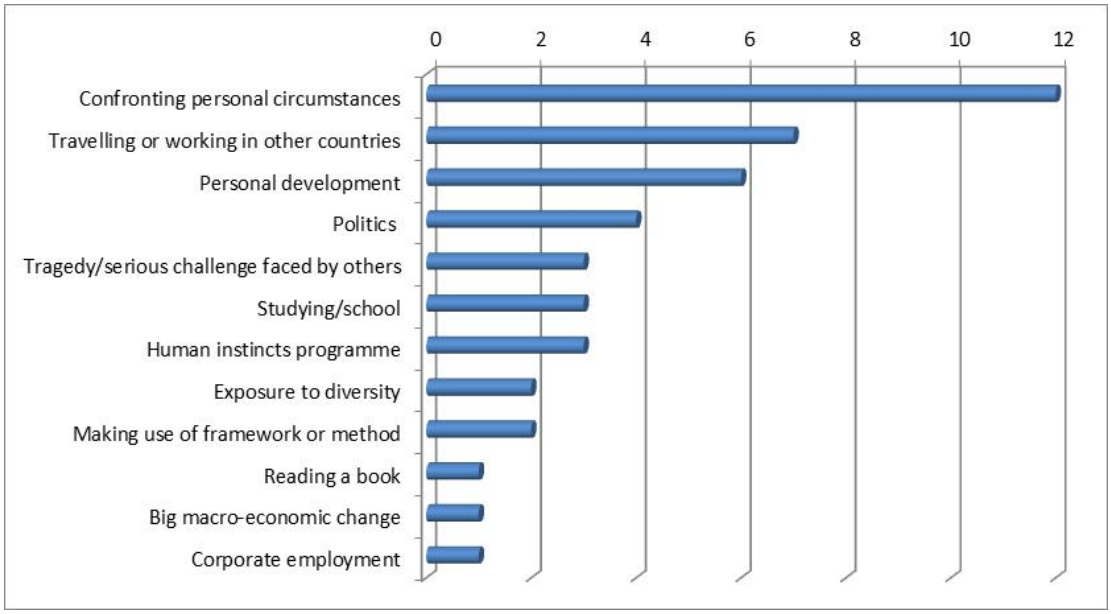



**Figure 7-8: Dramatic shift in worldview due to education – number of responses for each "issue"**

Of the 24 participants in this study, two stated that they had never experienced a dramatic shift in the way they viewed the world, whether it be through an educational or any other experience. One of them summed up his view of the dramatic shifts that may occur through an educational experience with the following statement:

> What I have heard in my experience is something that happens to someone, so whether that is a health-related thing, or the plane almost plummeted out of the sky, and then all of a sudden that is the dramatic thing. I think from a training and education or learning related perspective, I think it is a gradual thing. [Timothy]

Another participant offered a different perspective with his belief in the fact that he constantly experienced changes in his worldview. His view was that acquiring educational qualifications and becoming employed was only the beginning of the educational journey, and that far more learning was required in order to develop and grow to become a 'better' person. He felt that it was important to be continuously learning and personally confronted:

> It is an on-going thing for me. I will get an 'aha' moment out of reading the Financial Review, which I will bring back to the business and go, 'That's right, we may be better off doing something a little different'. [Koby]

One of the female participants echoed these sentiments, noting that by holding this view others possibly found her difficult to work with:

> What you are asking is about a huge shift. I am a great believer in shifting constantly…I am really big on learning…I steal ideas shamelessly, I read phenomenally, I talk to people, I try to apply different ideas and such…so I am kind of always shifting. I think I am pretty frustrating to work with because just when the team think they have got the measure of me, I am over there and I am starting to take them to a different place. A friend actually once described me as one of those Russian dolls: 'Oh you know you are like those Russian dolls – every time I just about think I know you suddenly a different person is revealed and I am just wondering how many different ones there are of you!' [Emma]

#### *7.3.3.3 Story of when stimulated or excited by an educational experience*

A total of 48 responses were recorded, giving an idea of the nature of the educational experience participants found stimulating or exciting. In describing their stories, participants talked about content (23 responses) and delivery aspects (25 responses) that had appealed to them. Each of these aspects were analysed in more detail, with some interesting findings.

**Content.** In classifying the 23 responses involving content in more detail, seven categories emerged, each of which are reflected in ***Figure 7.9***.

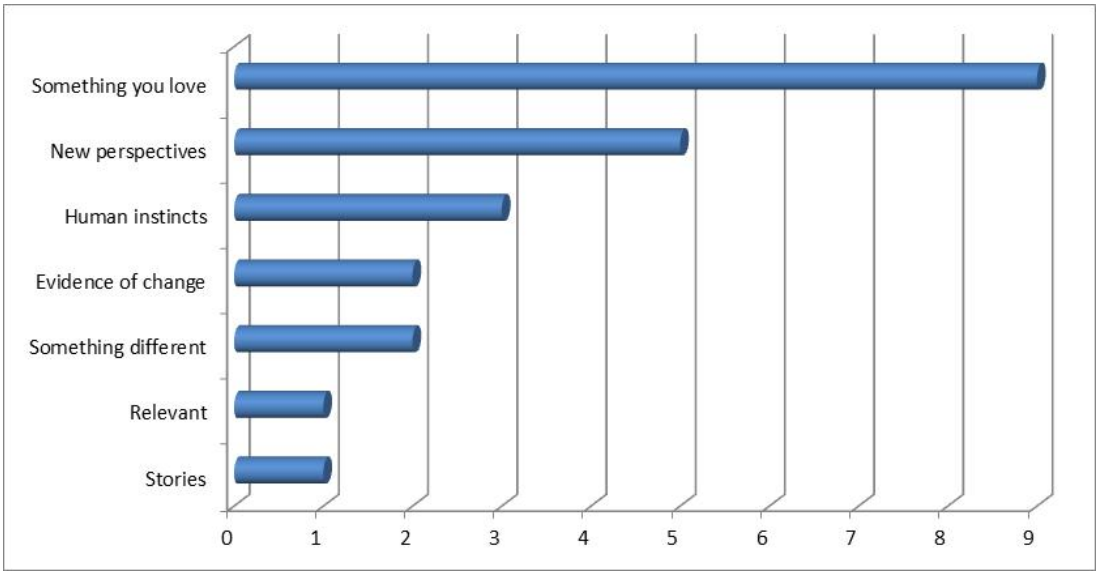



**Figure 7-9: Nature of the learning experience – content – number of responses for each "issue"**

'Something different' in terms of content and delivery was mentioned as something that excited or stimulated in an educational experience, as was 'doing something you love'. As regards the latter, one of the examples mentioned was 'anything to do with science'. Furthermore, content that was interesting and inspiring, as well as relevant and useful and had the ability to be used repeatedly with a tangible outcome was noted as exciting and stimulating. It was also 'lightweight' and simple, yet beneficial to the business or the participant in terms of time, energy or emotion. It was easy to understand, yet took the participant out of her comfort zone by posing challenges. It had a creative touch, with a mix of elements, offering 'nuggets' that were implementable and improved the performance of the participant at work or home. Furthermore, content that included models and/or frameworks was noted as adding excitement or stimulation.

**Method.** Closer analysis of the 25 responses regarding delivery culminated in the creation of 12 categories, as is evident in ***Figure 7.10***. Participants felt that practical exercises involving sharing of knowledge and experience made an educational experience stimulating and exciting. It also kept the participants challenged, engaged and focused. Real life examples or people – and learning in a 'live' situation – worked well to excite participants. Involvement and interaction in the learning process

was essential, on the part of both student and lecturer. It was also more effective if the presenter could relate well to the audience and was able to operate in a chameleon-like fashion with different groups within the audience. Participation and debate and the opportunity to see behind closed doors in an organisation were considered exciting and stimulating. Another factor that made learning exciting and stimulating was being able to apply what had been learned, or to practically test it out. This could occur through making use of role-play or case studies, for example, or practically testing out different leadership styles. An educational experience without structure could also be stimulating or exciting, as could learning by teaching, or listening to various speakers talking about issues related to the educational content. In some instances what made an educational experience exciting and stimulating was by observing, for example in looking at group dynamics. Lastly, an educational experience could be exciting or stimulating because it involved a feeling of reciprocity, of giving something back once a participant had benefitted from the learning process.

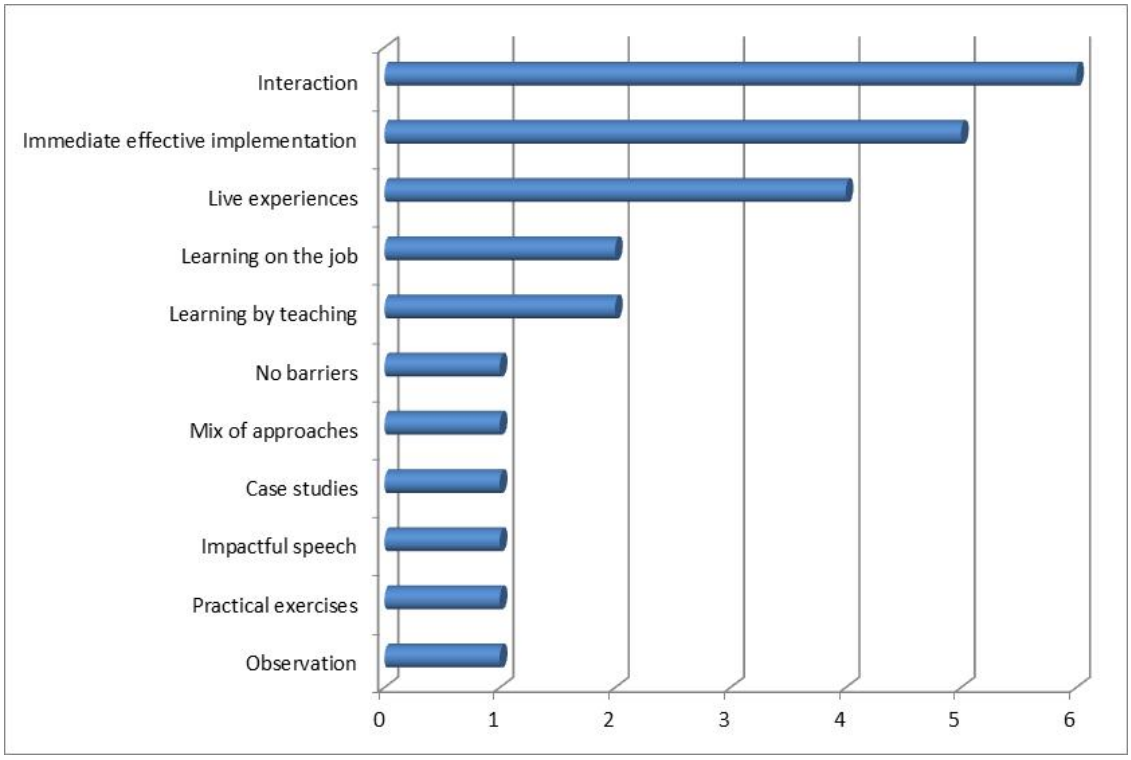



**Figure 7-10: Nature of learning experience – delivery – number of responses for each "issue"**

## 7.4 Themes and summary

### 7.4.1 Themes

***Content***

1. ***If the content is RELEVANT learners find it meaningful and practically useful***

   The empirical study has revealed that participants find the content meaningful because it is highly appropriate in providing solutions to one of their main challenges at work as a leader – knowing about the human instincts helps them to better understand people. They report

being able to use it to help them lead, manage change and as a coping tool, and watching primate behaviour resonates because they recognised similar behaviour of people they know at the office. Furthermore, the practical solutions which are easily implementable such as 'the first seven words' and the 'gossip map' were memorable because they are relevant and useful.

2. ***Including UNUSUAL content (and method) engages and stays in the learner's mind because it is interesting and exciting***

   Participants pointed out that this programme had stood out from other training programmes because it was different. Some of the reasons for this were because it was held at the Zoo, involved a high degree of personal interaction, use of story, and memorable messages, and provided a new perspective of human behaviour through the use of primate and Stone Age man metaphors.

3. ***Learners are able to enhance SELF-AWARENESS by looking at their own behaviour and challenging their worldview***

   Participant reported that understanding of the human instincts helped them to not only understand other people's behaviour, but their own too. Furthermore, the programme had helped them to learn more about themselves as leaders, and about how they interacted with others. In being asked about other programmes that had impacted on them and changed their behaviour or a dramatic shift in worldview, a relatively high number mentioned personal development programmes.

4. ***Understanding HUMAN BEHAVIOUR is possible by drawing on different perspectives***

   The Stone Age man and primate metaphors provided a novel way to look at human behaviour, and in this programme a range of interesting and different teaching content and method was used to unpack these metaphors. The success of these teaching methods was reflected in the positive response from participants, and observable to me as participant observer in the programme in terms of the way participants were engaged throughout the learning experience.

5. ***If there is an EMOTIONAL connection learners will find the learning experience meaningful***

   There were several occasions, during the programme and the interviews, on which participants expressed positive emotion regarding the programme. Participants reported that after the programme there was a feeling of excitement and 'feeling high' at work, and there was much humour involved in discussing with others how they had 'learnt from the monkeys at the Zoo'. Furthermore, I personally observed the number of 'aha' moments that occurred during the programme that solidified the positive impact it had on them, and how useful and meaningful they found the learning experience.

***Method***

6. ***Providing NEW PERSPECTIVES allows for transformation as it enables learners to understand things in new ways***

   The new perspective provided through the human instincts material, and indirectly by the discipline of evolutionary psychology, was reported by participants to allow them to see things in a new light. Although it felt strangely familiar, they were able to gain new insights into human behaviour. Participants reported that the human instincts knowledge resonated because it offered a new or interesting way of looking at things, providing 'aha' moments.

7. ***Using STORY engages learners because the messages are relevant and meaningful***

   The use of story was reported by participants to be an important pedagogical delivery tool, with those mostly valued being specific to their own company but also those recent stories about other companies. As participant observer, I could see how effective the use of story was in presenting the nine human instincts, especially when complemented by the use of images: I could see everyone leaning forward in their seats as O'Keeffe commanded their undivided attention. O'Keeffe made use of stories of different kinds, from the use of recent media or work-based stories to far more personalised stories which resonated more deeply in terms of who we are as a human race.

8. ***Use of METAPHOR helps learners to understand complex issues in simple ways through comparison***

   As participant observer, I saw how effective the use of the primate and Stone Age man metaphors was in this programme. O'Keeffe was strategic and highly effective in terms of how he unpacked them in persuading participants about the similarities we share with primates in terms of behaviour, and with Stone Age man in terms of the hardwired instincts that we possess. In this way, he was able to facilitate the understanding of human behaviour in simple ways through these comparisons, with the insights and perspectives proving particularly useful in the workplace as leaders.

9. ***A VARIETY of methods allows the learner to be engaged at several levels and appeals to different parts of themselves.***

   It was clear to me as participant observer that the range of teaching devices used by O'Keeffe helped to engage participants in different ways. Not only did he unconsciously draw them in through the use of the persuasive unpacking of the metaphors, he also drew on different speakers and numerous pedagogical delivery tools such as the use of sticky messages, stories, images, role play, individual challenges, small group work and plenary discussion. He also changed the physical surroundings several times during the learning experience, working in different rooms, and taking a walk down to the chimpanzee

enclosure. Each of these methods tapped on the intellect, mind, body and spirit in different ways, and at different levels.

10. ***Learning in small FAMILY-SIZED GROUPS works well to create a sense of belonging***

    I noticed the effectiveness of O'Keeffe's choice of size in working group when participants were set with a challenge. It was in line with what he was teaching in the human instincts material, that people work best in family-size groups because they felt a sense of belonging, and I could see that working in these smaller groups ensured that everyone was fully engaged in the learning. With no more than four people in each group, each person felt accountable to make contributions and stay involved all of the time.

11. ***ACTIVE PARTICIPATION helps to immerse learners because they are involved***

    Participants valued the high level of active participation in the programme, and there were several who noted that if they were to teach leaders at the Zoo they would ensure high levels of interaction and hands-on practical work too. As participant observer I had noticed the effectiveness of using a range of different kinds of interactive methods, including small group and plenary discussions, but also debriefing and informal discussion during breaks. The interaction was almost constant in the programme after the human instincts had been presented.

12. ***FACILITATIVE instruction that is open and shows understanding of the learner's reality makes them receptive because they believe in what they are learning***

    Almost a third of the participants reported the instructor's personality and experience to have been the most effective delivery method used in this programme. In particular, it was revealed at several points that what they most valued was his facilitative approach where he would provide challenges and allow the group to work out solutions on their own. Furthermore, they enjoyed the fact that he was experienced and had a clear idea of the nature of the challenges they experienced at work.

13. ***Providing a PRACTICAL SOLUTION that matches the learner's reality and can be easily implemented helps to engage***

    More than a third of the participants reported that the most the human instincts framework provided them with a practical solution that enabled them to make sense of behaviour at work. They also found some of the applications taught by O'Keeffe to help in providing solutions, most notably 'the first seven words' and the 'gossip map'.

14. ***MEMORABLE MESSAGES stay in the learner's mind because they are useful and meaningful***

    When asked about their next day at work, and what the impact of the learning was, the highest number of participants mentioned that they were aware of certain concepts such as the impact of group size, 'the first seven words', loss aversion, and how gossip can be used to advantage. In my interactions as participant observer I could see how much participants

enjoyed these concepts, and how useful they found them, mostly because of their usefulness and meaningfulness.

15. ***REINFORCEMENT OF THE LEARNING helps the learner to retain what has been learned because it is a reminder***

    There were several participants who emphasised the effectiveness of O'Keeffe's approach to reinforcing the learning, especially as he used a range of learning tools. Whilst during the programme he would repeat many of the concepts involved, afterwards he favoured follow-up days so that participants could share their stories about how they had applied the learning at work. He also sent out a regular newsletter, which reminded people about what they had learnt, and he provided each person with an A4 laminate of the nine human instincts so they could stick them on their office desks. The Zoo location and use of the primates further reinforced the learning because it was unusual and interesting, and sometimes humorous, providing much interesting material for discussion.

16. ***SHARING of experience helps learners to learn about how to deal with their own challenges and how the learning can be applied***

    When asked about other impactful programmes that had stimulated them, several participants reported that they had enjoyed practical exercises that involved sharing of knowledge and experience. Furthermore, in my interactions with participants, I had heard from those who had attended follow up days that the most powerful part of the programme was the sharing of stories of application by way of example.

17. ***Use of HUMOUR in the learning process invites students in to learn because it creates a positive learning environment***

    Several participants mentioned the bantering that had taken place during and after the programme regarding their learning experience. They found the primate behaviour very funny, especially the alpha male, and enjoyed telling people that they were learning from the apes. This had created a positive learning environment, and helped to keep the learning alive long after the programme had finished.

18. ***Learners need to be provided with enough CONTEXT to understand the relevance of the learning, and how it applies to the workplace***

    There were several participants who felt that delivery of the programme had fallen short because the material had not been explained sufficiently during the programme. As participant observer, I had felt the same way, wanting to understand more about where the human instincts material had come from and why it had been selected. In providing more information, and being more specific about the background theory I felt it would help to enhance the relevance and create greater commitment to the learning experience.

### 7.4.2 Summary

In general terms, this empirical analysis of responses to the study of the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme revealed that the *content* of this programme was perhaps the most powerful pedagogical tool, in the form of nine 'human instincts' extracted from evolutionary psychology literature. It is the provision of a new 'lens' which provides the 'aha' moments that help to make sense of human behaviour, thus offering a highly relevant tool in helping leaders to address the most challenging component of their everyday role: managing people. This perspective not only sheds light on the behaviour of others, it also helps them to become more self-aware of their own behaviour. Furthermore, it appears to feel familiar, and reveals that there are common behaviours possessed by all human beings.

In addition, in regard to *method* and delivery, participants made it clear how much they valued O'Keeffe's open and facilitative style, and they appreciated his understanding of their workplace reality. It is clear that he successfully engages through the use of a range of pedagogical delivery devices – notably the provision of something different in terms of content and method, extensive personal interaction, use of stories that are easily relatable and relevant, memorable messages, metaphors, and the provision of useful practical and immediately implementable solutions in the workplace. The primate and Stone Age man metaphors unfold in ingenious ways that tantalise the mind, providing enough to entice participants into wanting more, yet holding back on the detail. There is a tension here in finding the right balance between providing enough substance to satisfy participants, yet keeping them interested by letting the detail unravel gradually.

Reinforcement was an important element in this programme, for as revealed by participants, there are various ways in which the learning experience is rendered 'sticky'. The Zoo location was mentioned many times by participants as a key factor differentiating the programme from any others they had attended. And not only are messages made memorable by being practically useful, meaningful or humorous, there is also a common verbiage which emerges and transfers into the lives of participants – at work and at home. The bantering about 'learning from the apes' and 'alpha male' behaviour, although not intended by O'Keeffe, helps to cement the learning further. His newsletters and A4 laminate of the human instincts adds to this, but perhaps most powerful is the collaboration in follow-up sessions where participants share their stories of application of the learning by way of example. Thus, although a number of participants reported the learning as difficult to apply for various reasons, it appears that it had retained its significance and stayed in their minds after the fact. Interestingly, there were several participants who mentioned that knowledge of the human instincts had made them question their own instincts, so that rather than merely relying on gut-feel they would stand back and reflect before acting.

Following the collection and tabulation of responses, the data was explored for key themes and issues. This exploration was guided by the themes identified in the literature review, as 'sensitising concepts'. Rather than simply illustrating the relevance of these themes from the literature, however, the data added different themes and nuances, and elaborated detail in a manner that proved to be highly significant for the subsequent development of design principles. What follows is an elaboration of the key themes that were uncovered.

# 8 Dialogue with Practitioner: Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme, Design Principles and Prototype

This chapter presents the findings from the dialogue with the management education practitioner, Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans. The conclusions were derived from a sequence of nineteen interviews and discussions held with him over the 2011-2014 time period, in regard to his leadership programme held at the Zoo, the development of a set of neo-Harvard case study pedagogical principles, and the design of an MBA prototype course based on applying these principles to the upgrading and customisation of his programme. In each set of interviews there was a focus on a particular challenge:

1) co-developing a story of Hardwired Humans and its most valued pedagogical content and method components;
2) outlining O'Keeffe's experience in working with the four organisations - Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains, and Thales - whose representatives were interviewed in the empirical critique of the Zoo programme;
3) reflections on and rating of desirable neo-Harvard case study themes from the literature review and the empirical study of attendees of the Hardwired Humans programme;
4) co-developing a set of pedagogical design principles and model for a neo-Harvard case study method prototype; and
5) operationalising the design principle model: co-developing the pedagogical prototype based on these principles for the MBA context.

As outlined in ***Chapter 6***, the process involved cyclical dialogic discussion, with a gradual interactive emergence of themes, ideas and resolutions. Throughout the dialogue there was a constant shifting and re-organising of pedagogical ideas and concepts until solutions were found.

O'Keeffe's solid pedigree in human resources and leadership development (see ***Appendix L***) and his discernible success in developing the Hardwired Humans consultancy from scratch, provided an invaluable resource for me. Through these discussions with O'Keeffe the limitations of the Harvard case study method became even clearer to me, as he had built up experience of what worked and what did not over many years. In the act of merely explaining to him what I was trying to do, it helped me to work out what some of the options might be for a new pedagogical format. His Zoo programme provided an ideal example of a more extended Harvard case study method in action, and I was curious to understand what made it so successful. Despite the robust growth of his business, and expansion through franchise operations not only within Australia but beyond its borders, O'Keeffe demonstrated his commitment to our project by actively participating in regular dialogue with me. His open and constructive communication style, and willingness to work closely with me in

generating solutions was heartening, especially when the depth required in a study of this nature became clear.

Throughout the process I was conscious of how our different backgrounds were going to impact on each other. For my part, I was a forty-something female immigrant from Africa who had a research and writing background. I had a deep interest in personal development and life-long learning, and in how to enhance the impact of leaders in organisations through effective pedagogy. The literature reviews that I had undertaken for the purposes of this study had convinced me of the dire need for pedagogical transformation in the MBA setting in general, and in the use of the Harvard case study method in particular. But the closest I had come to actually being a leader in a corporate setting was in writing about organisational challenges from a leader's perspective in the true Harvard case study method format. O'Keeffe came from a different world, a fifty-something male Australian who had grown up in the Australian outback, starting out in industrial relations in the mining industry. Since then he had worked in human resource leadership positions with a number of iconic organisations such as IBM and Sinclair Knight Mertz (SKM), and had been at the coal face of corporate life not only as a leader himself, but in finding ways to best educate leaders. What was going to emerge from our discussions about, amongst other things, appropriate pedagogy for leaders?

## 8.1 Co-developing a story of Hardwired Humans and its most valued pedagogical content and method components

The story of Hardwired Humans was initially developed through access to programme documents and interactions between O'Keeffe in three meetings. Throughout the dialogue process with O'Keeffe he alluded to his teaching methods, and on five later occasions when we met his pedagogical approach and the changes made over time were discussed in more detail. In the process of developing the story of how O'Keeffe began his company, the programme and the programme's subsequent development provided a window into his world. From O'Keeffe's perspective, the dialogue provided him with the opportunity to stand back and reflect on his work from the perspective of a practitioner and owner of the business, and taking part in this process as well as having his development documented and analysed provided him with insights that he would not otherwise have gained (see ***Appendix M*** for his insights). From my perspective it was invaluable to have access into how his mind worked and to learn about the factors which played a role in the growth of his company. I was used to a critical academic approach to describing and explaining how things work, but found O'Keeffe's approach to be different, sometimes unexpectedly rigorous and exact, while at other times more impressionistic. By writing the story of Hardwired Humans it provided the backdrop to the critique of the Zoo programme, so that what worked well pedagogically (and what did not) could be better understood in terms of O'Keeffe's underlying philosophy about teaching and learning, and his view of teaching methods.

This story is presented in more detail as part of *Chapter 5: Evolutionary Psychology and the Story of Hardwired Humans*. Together we crafted as accurate a documentation of the journey as possible, using a collaborative approach that helped to capture what O'Keeffe had experienced since opening his doors for business. It was a process that resulted in a story about what had happened which would not easily have been developed by either of us - as a practitioner and academic researcher - on our own. In the first interview we discussed some of the 'evidence' that I could use to demonstrate the success of the business, and O'Keeffe pointed to various articles relaying the impact of Hardwired Humans leadership programmes on each of the four companies (Symantec, Philips, Thales and Metro Trains) that had been published in magazines such as *HR Monthly*. He also mentioned several e-mails that had been sent to him by leaders who had attended the Zoo programme, documenting the value they had extracted from their experience. There were a range of measures that we decided could appropriately capture the growth of the business - number of newsletter subscriptions, programme days, participants, accredited practitioners, and participant kit order of practitioners - as illustrated in the story. One of the other ways that O'Keeffe measured the success of the business was through using the *Human Synergistics Life Styles Inventory™ (LSI)*[45] before and after leaders participated in the Zoo training programme (an example of which is in ***Appendix J***).

In one of our 2014 meetings where we discussed the effectiveness of teaching methods and content used by O'Keeffe I had prepared a list of the content and methods I had observed him using on the Zoo programme and those that he had talked about in our earlier discussions. The list was comprehensive, and is shown in ***Table 8.1***. On meeting up I showed him the list and asked him to give me an idea of which methods he felt worked best, and these are italicised in bold blue font. We discussed each of these highlighted aspects of content and method, and the underlying rationale for the methods used in more detail.

O'Keeffe explained that on Day One the most impactful aspects of the programme were the human instincts, 'the first seven words', and organisational design, whilst on Day Two they were gossip (including the gossip map and memo), performance management (avoiding the 'feedback sandwich') and change management. If the programme ran for more than two days, O'Keeffe felt that the aspects that stood out on Day Three were how to manage performance well and how to deal with several challenging situations. A further impactful aspect on a later day was using the Savannah Game. The details of the content and method he considered most effective are in ***Appendix N.***

[45] See http://www.human-synergistics.com.au/Solutions/DevelopingIndividuals/LifeStylesInventoryIndividual.aspx. This is a tool designed to promote transformational change with the feedback helping individuals more clearly understand what is currently supporting and hindering their personal effectiveness, with guidance to developing more constructive styles of thinking and behaving.

| Method | Content |
|---|---|
| 1. *Experience and personality of instructor*<br>2. *Class set-up – u-shape and family size groups*<br>3. Different speakers<br>4. Fast pace<br>5. *Active participation*<br>6. *Variety of teaching methods*<br>7. *Sticky concepts*<br>8. *Stories*<br>9. *Zoo location illustrates zoological perspective of humans, unusual, humorous, offers open space to think new things, emotional connection of childhood memories*<br>10. Discussion<br>11. Connection with nature and sustainability<br>12. Networking between learners<br>13. Learning from each other's experience<br>14. Connection to goals of organisation<br>15. Support from top leaders<br>16. Relevance made clear before and after<br>17. Buy-in beforehand – 20-minute phone call beforehand and syndicate group description of humans at the zoo<br>18. Introduction which makes it personal<br>19. *Use of human instincts principles in teaching approach*<br>20. *Evolutionary psychology metaphor of hardwired behaviour - human instincts*<br>21. *Pictures*<br>22. *Primate metaphor*<br>23. *Discussion and observing primates in zoo enclosure*<br>24. Stories and pictures of specific primate individuals<br>25. Scientific work of Dr Jane Goodall – life and JGI Institute<br>26. Humour in learning from the apes and being at the zoo<br>27. *Practical application*<br>28. Illustration of practical solutions<br>29. *Relevant real life scenarios specific to organisation*<br>30. Debriefing<br>31. Gossip map<br>32. First seven words<br>33. *Group work – pairs, or groups of 3 or 4*<br>34. *Role-plays*<br>35. Case studies – Harvard and own<br>36. Sharing of stories as a leader<br>37. Quiz<br>38. Sharing of key take-aways<br>39. Sharing of what has been learned<br>40. A4 laminate or 9 instincts<br>41. Regular newsletters<br>42. *Spacing the programme over time**<br>43. *Sharing by example of application of learning**<br>44. LSI and LSI mat*<br>45. *Savannah game** | 1. *Human instincts concept – link to evolutionary psychology*<br>2. *Chimpanzee behaviour*<br>3. *Similarities and differences between chimps and humans*<br>4. *Applications of the learning to various aspects of managing in organisations such as performance management, organisational design etc.*<br>5. *Resonating and meaningful as explains who we are as humans*<br>6. *Unusual yet familiar – makes sense because it applies*<br>7. *Gives framework for understanding self and others*<br>8. *Provides people focused solutions in a practical way*<br>9. *First seven words*<br>10. *Gossip map*<br>11. *Alpha male behaviour*<br>12. *Change management tool* |

Note: those methods marked with an * are only used in the programme if there are spaced out sessions (if it goes past two days)

**Table 8.1: Content and teaching methods used in the Zoo programme**

## 8.2 Working with Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains, and Thales

In his dealings with representatives from each of the four organisations which were involved in the empirical critique of the Zoo programme, O'Keeffe revealed the content and delivery aspects that had worked best in each instance. For instance, in the case of Symantec one of the leaders had read O'Keeffe's book 'The Boss' and was curious about what he could do for the organisation. He invited

him to run the LSI profiling tool in order to measure perceived leadership behaviours of leaders, and after this O'Keeffe ran a small one-day programme and then, later on, a two-day programme with Symantec at the Zoo. He also ran one-on-one sessions with several of the leaders about each of the human instincts and how to use the framework. O'Keeffe had experienced a positive response from those who attended the programme, and he ascribed this to *'this incredible sense-making step'*, providing insight in the same way as he had experienced many years before when he first read Nigel Nicholson's article. Importantly, he sensed that it matched their reality, and he ensured this as part of the design by working with the organisation before the time to look at situations that would fit the reality of the group. The way that he approached the training was to provide the opportunity for practical application of the learning, and he provided a 'safe' environment, where participants were not put on the spot. O'Keeffe revealed that he was particularly detailed in the design of the programme, so that he knew exactly what the facilitating questions were going to be, what tasks he would ask participants to undertake, and what scenarios he would run. Over time, he had eliminated as much reading as possible, especially whilst the programme was running, and shifted to a more active approach by providing more time in activities and role plays or discussion. Early on he had broken groups up into syndicates too often, and instead now did more of a mix of plenary discussion depending on the 'mood' of the group. He explained this as follows:

> You get a mood from a group as to whether they're valuing and liking the plenary, let's say there's 14 or 15 people, whether that works with such a group where there is open participative discussion, that is most people are participating, most people are having a voice, and they're energised by having a wider discussion, versus always breaking out into smaller syndicates. Some groups might be dominated by a couple of people, and I found, well, that doesn't work so well as plenary, we'll do more syndicate work with that group.

Some of the leaders at Philips had exposure to O'Keeffe's ideas at the [46]Human Resources Directors Forum, and realising that they were about to manage a significant organisational restructure in the wrong way, approached him for help in managing the change. They sent two groups on a two-day workshop, with a focus on applying instincts in a change situation (as opposed to Symantec which was about general leadership skills). He describes this as follows:

> And so we did that, and they left with key insight, a framework which would predict why people will ask and behave in certain ways. It helped the leaders to be then less critical of people, because then they would respond in a predictable way according to human instincts, so it gave an explanation for that. And it gave the leaders a common behaviour set and some key actions. It was great with Philips, we then checked in 90 days later. We had a day checking in with how they applied the learning and a lot of them got up and shared their story about 'This is what I did as a basis of the knowledge'. And the key thing that came out there was that the change had been implemented better than other change they'd

[46] The Human Resources Directors Forum is a Sydney-based organisation with a primary purpose to enhance the effectiveness of members in achieving their organisational goals. It operates through networking and knowledge sharing. It has as a website at www.hrdirectorsforum.com.au.

> done in the past, and that invariably the managers talked about how instincts gave them just a really useful framework about what they needed to do, how they could influence outcomes, and reading why their teams behaved in a certain way.

In this case the training was anchored specifically around the change process, and how each human instinct related to this in managing the change, but in terms of teaching method was run in a similar manner to the two-day Symantec programme.

One of the leaders from Thales also heard O'Keeffe talk at the Human Resources Directors Forum, and invited him to explore how the learning could be applied to their organisation. In this case, Thales was about to embark on the implementation of changes to the performance management system, but it was being done at a difficult time of the year when people would perceive a degree of loss in various ways. A group of managers attended a two-day programme at the Zoo, with the focus again on change management. O'Keeffe felt that it has been well-received as an interesting and practical programme, with leaders having a course of action to follow in managing a difficult change process. The programme had been run in a similar fashion to that of Philips, with a focus on workshopping change management issues and finding specific practical outcomes or deliverables.

In the case of Metro Trains, one of the leaders had heard O'Keeffe speak and professionally connected over the years. The organisation was going through a merger with three other organisations, and O'Keeffe was approached to help design a training solution to deal with the change. Together with the learning and development manager, he decided to change the format of the intervention and run it over five days spread out over a year, and use the LSI profiling tool pre- and post-training to monitor the shift. Because he now had more training days, O'Keeffe introduced several new delivery techniques, such as the sharing by example of how the learning had been applied. He found that spacing the training would bring in 'a continuity of thinking of coming back to the Zoo', and it had proven so effective that Metro had run a series of programmes of this nature. One of the things that O'Keeffe introduced that did not work so well was to form groups to work on a project outside of the programme, and this was largely because it was at a time when many people were under pressure in dealing with the change and uncertainty involved in a merger of significant magnitude.

O'Keeffe felt that the most successful programme that he had run was with Metro Trains. This programme, which he referred to as the 'Ferrari extent of the possibilities', was run over five days spread out over a year. This meant that there was the initial learning, and then returning to learn more and share examples of application, testing and trialling the learning. This programme had also involved the use of a leadership profiling tool, the LSI, and used before and after the programme. In this way the shift towards a more constructive leadership style in the organisation had been demonstrated, and O'Keeffe felt good when he saw how much more competent they felt about

people leadership by making use of a working model. There were other examples of successful programmes run by Hardwired Humans, in the arena of leadership and change management, and O'Keeffe judged success of these programmes by the level of confidence he observed in the leaders:

> The confidence that they have as a consequence of the learning gives them rules of thumb and a framework to make good people related decisions on the job.

## 8.3 Reflections on and rating of desirable neo-Harvard case study themes

In interactions with O'Keefe in relation to the themes determined from the literature reviews and empirical critique, I found that he was always very definite about what he saw would work and what would not work. At times when I felt a theme was important to embrace and he did not, I would need to increase its 'understandability' and relevance before he would acquiesce to its inclusion. After I had completed each segment of work in terms of literature review and empirical critique we met to discuss and share some of the key features that we each felt stood out in the work. As our discussions took place, there were content and method components that stood out for both O'Keeffe and I at different times. These insights helped each of us to determine over time what elements would be useful to include in the prototype design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method prototype – and at the same time upgrade his programme. As we moved through the cyclical process of discussion - which involved contemplating the inclusion of various pedagogical aspects and then discussing our results with my supervisor Richard Badham before returning to the original sources to look at the data again before coming back for more discussion – some of the same themes came up repeatedly. We took note of these ideas and it snowballed so that by the time we began to develop the prototype, we had a clear idea of what themes should to be included in the prototype design principles.

Just prior to our first meeting about the themes that had emerged from the literature reviews and empirical critique, O'Keeffe asked if there were any key issues that had jumped out at me in the process of compiling them. I replied that certain pedagogical techniques and leadership priorities had struck me deeply. As I described them, I could see that O'Keeffe was searching for ways in which he could improve his programme. The following were some of the improvements I suggested based on the review.

1. *Remembering the nine instincts.* I told him that perhaps the single most important thing that stood out for me was that I could never remember all the nine human instincts, and this was frustrating as the content had resonated so deeply. O'Keeffe acknowledged that this was something that he needed to work on, and commented that someone in the programme had once said 'If only there were seven' as it was easier to remember. We briefly ran through

some ideas for an acronym to help remember them, but it was clear that this was a challenging task requiring more time and thought.

2. *Physical imagery.* I described how I felt much more could be made of the physical space within which he ran the programme, as the rooms did not have any differentiating features. The content was certainly different, but the physical space was not. He agreed, adding that it was a pretty conventional U-shape that he used in terms of arranging the seating for the plenary group. I made a few suggestions, such as to make the space feel more like the natural environment of chimpanzees or Stone-Age man, so that it was easier to imagine a different kind of existence and thus perhaps relate more easily to the content.
3. *Drawing on all the senses.* This was linked to my next point which was that I felt the programme lent itself to drawing much more on the 'whole person', by which I meant two things: drawing on holistic personal development but also appealing to the different senses and different parts of participants (hearts, minds, and spirit) through the use of pedagogical content and method. In writing up the literature review it had struck me that holistic learning had played an important part in terms of training managers over time, and especially in terms of how this impacted on their role as leaders. In the empirical study, too, I had found that there was increasing interest in drawing on this method.
4. *Providing up-ending experiences.* In reading Conger's (1992) publication, *Learning to lead: the art of transforming managers into leaders*, it had also resonated with me that one of the ways to change lives through a powerful mechanism in training was to use the idea of 'up-ending experiences' which are personally confronting, and this was confirmed in the empirical work where respondents told stories of life-changing experiences which had precipitated in a dramatic shift in worldview. O'Keeffe listened carefully, but was concerned about impact on participants as it was critical for him to retain a 'safe' learning environment in accordance with the human instinct known as 'loss aversion' which suggests that people are only interested in discovering when they feel safe . My response was that I felt it was possible to have a positive 'up-ending experience' that could enable participants to associate the training with a constructive learning experience.
5. *Showing audio-visual comparing primate to human behaviour.* Although it seemed to strongly resonate to hear about and watch the chimpanzees in understanding their similarities to humans as a large-braining social species, I felt that more could be made of seeing the actual behaviour of chimpanzees (in groups and as individuals) and then making the direct association with similarities in corporate human behaviour. I noted that although it was insightful to hear about the similarities it was far more useful to actually see the related behaviour in action. I suggested that he show participants an audio-visual clip of chimpanzee behaviour that was relevant to what he was trying to portray, and then perhaps a clip of

corporate leaders behaving in the same way, e.g. alpha male behaviour or 'gossip and grooming'. O'Keeffe liked the idea, and could see it working well in the programme.

6. *Providing more context.* The final thing that came to mind as we were conversing was that I felt that more context was necessary in some cases, as not everyone who arrived to attend the programme seemed committed or certain of why they had been selected to attend, and that some noted that insufficient detail about the content was provided. I knew that O'Keeffe strategically did not want to provide too much information as he wanted to provide only just enough to keep participants interested. O'Keeffe replied that he contacted everyone beforehand for a brief chat. He explained that this helped to start their process of thinking and learning and breaking the ice. I suggested that what might help was to have more visible support for the programme from the leadership team, ideally in person at the start.

We agreed that we would take these factors into account in formulating the design principles for the neo-Harvard case study method prototype. O'Keeffe had explicitly stated that he was conscious of the fact that he was going to find it difficult to find the time to read the literature reviews and empirical report in detail, and thus appropriately discuss the themes, but he remained engaged and committed to the process, and reading the material. For this reason I had formulated the emergent themes and we had worked from there, with the understanding that I would need to provide much of the description of what they entailed in our ensuing discussions. These themes represented what had stood out for me from a pedagogical perspective, and what could feed into a neo-Harvard case study method prototype.

As we moved through the themes we discussed them, and decided on a rating process wherein we would rate them against Hardwired Human's performance. We agreed that in this way, O'Keeffe would reflect on firstly, whether he felt that the Hardwired Humans programme drew on each theme, but also it would enable us to discuss whether and why each should be included in the prototype design principles. In this way, we refined the themes together. We also agreed that thereafter, I would compile an integrated list that subsumed all of the key pedagogical themes from the literature reviews and empirical study. This would be used as 'initial draft design principles' that would be drawn on to begin our prototyping process of developing the final set of design principles for the neo-Harvard case study method prototype. We also agreed that as we began the process we would complement this list with any other important insights we may have gained through our interactive discussions, including those with Badham, or our past experience.

The rating of the themes by O'Keeffe and I for the literature reviews took place in September 2013, and those for the empirical critique of the Zoo programme in April 2014. Bearing in mind that the themes shifted and changed over the time period that the dialogue took place, they are presented in

***Table 8.2*** as they were defined at that particular point in time[47]. We rated the principles according to how we felt Hardwired Humans had performed against them on a scale of one to ten – where a rating of ten was the highest possible level of performance against nominated principles and one the least level of performance. Ratings between one and ten as assessed by each of us - Andrew O'Keeffe (AO) and Tamzyn Dorfling (TD) - were recorded.

In the instance that we felt differently by four or more points we discussed why we felt that way (marked in green). Those that we both rated as a four or less are marked in blue, and those that we both rated as a six or more are marked in brown. In the instance that the principle did not apply, or it was too complex to be answered with a single figure, the rating column was left blank. It is not surprising that we both rated the design principles related to the empirical work much more highly than the literature reviews, as they morphed out of the main pedagogical findings and themes derived from the critique of the Zoo programme, reflecting what O'Keeffe was already doing well.

*Themes: Traditional Harvard case study method*

| Ratings by Andrew O'Keeffe (***AO***) and Tamzyn Dorfling (***TD***) | *AO* | *TD* |
|---|---|---|
| *CONTENT* | | |
| 1. Context and particularisation | *2* | *6* |
| *METHOD* | | |
| 2. Story-telling | *8* | *6* |
| 3. Protagonist makes it personal | *2* | *5* |
| 4. No definite answer | *5* | *2* |
| 5. Flexible usage | - | - |
| 6. Personal interaction and sharing | *6* | *4* |
| 7. Learning how to learn | *7* | *2* |
| *8.* Sharing of experience | *4* | *4* |
| 9. Safe environment | *9* | *6* |
| *10.* Instructor as facilitator | *9* | *7* |

*Themes: Harvard case study method in the early 21st century*

| Ratings by Andrew O'Keeffe (***AO***) and Tamzyn Dorfling (***TD***) | *AO* | *TD* |
|---|---|---|
| *METHOD* | | |
| 11. Behavioural emphasis | *8* | *6* |
| 12. Real-time | *2* | *1* |
| 13. Inclusive participation | - | *6* |
| 14. Self-reflection | *3* | *2* |
| 15. Collaboration | *4* | *6* |
| 16. Multiple perspectives | *2* | *2* |
| 17. Improvisation | *6* | *3* |
| *18.* Technology | *1* | *1* |
| *CONTENT AND METHOD* | | |
| *19.* Customisation | *2* | - |
| 20. Deeper learning | *2* | *5* |

[47] The themes at the end of each chapter shifted and strengthened in response to our interactive discussion, discussion with Richard Badham, and further reading.

*Themes: MBA education – evolution, pedagogy and criticisms*

| Ratings by Andrew O'Keeffe (***AO***) and Tamzyn Dorfling (***TD***) | *AO* | *TD* |
|---|---|---|
| *CONTENT* | | |
| 1. Contextualisation | *10* | *7* |
| 2. Competing priorities | *2* | *5* |
| 3. Managing people | *10* | *8* |
| 4. Critical role as leader | *9* | *5* |
| *METHOD* | | |
| 5. Professionalisation | *8* | *5* |
| 6. Variety | *6* | *6* |
| 7. Communication | *8* | *5* |
| 8. Transfer of tacit knowledge | *4* | *3* |
| 9. Constantly innovating | *2* | *6* |
| 10. Instructor should have business experience or spent time in a business | *8* | *8* |
| 11. Teaching emphasis | - | - |
| 12. Balanced approach | *4* | *5* |
| 13. Practice what you preach | *7* | *7* |
| *CONTENT AND METHOD* | | |
| 14. Reality | *7* | *2* |
| 15. Entrepreneurial approach | *7* | *3* |
| 16. Customisation | *7* | - |

*Themes: The future of MBA education- transformative possibilities*

| Ratings by Andrew O'Keeffe (***AO***) and Tamzyn Dorfling (***TD***) | *AO* | *TD* |
|---|---|---|
| *CONTENT* | | |
| 1. Relevant | *5* | *2* |
| 2. Self-knowledge | *6* | *5* |
| 3. Complexity | *8* | *5* |
| 4. Leadership and change | *10* | *6* |
| 5. New kinds of knowledge | *1* | *3* |
| 6. Multiple stakeholders | *7* | *3* |
| *METHOD* | | |
| 7. Clarity about intent | *10* | *6* |
| 8. Question assumptions | *8* | *4* |
| 9. Clear institutional purpose | *9* | *6* |
| 10. Process | *8* | *4* |
| 11. Latest technology | *1* | *1* |
| 12. Competitive landscape | *1* | *1* |
| 13. Variety | *4* | *2* |
| 14. Leadership for all | *7* | *2* |
| 15. Life-long learning | *2* | *4* |
| *CONTENT AND METHOD* | | |
| 16. Using other disciplines | *2* | *1* |
| *17.* Whole person | *4* | *2* |
| 18. Customisation | *3* | *5* |
| 19. Links to business | *8* | *6* |
| 20. Varying perspectives | *6* | *3* |
| 21. Reality | *8* | *4* |

*Themes: Empirical study*

| Ratings by Andrew O'Keeffe (***AO***) and Tamzyn Dorfling (***TD***) | *AO* | *TD* |
|---|---|---|
| *CONTENT* | | |
| 1. Way of understanding behaviour of self and others | | |
| • Understanding others | *8* | *8* |
| • More self-aware | *9* | *7* |
| 2. Unusual yet familiar | | |
| • Familiar yet offers new perspective | *10* | *10* |
| • Appeals fundamental level and provides positive new way to respond | *7* | *10* |
| 3. Emphasis on people-focused challenges and capabilities | | |
| • Chief challenges are people issues | *6* | *10* |
| • Not all capabilities in terms of dealing with people were covered | *7* | *9* |
| 4. Explanation re context | | |
| • Detailed explanation up front of programme and how it can help to secure buy-in from start | *8* | *8* |
| • Not all capabilities in terms of dealing with people were covered | *7* | *7* |
| 5. Learning from the apes reinforces and extends the learning as does the humour | - | *9* |
| *METHOD* | | |
| 6. Centrality of instructor's experience and personality | *7* | *10* |
| 7. Use of stories | *10* | *10* |
| 8. Variety of teaching methods | *7* | *9* |
| 9. Offers practical solutions | *9* | *8* |
| 10. Reinforcement of learning | *9* | *9* |
| 11. Ways to remember | *8* | *10* |
| 12. Importance of reflection | | |
| • Time needs to be allocated for reflection on what has been learned | *6* | *6* |
| • Times needs to be allocated for how it has been translated into the organisation | *9* | *8* |
| 13. Look at timing | | |
| • Timing needs to be considered in terms of organisational issues | *7* | *6* |
| • Timing is a concern whilst the programme is running | *2* | *4* |
| 14. Networking between participants. | *8* | *9* |
| 15. Hopes and expectations within organisations help tailor delivery of a programme. | *7* | *8* |
| *CONTENT AND METHOD* | | |
| 16. Unusual content and method. | *8* | *8* |
| 17. Repeated use of specific sticky concepts. | *10* | *10* |

**Table 8.2: Rating of themes - literature reviews and empirical study**

***Insights from the rating process***

The themes that emerged as most important to us through this rating process were later amalgamated to create a broader set of 18 themes (as illustrated into the next section) from which the prototype design principles emerged. For instance, pedagogical delivery methods such as the use of stories and repeated use of specific sticky concepts, and content issues such as managing people were fed into the broader set of themes.

Because the themes that we highlighted in brown were both emergent from the literature and a strength of the Zoo programme, we felt that they should definitely be included in the prototype design principles. We considered each of those themes marked in blue on their own merit, as some

were important but not a forte of the existing programme, whilst others were relatively unimportant relative to other themes. On occasion, some of those marked in blue were just not that important to O'Keeffe, such as drawing on other disciplines in the learning process. Some of our main observations, which help to inform the prototype design principles, are now described.

**Content.** From a content point of view we both gave a high rating, in terms of how the Zoo programme was set up, for the focus on people management and behavioural skills. This was critical for O'Keeffe as he adamantly did not want to shift away from the existing content, and in his view delivery was directly and intricately linked to content. When we looked at the idea of management as a 'profession', and teaching about making choices that were best for society, I could see that O'Keeffe was interested in this concept. He did not currently have a significant focus on this aspect, but he felt conflicted about where to draw the line in terms of what to bring in and take out of his existing programme as it worked well in its current form. We both scored 'leadership and change' highly, but O'Keeffe was interested in more possibilities for bringing a higher degree of self-reflection into the programme. He could see the value of placing more emphasis on the behaviour of 'self', as his programme had traditionally focused on the behaviour of others. However, his concern in allocating time for reflection was that it might take time away from the focus in the class, or might get boring, and that some participants did want or need to do that much. Everyone did things at a different pace, too, in which case their attention could get easily diverted to other things if they finished quickly. This was his main reason for keeping the programme 'fast-pace' and it was something he did not want to change.

**Method.** As can be seen in the case of the principles related to the empirical study of the Zoo programme, the highest ratings given by both of us – and thus suggesting that we felt that these were the most effective methods in terms of his existing programme – were for 'unusual yet familiar', 'use of stories', 'repeated use of specific concepts', and 'reinforcement of learning'. In our discussions it was clear that O'Keeffe was vehemently against the idea of explicitly introducing 'humour' as a teaching method, let alone design principle, as he felt it could dilute what he was teaching. He preferred not to draw on the behaviour of other animals at the Zoo in the learning process for the same reason. Every now and then O'Keeffe would say 'there are some great concepts here' or 'this is great, I will pick some of these themes up'.

The idea of teaching management as a process – about how to do things – rather than as purely knowledge transmission was an interesting concept to O'Keeffe. I had explained to him that I thought of it as participants not as 'empty vessels waiting to be filled', but that it is was about teaching the process of becoming a leader, so it was more about a journey. In this case he pondered on the idea of 'improvisation', wondering in what way he could introduce this concept into the programme. One of the aspects that O'Keeffe was attracted to was the idea of drawing on different mindsets in going

about the leadership journey, and I suggested the criticality of getting participants to understand why it is important to reflect on them. It made sense to me that the more involved leaders became as they were under pressure to understand and make sense of increasingly complexity, that they would have less time to think deeply and reflect. We discussed the different mindsets that could help leaders to understand their working world, such as the mindset for integration (to understand and work across silos), and collaboration (to understand diversity and the needs of different stakeholders in society).

In our discussions O'Keeffe made it clear that matching the reality of those who came on his programme was critical. The ratings show that we both felt that there was more that could be done in this regard in the programme. One of the suggestions I made to him was for each participant to develop a mini-case about a specific challenge they faced at work, taking care to include varying perspectives of different stakeholders within the business. I felt that this method would be even more valuable if it had an audio-visual component, even if it only involved some aspect of self-reflection about the challenge. My experience in writing cases in the Harvard case study method style had proven extremely helpful in grasping the challenge within a business from the inside-out through personal interviews and observation, and I felt that insight from stakeholders across silos and/or hierarchically could provide even more value. O'Keeffe felt that this was a 'gem of an idea', and had the following to say:

> One thing I've taken as really significant there as an idea is that each person has their story, so it's the case story for them. So imagine, so this is my coming back to the spark that I took from what you said, imagine each person coming onto a leadership journey, whether it's mine or anyone's, and that person has had their case written for them or by them based on the voices of the range of people who they work with, their direct reports, their peers, their boss. Imagine those people having that insight, in the context of the challenges that they're managing right now.

O'Keeffe was interested in the idea of leadership not only being for top management, that it should be democratised and that people needed to take more responsibility for themselves and others in order to operate more effectively in an increasingly complex world. He explained that in his experience, many top managers did not feel that they needed the training, and that it was only for other less experienced managers. His explanation for this was that they had poor self-reflection and they did not want to put themselves in a position of insecurity and endure the humility of being exposed. He noted that management educators found it difficult to get top management to participate, and this often meant working at the middle level down, which was frustrating going back into the workplace because:

> They're seeing that, oh, the others haven't committed or as they start talking about and using these concepts there's a blocker because the person above them isn't on the same wavelength.

O'Keeffe related strongly to the concept of 'learning how to learn' and rated this highly in terms of its incorporation into the programme. To him it was implicit in the design of the programme where it was 'up to the learner, it's their responsibility'. I had observed him acting as facilitator throughout the group sessions where he emphasised that the group should resolve issues rather than rely on his input, but I felt there was more that could be done to encourage the learning-how-to-learn process. I explained one of the insights I had in conducting the empirical research: the top leaders seemed much more committed than others to a continuous learning experience. They were enthused by anything that could help them understand their world more deeply, and read widely. I wondered if there could be a resource bank for participants to draw on (via the Web), and if there was the possibility for these top leaders to talk to the group about how this continuous learning had impacted them as leaders.

O'Keeffe noted that he did not engage in e-learning or drawing on the latest technology in his programme, and this was reflected in our low ratings. He explained that he was, however, currently in discussions about the possibilities of developing e-learning solutions. O'Keeffe could see a place for this, particularly in terms of supplementing classroom training. These insights provided O'Keeffe and I with further background to approach our next endeavour, which was to formulate a master set of design principles that could inform the development of a neo-Harvard case study method prototype.

## 8.4 Co-developing a set of pedagogical design principles and model

In several meetings with O'Keeffe in mid-2014 we slowly grouped the draft design principles in a prototyping process (see ***Figure 5.2*** to see a diagrammatic representation of this process in ***Chapter 5***) into seven comprehensive pedagogical design principles that we felt could inform a neo-Harvard case study method prototype. We decided to represent them in a pedagogical model in the form of a pie diagram, with each individual principle making up the whole pedagogical model. The process involved a constant shifting and reorganising of the themes until they could fit into a set of design principles that included everything that we deemed important. In retrospect, we negotiated over what I had determined as most important from literature reviews, empirical study, participant observation in the Zoo programme, and our dialogue, and what O'Keeffe saw as most important by drawing on reflections of our dialogue about these aspects over time, and his extensive practice-based experience. Furthermore, I am certain our choice was determined, at least to some extent, by our own personal value systems, and what we sensed is required in leaders of today.

### 8.4.1 Creating the first set of prototype principles and model

In our first meeting, O'Keeffe and I considered how best to go about developing prototype design principles. We were conscious of the fact that the principles would need to be appropriate to an

MBA setting, thus might need to include different elements than were currently on offer in his programme. Because the importance of being as close to 'reality' in the learning process had struck me deeply throughout each of the literature reviews, and in the empirical research process, I felt it important to raise the issue as perhaps most important with O'Keeffe. He responded that it was a key design principle in his current programme, that participants felt that the learning matched their reality. For him, an important aspect of the programme was that his teaching did not force participants to lead their teams differently, but rather than they could make different choices about what they were doing.

I suggested that we begin the discussion by first looking at the aspects he regarded important in his existing programme, but O'Keeffe first wanted to know what was on my list of eighteen themes which I had drawn from the theoretical and empirical sections of this work, and which I assessed had emerged through our dialogue over time. Each of the themes resonated (see ***Table 8.3***), although we could see that there was some overlap, in which case there was the possibility of reducing the number of principles and grouping them in different ways. We found that there were common themes that emerged as we discussed the list, such as 'matching reality', 'choice' and 'sense-making'. O'Keeffe noted a few of the ideas he remembered from our recent discussions, and explained that choice was a key element in his programme in the following way:

> From what we talked about last week, there's a couple of beauties there – like 'reality', like 'sticky', about 'self', and maybe fitting with self, triggered by what you are saying is I think one of the key things I'm teaching leaders, or the key purpose, but I think it also fits with probably any leadership education, is helping leaders with choice, the choices they make.

After some discussion we both concluded that it was critical to enhance self-knowledge if the intention was to improve the quality of leadership choices. I noted that I could see a parallel with the Harvard case study method, which to me involved learning to adopt a certain way of thinking about choices or decisions as a leader facing a business challenge.

O'Keeffe advocated that we should group the principles into a 'master set' of not more than seven areas, so that it was more manageable and in accordance with psychology literature, more specifically 'The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on Our Capacity for Processing Information' by Miller (1956). Miller advocates that the number of objects an average human can hold in working memory is 7 ± 2, and is often referred to as 'Miller's Law'. We ran through themes I had compiled in more detail, so that we were both in agreement in terms of what was meant by each, and this process triggered seven areas that we felt the principles could be grouped under. As we ran through them O'Keeffe suggested we test a few against the proposed research question, which we agreed was: 'What design principles help an educator to design and run an effective MBA leadership programme?'

| PRINCIPLE | DESCRIPTION | ELEMENTS |
|---|---|---|
| *1 RELEVANCE* | There needs to be direct relevance to business needs and to the ways in which participants prefer to be engaged and persuaded and the ways in which they learn best. | *What's in it for me?*<br>*How easily can I apply it at work?*<br>*People skills*<br>*Self-knowledge* |
| *2 MEANING* | There should be deep resonance in terms of the meaning of the programme as human beings and as leaders in organisations. | *Where have we come from?*<br>*Where are we going to?*<br>*Powerful resonance*<br>*Universal human nature*<br>*Metaphors* |
| *3 REALITY-BASED* | Learning should be as close to business as possible as this shows the messy reality of leading, and enables participants to learn tacit skills in complex environments. | *Active*<br>*Inspires confidence*<br>*Dealing with uncertainty* |
| *4 VARIETY* | There should be an appeal to the whole person in a variety of ways as this enhances meaning and relevance and improves retention. | *Multiple senses appeal*<br>*Active in different ways*<br>*Different speakers* |
| *5 THE UNUSUAL* | Learning should take place in unusual ways (content and method) and/or locations as this engages and helps to make learning memorable. | *The unusual – the Zoo*<br>*Delight the learner*<br>*Different speakers*<br>*Different foci (welfare of animals, understanding self and others)* |
| *6 CHALLENGE/MYSTERY* | A challenge or mystery should be provided to engage and lock in effort in the learning process, as the learning is then more memorable. | *Challenge stimulates thinking, draws on competitive nature*<br>*Mystery draws people in because they are curious* |
| *7 STORY* | Stories should be used as they engage in other ways than only intellectual by providing examples that appeal to the imagination and reinforce the learning because they are memorable. | *Gives context to the learning*<br>*Engages and can inspire*<br>*Memorable*<br>*Using others' experiences* |
| *8 REINFORCEMENT* | Various methods of reinforcement should be used as learning is enhanced including metaphors, images, sticky concepts, stories. | *Different exercises during training*<br>*Follow-up days after training* |
| *9 CONTEXT* | Providing context gives meaning and explanation and helps with sense-making in real and ambiguous situations. | *Context gives an understanding of the complexity*<br>*Integrative thinking* |
| *10 PERSONALISATION* | Personalising draws the participant in as it taps in to their own experience and what is important and resonates directly with them. | *Unusual or meaningful introductions*<br>*Role plays*<br>*Own stories*<br>*Application of learning – feedback*<br>*Case method personalises* |

| PRINCIPLE | DESCRIPTION | ELEMENTS |
|---|---|---|
| *11 REFLECTION* | There should be various methods used to encourage reflection about assumptions and the way that things are done so that improvements can be made. | *Look at and share experiences*<br>*Self-reflection - testing assumptions*<br>*From knowing to doing and being*<br>*Manager's duties sandwiched between action and reflection* |
| *12 OPENNESS* | There needs to be a way to open up minds to multiple perspectives and different ways of thinking and seeing things in order to solve complex challenges. | *Frames – different way of looking at things*<br>*Use different subject areas/disciplines*<br>*Different mental models important with regard to complex environments (e.g. human instincts)* |
| *13 TECHNOLOGY* | Use of technology draws on existing habits of participants and reflects increasing sophistication in business. | *Trend is towards using more technology in the learning process*<br>*Mobiles, clouds, apps, platforms etc.* |
| *14 PATHFINDING* | The need for innovation requires prompts for entrepreneurialism and creative thinking by appealing to the imagination and insight. | *Business is based on new ideas and thinking out of the box*<br>*Risk taking* |
| *15 THE HUMAN* | There needs to be an emphasis on humanity and community and different stakeholder needs so that leaders embrace social responsibility. | *Empathy*<br>*Intercultural understanding*<br>*Humanising*<br>*Relationships* |
| *16 COLLABORATION* | The power of working together especially across boundaries (business functions, organisations, countries) should be shown by sharing experiences and possible solutions. | *Working together rather than only competing*<br>*Capitalising on diversity and multiculturalism*<br>*Working across business functions*<br>*'Friendly' consulting*<br>*Physical environment – round tables*<br>*Collaborative e-learning environments* |
| *17 DISCOVERY* | An element of discovery will engage through participation and help participants to learn how to learn and take responsibility for their own learning. | *Learner takes responsibility for learning*<br>*Growing the learner from the inside out*<br>*Linked to challenge*<br>*Use of various methods including challenge and play* |
| *18 QUESTIONING* | Participants should be encouraged to question how they are thinking and whether the ways that things are being done can be changed. | *The way that things are done need to be challenged in order to make improvements* |

**Table 8.3: Initial list of design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype**

Informed by all our work and interactions thus far, and in no particular order we discussed the following as possible main principles: 'environment', 'sticky', 'self', 'reality', 'engagement', 'collaboration', and 'humanity'. Each of these resonated most deeply with both of us, and through a trial and error basis, and much discussion, we found that each of the components on my original list could be slotted in under these seven main principles.

For instance, the idea of 'challenge', 'mystery' and 'surprise' were classified as elements within the principle of 'engagement'. There were a number of instances that we struggled to reach agreement as to where certain elements would best fit within the model, such as 'meaning': did it fit under 'self' or 'reality'? It was an insightful process for both of us as it meant questioning the way we looked at the pedagogical process, and what was defined as content and method. There were a number of instances that elements included both content and method characteristics, such as the use of 'story'. There were also several pedagogical components that O'Keeffe raised as missing from our developing model, such as 'classroom set-up' which was an issue that was often on his mind in running his programme. We also ran through the cycle of learning stages to determine if we had left anything important out, and O'Keeffe noted that the model did not necessarily need to be linear by nature. This was particularly the case because we were swiftly realising that some elements applied throughout the learning process, such as our concepts of 'sticky' or 'reality'. Many of the elements were different but connected in some way. I then suggested to O'Keeffe that as a separate exercise, and to test if we had left anything important out that was key to his programme, it might be useful for him to think of the seven pedagogical aspects of his existing Zoo programme that he felt he could not do without. He noted that he was always making choices regarding:

> … what scenario to do, what order to do things, what things to do or not? If you depart too much from immediate reality people switch off.

After some discussion, O'Keeffe developed the following list of embedded design principles for his existing programme:

1. Connection with participants beforehand, in line with human instincts.
2. Sense-making and stimulation associated with Zoo and primates.
3. Variety of method, story and pace of the programme, thus light on PowerPoint and covers a lot.
4. Nature of check in 3 or 4 months later, where a story is shared about how the learning has been applied.
5. Learning being spaced out.
6. Reality check – practical and relevant.
7. Evolutionary psychology and human instincts.

We checked that each was encapsulated within our newly formed model depicting the design principles and finished off the dialogue with my agreeing to organise the evidence in support of the new design principle model we had created, and this is shown in ***Figure 8.1***.

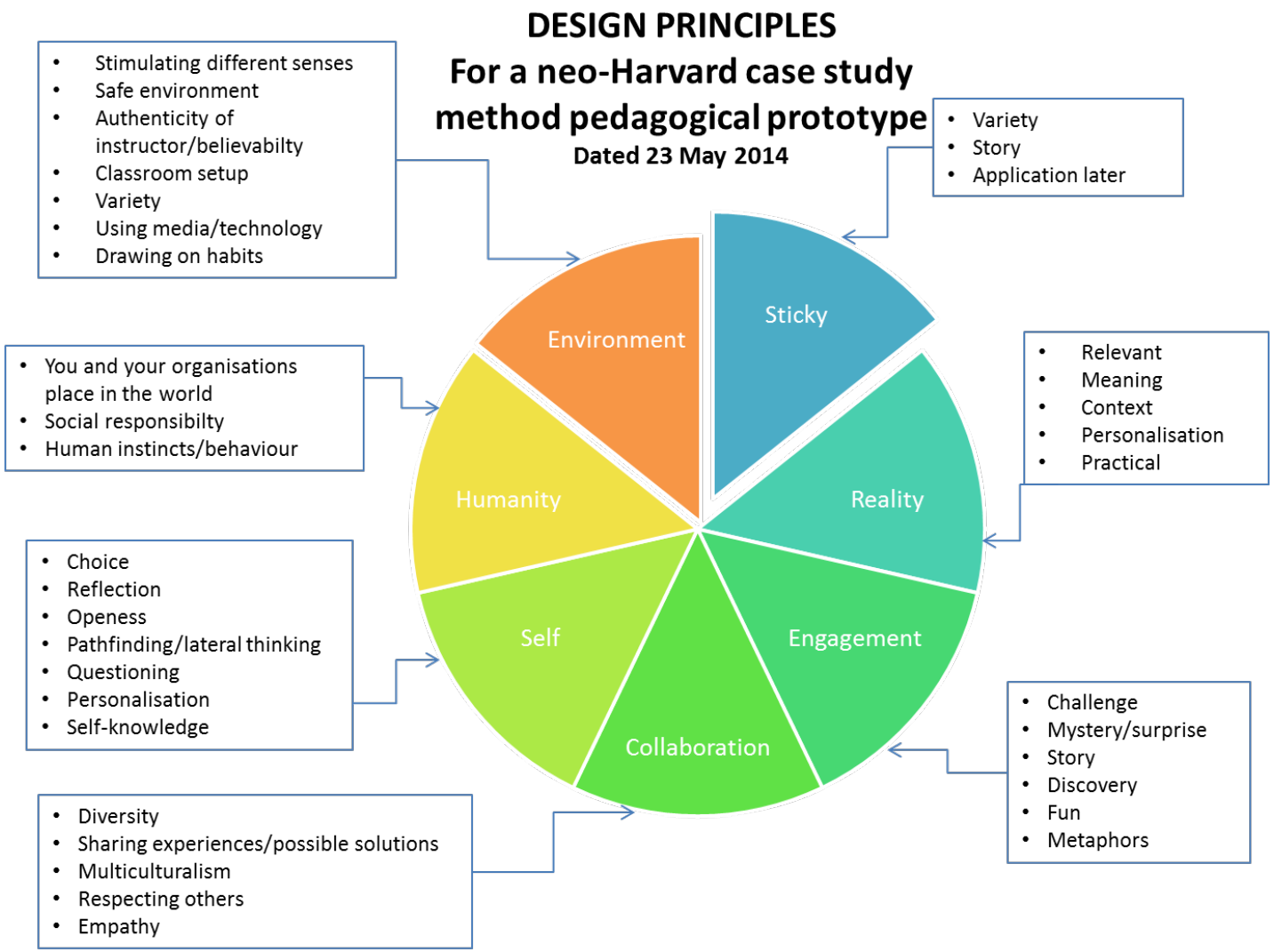



**Figure 8-1: First design principles prototype model**

### 8.4.2 Developing a more comprehensive model

In the three meetings that followed (30 May, 20 June and 18 July 2014), we aimed to develop a more comprehensive model, ensuring that other elements that came to mind since our previous meeting could be incorporated if necessary. In these three rounds of reviewing the elements for each design principle, we gradually arrived at a more comprehensive model. In this process, we needed to understand the exact meaning each of us attached to the main design principles we had selected, and to come to agreement on an explanation for each. As we discussed each principle, we realised that there was some overlap and made changes accordingly. Constantly on our minds was the idea that as an MBA offering, the programme should fit in with a culture of critical thinking and constant questioning.

#### *8.4.2.1 First round: 30 May 2014*

We began the first meeting by running through all the pedagogical components that I assessed had worked well in the Zoo programme, including any aspects that were not included in the model. We then ran through our interpretation of each element in the model, looking for any possible overlap or important addition, and considering ways to organise the model according to certain learning criteria.

**Sticky.** We realised that 'sticky' and 'engagement' seemed to have some similarities (for instance, some of the elements of 'engagement' were also 'sticky'), but to me one was more about helping to remember the learning, and the other was about how to get people immersed and involved. We agreed on this, and O'Keeffe added that it was important that, other than remembering afterwards, the learning could be easily and quickly applied. He explained what he meant as follows:

> Applied, meaning that people spot events which fit within the model, and they can do so without having to do a lot of effort to go back to the materials. I mean they might go to the [A4] laminate. So it's generally applicable, they can apply it generally because it stayed with them.

**Engagement.** I checked with O'Keeffe that this concept meant using different kinds of activities and mechanisms. He felt that it was also about being active and being 'moved to be involved', and that 'time flies and they are switched on'. He also felt that:

> There's a positive and negative part of engagement. A negative way of explaining it is that people are almost like disarmed to the point of being almost unknowingly caught up with it. So that's part of the engaging. And the other one, the more positive expression of that is that they find themselves quickly actively participating, receptive. I do this by the way it is revealed and where it is held, I think, and through the use of story.

I asked him if the fact that it was unusual was a part of it, and he replied that it was a big part of it. He explained further that in the early brainstorming session of the human exhibit at the Zoo, before he revealed the answer (the human instincts framework), each group almost always came up with

most instincts before they were revealed. O'Keeffe explained that this was disarming to participants because the group had talked about them, and identified them, and he could then tell them that they had 'nailed' the framework. He felt that this was important because some people seemed to process things, and learn things, in an oppositional style and would be 'picky'. But because of the way he went about the programme prevented that from happening, removing the defensiveness. He added that his use of a simple 'compelling concept', and the way that he expressed it, also helped to make this happen: the concept being that that humans only recently moved into offices and factories, that humans are born with a package of behaviour, and that humans are a big-brained social species.

**Reality.** I asked O'Keeffe to give me more detail on what he had meant about 'relevant' and 'practical', and he explained that he had meant that it matched the leaders' reality, and that it would be useful so they could do something with it. He felt strongly about the idea of 'matching reality' and we decided this should be reflected by renaming the principle accordingly.

**Environment.** O'Keeffe confirmed that he had meant 'learning environment' (which should be reflected in the model rather than 'environment'), and the aspects that stood out most for him in this respect was the physical and emotional setting that are meant to enhance humans' learning, and then doing different activities. An important part of this was ensuring variety, and avoiding anything boring. He confirmed that this would include the fact that the programme was run at a fast pace, and that it chiefly focused on the structure of the programme, and how everything is set up. O'Keeffe noted that classroom set-up was important to consider here, including group size and number of people: he preferred groups of no more than 12-14 because it made the learning experience more collaborative and engaging.

**Humanity.** I noted that this principle looked like it was more about content, and he agreed. I added that perhaps it should also be about delivery in the sense that the programme was delivered according to the learning inherent in the content, but he felt strongly that it was about content. He added that I should add in 'participants and their personal lives', as they took the learning home to their families. He felt that if it was 'human' it was something that would be talked about afterwards. At that point I noticed that our model did not include the idea of a 'new perspective' in looking at things through drawing on evolutionary psychology ideas – a key design feature of the Zoo programme. O'Keeffe agreed that this feature was important, and elaborated that the evidence he presented in this regard was by way of story, and that it was 'almost like as case studies, just little cases'. In this principle O'Keeffe felt that it was important to emphasise that participants were offered a whole new perspective on how they saw the world in a much bigger way. I felt that this challenged one's concept of business if one did this, because traditionally it had been all about self-interest, but that as life was becoming more challenging it was becoming important to look at the

world in much broader terms. He agreed, noting that he felt that this 'humanity' principle had two components: the first one was about looking more broadly than merely life at work i.e. it was about 'me in the context of my life and my family and my community', and the second was about social responsibility. We agreed that this principle was about offering a perspective of what humanity is, and what our part is within this perspective, and thus should be reflected by renaming the principle 'humanity and me'.

**Self.** We agreed that it was important here to look at choices, and I then talked about the work of Mintzberg (2004a) and how he believed that everything a manager did was 'sandwiched between action and reflection'. I explained that if one was not thoughtful about what one was doing, then nothing would change for the better. We both agreed that this was important, and that being innovative and thinking laterally should be included as elements, as was questioning assumptions. O'Keeffe noted that he had a few examples of leaders taking the learning out of his programme and making changes because it had tested their assumptions and changed the way they thought about things. We both felt that critical thinking and questioning were particularly important skills to develop in an MBA programme. We discussed the idea of personalisation, which I felt was impactful in the Harvard case study method in that it involved imagining being a business executive, i.e. putting oneself in a the executive's shoes; additionally, I felt that personalisation resonated because it would draw people in if they felt that something particularly applied to them. We both agreed that this was important to include as part of this principle, and we added in the elements of 'worldview', and appealing to the various aspects of self, i.e. the whole person (which also involved improving self-knowledge). From O'Keeffe's point of view, he felt it key to include the idea of a mental model of leadership, which linked back to previous discussions about leadership choices. O'Keeffe had found the idea of 'worldview' to particularly resonate:

> …because what helps, which is part of worldview, is their mental model about leadership. So the way I explain it to people is that, and it's not necessarily on the programme as it might be in a one-on-one or when I do other things, we've got mental models on let's say our technical area of work, that there's a mental model on engineering or there's a mental model about financial management and accounting practice. So you've got your mental model on your technical area of your endeavour, but what is your mental model about leadership? Because a mental model just explains, it's a sense-making as well as decisions that you might make and calls that you make. Well, its worldview and the mental model or your operating model, mental model of leadership. And what maybe any education does, but let's say Hardwired Humans, it's adding, and it just happens then, okay, because it's simple and straightforward and makes sense, that it's a useful one as a mental model of leadership, which then links back to choices. Because there's a lot of leaders who don't have a mental model of leadership - I've been doing some assessments of individuals, and I just asked them 'What's your mental model of leadership?', and some are incredibly shallow.

O'Keeffe explained further that many of these individuals were experienced leaders, and when asked what makes for a good leader, did not have an explanation and had mostly never thought about it.

For him, providing the impetus to be able to make different choices was integral to his method of teaching, not only in terms of what activities one engaged in as a leader but also in terms of how one chose to think about or made sense of things:

> So one thing about my method of teaching and not telling, allowing self-discovery, is that [participants] will be choosing, or the aim is, maybe it's the design, that they'll choose to undertake different activities as managers. So it's not personality based, it's what are the activities, how do you spend your time, what are the things that you do? So I think that's a key theme in this.

O'Keeffe felt that he did not do enough in his programme in terms of this principle, particularly in terms of 'reflection' and 'self-awareness' (the latter of which we agreed the principle should be named rather than 'self'), with the emphasis being on making choices and taking a fresh perspective on one's part in this as a leader.

**Collaboration.** Because this concept had been discussed in much of the MBA education literature, it had been an important principle to me. I saw it as important in both a content and method sense, so that participants could see the power involved in collaborating. For me, it was important that MBA students understood about collaborating in many different ways and being open to different ways of seeing the world: across silos, organisations, and cultures. For O'Keeffe it was about participants learning from each other, and he wanted to include more of this in his programme. He had been particularly inspired about Mintzberg's (2004a) work and the idea of 'friendly consulting' and sharing experiences in a collaborative manner. He felt that his programme already supported this principle in the sense of teaching respect for others cross-culturally because 'we are more similar than different'. By this he was referring to the concept of universality in humans, which underpins the discipline of evolutionary psychology, and we both agreed it was similar to the concept of 'humanity'. We also agreed that part of human nature was to be competitive and collaborative, and that both were important. This principle was not currently an important design principle within the Hardwired Humans programme, but O'Keeffe felt it important to include it going forward, especially the idea of encouraging learning from each other's experiences: what they had tried and what they were struggling with.

By the end of the first round we had begun to expand on the meaning of each principle, and I felt that we both understood and agreed on each principle, and we had developed a 'definition' for each. The additions and changes we had discussed in looking at the elements were included in a new representation of the model, shown in ***Figure 8.2***.

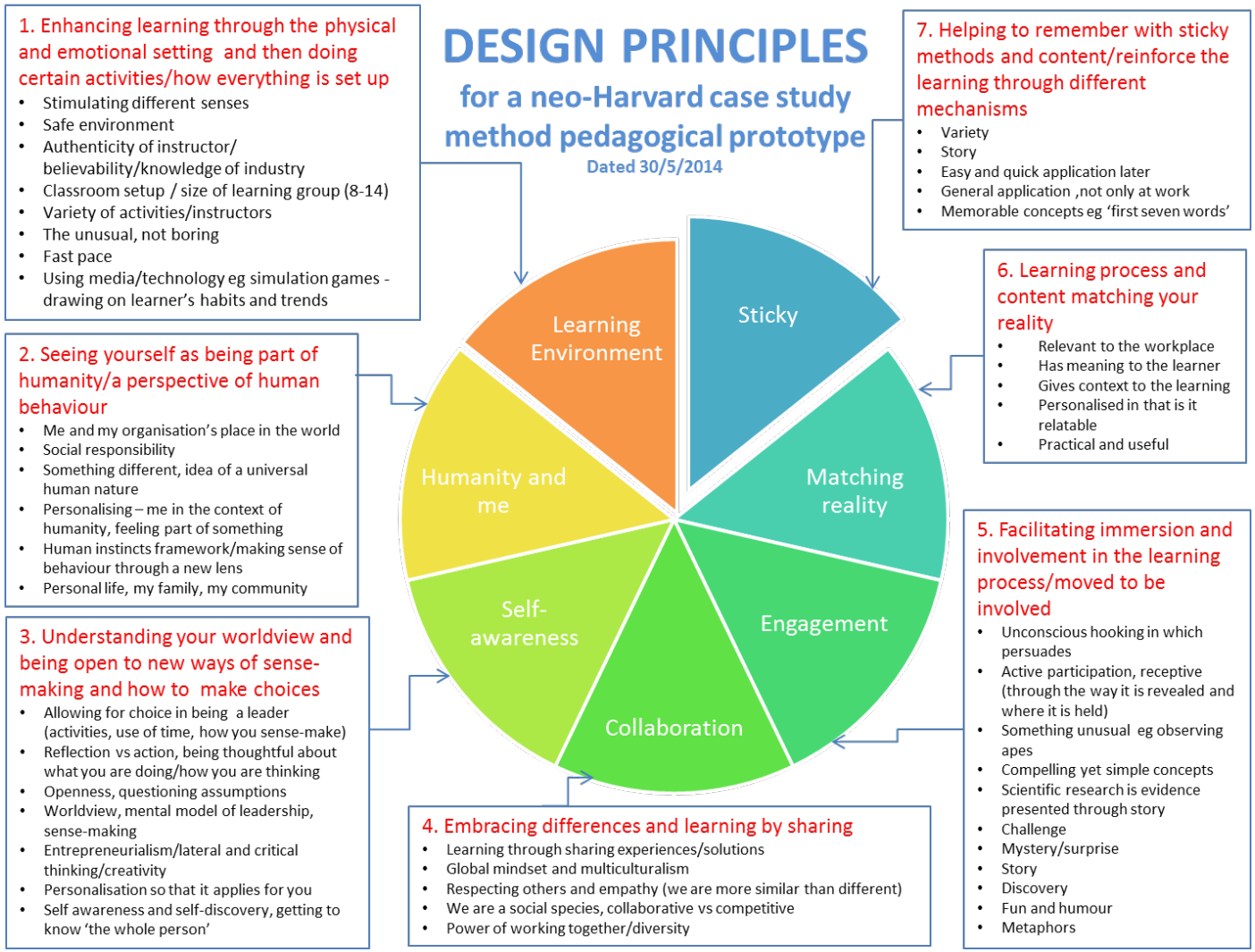



**Figure 8-2: Second design principles prototype model**

#### *8.4.2.2 Second round: 20 June 2014*

We took a critical look at the model at the beginning of this second round, in yet another round of testing to see if we had included all the elements and principles that we deemed most important for an MBA setting. As we looked at each, I could see that O'Keeffe had been thinking carefully about what might be missing.

**Sticky.** O'Keeffe felt the second part of the definition should not be as prominent in the principle, as 'reinforcing through different mechanisms' could just mean that it was not boring, and it may not mean that it was going to be remembered. To him, although 'variety' could help learners to remember, this belonged in the 'engagement' principle. Stories were important here though, he felt, and so was the meaning and emotion involved:

> We know stories wake people up, people connect to stories, they take the learning that is right for them. So that is someone can tell a story and Person A takes something away different to Person B, so they attach their meanings. And because of the emotion of the story people recall the story later, so story absolutely is sticky. It's interesting, engaging and sticky.

We also felt it was more 'sticky' when the learning was easy to quickly apply, and it transformed a person when she began to look at the world through a different lens. I remembered that O'Keeffe had previously said how important debriefing was in drawing out the reality, and we both felt it important to include under this principle, but for him, it was much broader, it was about the meaning for individuals. In this respect, there was the choice as to whether learners absorbed the learning or not, and the expression he often used was that 'this allows you to add to your toolkit as a leader'. For this reason he felt it belonged under this principle, as did the providing of examples by participants on later training days of how they had applied the learning. Again, O'Keeffe emphasised that in teaching he was conscious of 'not telling, but giving, and it then avoids any defensiveness'. His approach was to provide more options (in the toolkit) so that leaders had more choices, and participants needed to be open to receive the learning. This was sometimes difficult, he explained, especially if they saw themselves as experienced in the field or if they were the most senior person in the room.

**Engagement.** For O'Keeffe, 'being moved to be involved' was an important part of this principle as it was emotionally powerful. It was also an important part of his strategy to unconsciously draw learners in in various ways. We agreed on all the other elements that had been included. To me the principle of 'engagement' was about stimulating the different senses, whilst for O'Keeffe it was about participation, and being actively involved.

**Reality.** To O'Keeffe, this principle was more about content than method, but as we spoke he agreed that various pedagogical methods such as use of scenarios – or testing out use of the human instincts – were critical to use here in matching the reality of participants. He felt strongly about the definition being that 'the content and learning process matches reality'. He was also emphatic that participants appreciate that the person leading the instruction 'knows what it's like to be me', and that this should be included as an element for this principle. The complexity and uncertainty, and all of the difficulties involved in being a leader in today's organisations needed to be understood by the instructor, and O'Keeffe stated: 'It's where a lot of the 'ah ha' moments come, I think, isn't it, in the programme?'. In his programme O'Keeffe noted that he used the human instincts framework and other teaching methods to help explain reality.

**Environment.** O'Keeffe felt that it was repetition to include 'how everything is set up' in the definition of this principle. He then explained that he knew that the idea of a 'safe environment' would be questionable because some learning theories – and thus the designer of an MBA programme – might argue that people learn more if they are stretched or uncomfortable, but he wanted to maintain it as an important element for the Hardwired Humans programme as he had deliberately created this safe environment to make people want to discover (in line with the human instinct of 'loss aversion'). However, he recommended placing it lower down on the list of elements so that it did not trigger debate in the reader 'who once classifies it might dismiss the rest'. As regards group size and number of people, he felt it important here too to explain the human instincts rationale behind the preference for family group size and the U-shaped table. By this he meant ideal group size, and he emphasised that groups of no more than 8-14 were recommended in the programme in order to enhance collaboration and engagement in a personal way. The group size in the MBA setting was anticipated to be 40, so he felt that they should be grouped at tables of no more than 6-7 people in 'cabaret' style, and that for the plenary he should retain the U-shaped table to further enhance a sense of belonging. In looking at the idea of using technology by drawing on learner's habits, I suggested that we could, at the very least, do so after the training had taken place to capture reflections on what they had learned. O'Keeffe thought that was a good idea, and was interested in pursuing different ways of using technology as a delivery mechanism in other ways too, such as resource links regarding the material in his programme.

**Humanity.** As we discussed this principle, we felt that the idea of 'purpose and belonging' should be included because if one sees oneself as part of humanity, then it leads to questions about what one is here for, even if they are not always conscious questions. This principle now had more than two prongs, and was becoming more difficult to encapsulate into a definition: for now we agreed on 'seeing yourself as being part of and understanding humanity'. Personalising had become part of having a purpose, and O'Keeffe felt strongly about the 'making sense of personal life, my family, my

community' as it was a deep component, 'one of those ones that sort of makes you think'. To me, it was at the essence of so much, as I explained that I believed that one's perspective of the world at large affects the way one runs one's life.

**Self.** We talked about the sense-making, and agreed that this included important issues. It was about making choices and should then include challenging one's own view, which meant we could take out 'openness' as it was a duplication. Sense-making was an important aspect of this principle for both of us, and to O'Keeffe it involved understanding why 'we and others think and act the way we do'. I reminded O'Keeffe that until now, his emphasis had been on understanding why others behaved as they did, and that this principle involved understanding ourselves so we agreed that there should be an element about self-awareness, self-discovery and getting to know the different aspects of oneself, i.e. the whole person. O'Keeffe felt that the making of choices was critical, and that it was a direct result of sense-making. I was also convinced of the criticality of the idea of 'pathfinding' as identified by Leavitt (1989), and wondered where we could allocate this as an element as to me it was a cornerstone of entrepreneurialism and business growth. I explained that I felt it was key to future business growth to be able to think creatively and innovatively, and to demonstrate to one's team how important it was to cultivate this 'out-of-the-box' thinking. To O'Keeffe it was clear that we should look at it from the perspective of innovation in respect to leadership i.e. managing people.

**Collaboration.** For O'Keeffe it was important to cover that although humans are similar, 'we're not all just like me', and this was reflected in the way we learn in both content and method terms. In his view, the choices leaders make to operate in a collaborative manner should be the focus of the learning, and that in understanding similarities/differences:

> You can't then be the leader of a number of people and not appreciate that there's space for everybody and different personalities and we best collaborate. And even collaboration, they understand the importance of that because culturally we can quickly go to competition. So in other words managers then have a choice to make, don't they? In the environment that I am going to lead, I know that it can go one way or the other.

I was keen to bring in an exercise similar to what I had heard about in the empirical study where participants worked individually and then in groups on building Lego vehicles, and could see how much more quickly they got built as a group. For O'Keeffe, the emphasis was on the group, usually in the form of competition between business functions (across silos), and one of the ways that he sometimes taught it was by using the 'gossip test' to demonstrate it at work and to make the choice of collaboration.

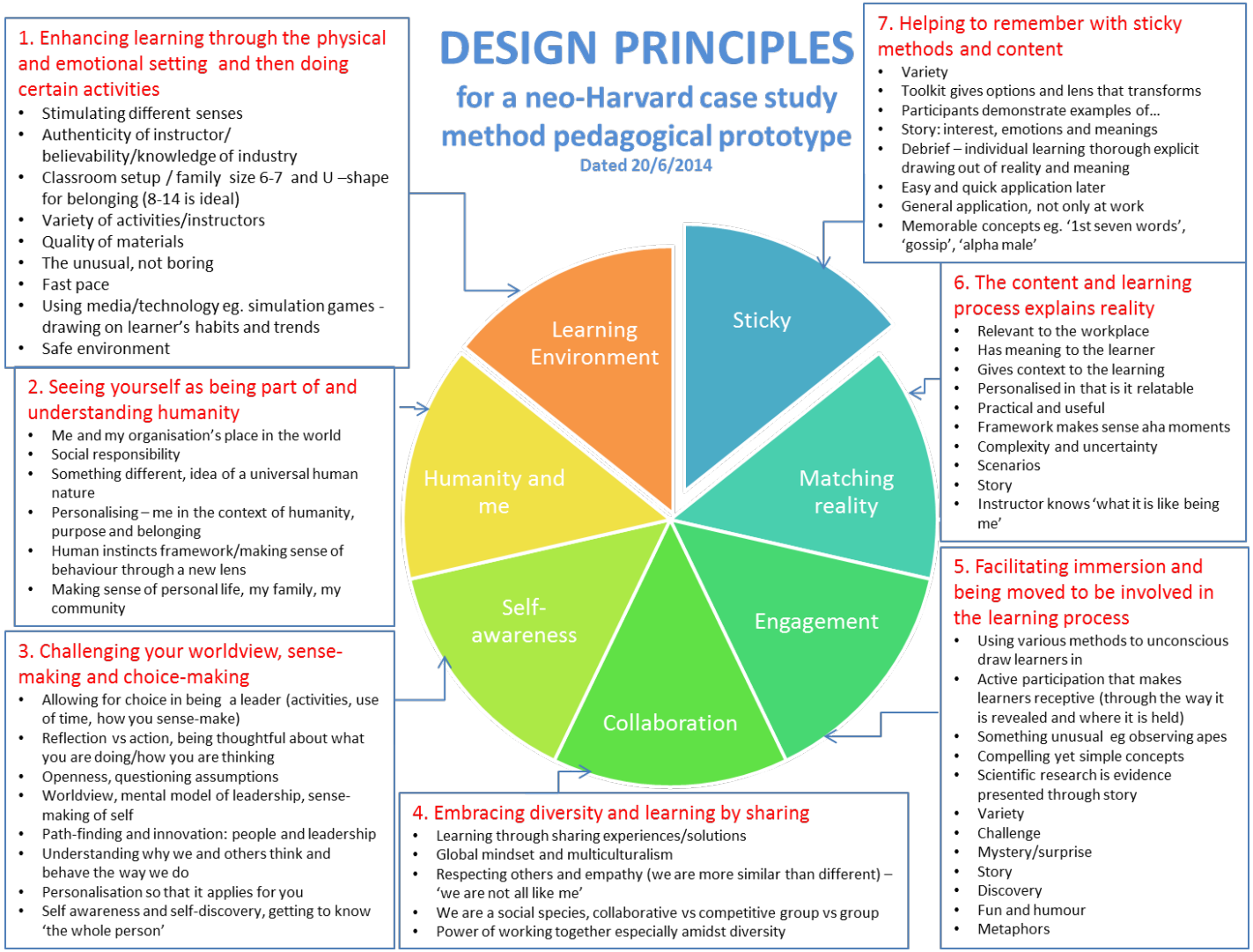



**Figure 8-3: Third design principles prototype model**

In this instance, which he found worked well, he would go through a four-step process in getting one business function to understand how it communicated about another: (1) 'Write a list of what you currently say about them?', (2) 'What do you think they currently say about you?', and then six months later (3) 'What would you want them to say about you?', and (4) 'What actions are you going to take, as it's entirely within your influence, stop blaming them, it's about you, and what are you going to do?'

As we discussed it, we realised that 'collaboration' also had a number different elements, such as 'embracing diversity', 'multiculturalism', and 'understanding that not everyone is like me' – the latter of which O'Keeffe felt 'it's where a lot of the 'ah-ha' moments come, I think, in the programme'.

We agreed that both 'collaboration' and 'engagement' - and most of the other principles - had components of content and method, whilst other principles were primarily about one or the other: content ('humanity and me') and method ('learning environment'). I included all of these changes which resulted in the third design principles model as represented in **Figure 8.3.**

#### *8.4.2.3 Third round: 18 July 2014*

In our final round of developing a more comprehensive model, we looked through all the changes that had been included in the visual representation, and chiefly discussed our interpretation of the meaning of each element. We also confirmed the definitions that I had revised in relation to our previous discussions. There were not many changes to be made to the model, other than a few clarifications of meaning, and the extraction of concepts which were duplicated in the model.

**Sticky.** We agreed that the 'toolkit that gives options' meant that it is sticky because there are different things you one can draw on, and that 'lens that transforms' is a separate point. We also confirmed that because participants needed to give examples of their application/usage, it made the learning sticky.

**Engagement.** We agreed an all of the elements captured within this principle.

**Reality.** O'Keeffe preferred the definition to use the word 'explains' rather than 'matches'.

**Environment.** O'Keeffe noted that if we were going to have 40 people in the MBA classroom, we would not have a U-shape, it would be more appropriate to have a 'cabaret'-type table setting, with family-size groups or 6-7 at each round table. The U-shape was preferable to him, as they all then had eye contact, but this only worked with up to 8-14 people. We both agreed that 'stimulating the different senses' fitted in both the 'learning environment' and 'engagement' principle. We consciously agreed that this principle, which represented the learning environment, was broader in concept and more 'neutral' than some of the others such as 'sticky' and 'reality'.

**Humanity.** We discussed the element 'something different, idea of a universal human nature', and realised that 'something different' was already captured as it represented a new lens as in the human instincts framework. The second part of the element referred to the fact that we all have similarities as a human race.

**Self.** O'Keeffe asked that I replace 'how you sense-make' with 'how you make sense of situations'. We also discussed O'Keeffe's interpretation of 'getting to know 'the whole person'. His view was that in the role of leader in doing this sort of programme it was important to realise that one needed to know the team member more holistically, which he also saw as sometimes challenging the leader's worldview. He gave the example of regular one-on-ones, which he saw as an important way for leaders to connect with each team member individually by getting to know more about them.

**Collaboration.** In the element 'power of working together', I had added especially amidst diversity, and O'Keeffe agreed with this.

***Figure 8.4*** represents the changes that were made in accordance with our discussion. We had realised from the start, once we had created the first set of design principles, that it would be important to find an organising methodology for the design principles model. As we pondered over this, we considered a number of options. At first we felt that it would be useful to organise the design principles according to stage in the learning cycle. These are slightly different in each learning model, but basically involved a number of sequential states. However, several of the design principles that we had identified were interrelated and were not necessarily sequential. I mentioned to O'Keeffe again that we needed to find a way of organising the design principles model, and when I looked at the design principle involving 'engagement' which by its very essence involved such a large number of teaching approaches I considered what the main factor was that was relevant in ensuring its success. Humour, fun and story seemed important from the empirical research, and other sources suggested mystery and surprise would engage. But what was it about humans that kept them immersed? I came up with the idea that human beings liked to discover, and that it seemed like part of human nature to discover. O'Keeffe really liked that idea and felt that it fitted well with everything he knew about people. I noted when we left the meeting that I would think about how to include this idea of discovery in the model, but we had thus far failed to find an organising principle for the model.

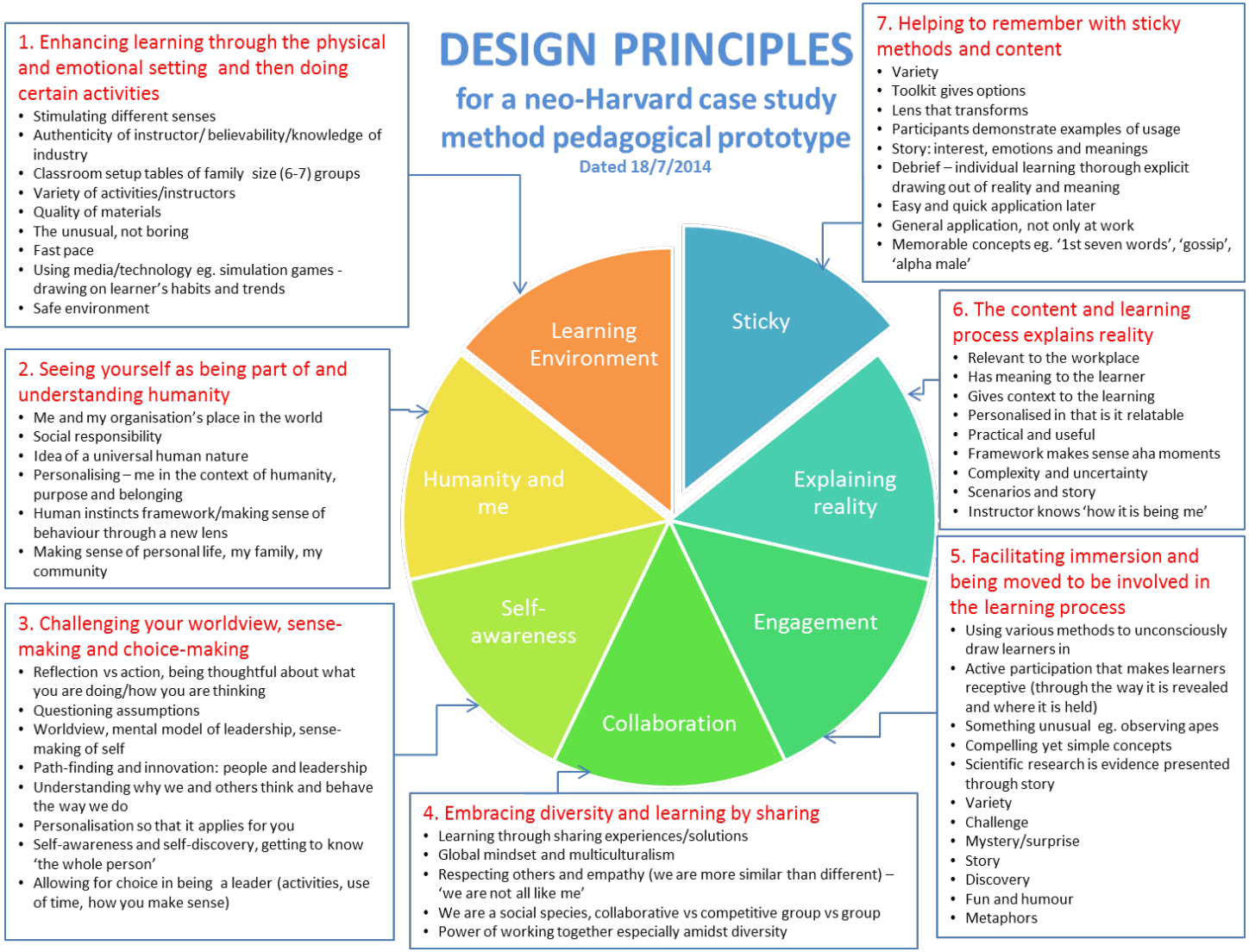



**Figure 8-4: Fourth design principles prototype model**

## 8.5 Developing a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype for the MBA context

O'Keeffe and I had discussed various ways in which his current Zoo programme could transform to suit the MBA setting, but more importantly, to build in components of the neo-Harvard case method design principle model that we had developed together. In the course of 2014 we discussed ideas for the model several times, and then in two October meetings we focused exclusively on the specific components we wanted to include in the new programme. Although he had played an instrumental role in forging a research partnership with MGSM and with me personally, and had been a part of the process in determining the design principles, O'Keeffe remained hesitant to change the format of his Zoo programme to include them. I had expected that because the programme was already being run successfully it might be difficult for him to make substantial changes, but I did not realise that he would be as resistant as he initially was. We deliberated and at times negotiated various ways in which we could include each design principle without taking too much out of his current offering, and as we conferred over some of the possible activities linked to each design principle he began to see the inherent value of including them. One of the most important constraints was that in order to fit into the 1½-day slot within which the prototype was planned to run, it was necessary to cut down on the typical 2-day Zoo programme.

In our previous meetings O'Keeffe had explicitly stated that he felt his existing Zoo programme did not do enough in terms of certain elements and principles, such as 'reflection' and focus on the 'self', and that he would like to do more in this respect. He also wanted to bring in more 'sharing from each other', and he had appreciated the components involved in collaborative learning. Several elements which he had identified himself, and others that had emanated from the empirical study or from dialogue with him over the years, and which I had made separate note of by also going back through all the transcripts, are depicted in ***Table 8.4*** below. We looked at the list to test that they were all reflected in the design principles model developed in the previous section, and found that they were, but we wanted them at the top of our minds in designing the new programme.

Both the practitioner and I agreed to draw up a proposed new programme on our own, and then we met to discuss our different approaches. We realised it was important to look at the aspects of O'Keeffe's programme that had been identified as needing change (as in the above *Table*), whilst also ensuring that we covered each design principle in the model we had developed. We looked at O'Keeffe's proposed prototype first (see ***Appendix O*** for both our proposed programmes), and to my surprise it was not very different from his current Zoo programme. He had cut it down by half a day, taking out sections from the normal 2-day programme including: performance feedback, empathy and managing the individual and the learning quiz game.

| |
|---|
| • Remembering all nine human instincts<br>• How to reinforce when there is only a day and half and no follow-up later<br>• More theory?<br>• More challenge/mystery/surprise?<br>• Stimulating different senses more?<br>• Power of working together and embracing diversity<br>• Collaboration vs. competition – how to use both as a leader<br>• Learning through sharing experiences/solutions<br>• Understanding and respecting differences<br>• Self-awareness especially of worldview and mental models, getting to know the 'whole person' and what that means as a leader<br>• Thinking critically and creatively – challenging assumptions (making the case for human instincts yet encouraging an open mind-set re worldview)<br>• Sense-making and impact on choices made as a leader<br>• Reflection and thoughtfulness – are there better ways of thinking and doing things?<br>• Humanity and how I fit in as a part of that – what is my social responsibility and sense of community? How can I make the world a better place?<br>• Using human instincts as a new framework to understand human behaviour - impact on my own life, at work and at home with the family<br>• Different classroom set-up<br>• Technology – how can it be best used? Can it be used as part of the evaluation process too? Can it be used as a reflective exercise during and after? |

**Table 8.4: Suggested changes to the existing Zoo programme**

After he had explained what he had in mind, I questioned him about how he saw the design principles being accommodated, especially those relating to self-awareness and collaboration. He answered that he was not sure how to do that as he would have to trade off part of his current programme. He felt that it was all very important to keep intact because he often had people approaching him, interested in becoming accredited as a practitioner of his programme, and who had attended his course several years back. They commented on how memorable it had been, and talked about how they had been on many leadership programmes, but this one had stuck with them, and there were still concepts that they applied. As he noted:

> In a 1½-day programme there is a time trade-off, what are we taking out that makes it less memorable?

My response was to ask how we could make it even more memorable with deeper levels of learning. I could understand his hesitancy to include more into the programme when he had spent much time and effort to come up with a winning package, but I also knew I had to remind him of our goal to include the new design principles that we had co-created.

I explained that although this involved taking out some of the existing programme, it was important to bring in the things that we had both agreed were important. O'Keeffe responded by saying: 'It almost tests that model, doesn't it?' I agreed saying that this was exactly what it was doing, and that was why it was important for us to talk about it, questioning which aspects of the programme could

change in some way to accommodate the design principles. I reminded him again that our model reflected the trends in MBA education in terms of what should be taught, with more emphasis on self-development, collaboration, diversity management, and this was in response to current needs in the world.

I agreed to include the aspects of the programme that he seemed to most enjoy, so that the next time we met we could make further adjustments or additions. In the next meeting, we ended up reaching consensus wherein each of the seven principles was comprehensively addressed. The details of the new prototype we developed are discussed in more depth in ***Chapter 10****: Neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype for the MBA context.*

## 8.6 Summary

This interactive cyclical dialogical discussion process allowed for the melding of ideas from the academic world and those of practice, providing O'Keeffe and I with time to reflect and reconsider our pedagogical approach to a neo-Harvard case study method prototype. This was because these interactions occurred over a lengthy time period, involving 19 meetings during the course of 2011-2014, and involving several other opportunities for more informal discussion such as his book launch and leadership conferences. My personal involvement in two of his two-day Zoo programmes also contributed to the iterative development process that enabled us to determine the areas that he had already sensed that he wanted to improve on in his existing programme, and more importantly for the purposes of my work, to draw on those ideas that had emerged from the literature reviews and empirical study.

Although it was not obvious until we began to develop the prototype for the MBA context, I was aware of the constant tension between the fact that the existing programme was in a format that already worked so well judging by the success of the Hardwired Humans business, and my aim with regard to the thesis: to develop a neo-Harvard case study method that captures the strengths but overcomes the limitations of the traditional method for MBA education. Nevertheless, through our discussions we discovered key pedagogical insight into how we could make constructive changes that would achieve both ends.

In our first set of discussions, through examining the strengths of his existing programme and his experiences with the four organisations involved in the empirical study - Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains, and Thales – we highlighted aspects of content and method that could feed into the prototype. In our second set of discussions, through an examination of the themes emerging from the three literature reviews and the empirical critique of the Zoo, we isolated several pedagogical components that we felt critical to include in the prototype, and which culminated in a set of 18 initial design principles laying the foundation for the prototyping process. In the third set of

discussions, through an interactive prototyping process we whittled down these initial principles to a set of 7 prototype design principles which we represent in a design principles model. This was refined through dialogue, working through several versions, until we reached the fourth and final version. In our final set of discussions, this design principles model was then drawn upon to create an MBA pedagogical prototype.

# PART THREE: Design Principles and MBA Prototype

# 9 Neo-Harvard Case Study Method: Design Principles

## 9.1 Introduction

In this chapter the design principles are elaborated to reveal the aspects considered most important in constructing a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype. The elements comprising each principle are discussed here in detail, providing the foundation for the next chapter which aims to develop an experimental pedagogical prototype which builds upon, yet goes beyond the Harvard case study method.

In ***Appendix P***, justification and support for this initiative, and in particular the prototyping process involved in creating a set of pedagogical design principles, is provided through a literature review of the concept of design research and its application to learning innovations. In addition, the final integrated set of prototype design principles which were presented in the previous chapter, and developed through continual interaction between components of the literature reviews and empirical critique of the Zoo programme, are presented in accordance with the rationale of an organised principle of learning: general human capabilities. The focus of the main text of this chapter, however, is on each of the design principles, and their key elements, are elaborated upon in more detail, drawing on literature from learning theory and evolutionary psychology as well as the findings from our earlier study of the management pedagogy literature (based on the findings of the literature reviews: ***Chapters 2-4***) and management practice (the findings of the empirical analysis of the Hardwired Humans programme based on interviews with participants and an iterative dialogue with the facilitator-practitioner: ***Chapters 7-8***). Towards the end of this chapter a new representation of the design principles is shown as a model, reflecting the organised principle of general human capabilities. In the final section a summary is presented which highlights the main insights from this chapter.

Before looking at the design principles in detail, I would like to show how the pedagogical themes that emerged from earlier literature review chapters and the empirical study are represented in each design principle. The pedagogical themes drawn upon from these chapters in support of the seven prototype design principles are reflected in ***Table 9.1***. As can be seen from the table, the content and method related themes from the literature review chapters (***Chapter 2-4***) and the empirical study (***Chapter 7***) are reflected in each design principle. This shows how these themes, which in their current form were informed by the cyclical dialogical dialogue process during the course of the study, comprehensively inform the design principles.

| SEVEN PROTOTYPE DESIGN PRINCIPLE | THEMES | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | LITERATURE REVIEWS | | | | EMPIRICAL STUDY | | | |
| | Chapter 2. Harvard case study method | | Chapter 3. MBA Education – Past | | Chapter 4. MBA Education – Future | | Chapter 7. Empirical study of the Zoo | |
| *Content (**C**) and method (**M**)* | **C** | **M** | **C** | **M** | **C** | **M** | **C** | **M** |
| *1 Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities* | | 10, 11 | | 9, 11 | | 11, 12 | 2, 5 | 10, 12 |
| *2 Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity* | | 8, 9 | 2 | | 3, 6 | | 4 | |
| *3 Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-make and make choices* | | 10 | 4 | 10 | 2, 5 | 10 | 3 | 6 |
| *4 In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing* | | 4, 5, 6 | 3 | | 4 | | | 16 |
| *5 Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process* | 2 | 4, 5, 6, 7 | | 8 | | 13 | 2 | 7, 8, 9, 11, 17 |
| *6 The content and learning process should explain reality to learners* | 1, 3 | | 1, 5 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 13, 18 |
| *7 Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content* | 2 | 7, 12 | 6 | | 1 | 9 | | 14, 15 |

**Table 9.1: Design principles from theory and practice that support the integrated set of design principles**

In table 9.1 the integrated set of seven prototype design principles are cross referenced to key themes and issues that are documented in earlier chapters of this thesis. Linkages to both Content (C) and Method (M) are tabled.

Within Chapter 2 (Harvard case study method) a total of 12 themes are documented – 3 themes pertaining to Content and 9 themes pertaining to Method.

Within Chapter 3 (MBA Education – Past) a total of 11 themes are documented – 6 themes pertaining to Content and 5 themes pertaining to Method.

Within Chapter 4 (MBA Education – Future) a total of 13 themes are documented – 7 themes pertaining to Content and 6 themes pertaining to Method.

Within Chapter 7 (Empirical study of the Zoo) a total of 18 themes are documented – 5 themes pertaining to Content and 13 themes pertaining to Method.

## 9.2 Principle 1:- Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities

**Learning theories.** This design principle is chiefly about pedagogical method, with all of the elements relating to delivery aspects. Each of the elements described influences how the learner feels, and it is for this reason that it is argued that the human capability drawn on in the learning process is that of 'emotion'. Research in the field of neuroscience has shown that emotions are a necessary precursor to rationality, and that it is not possible to reason without emotions and feelings (Damasio, 1994; LeDoux, 1998). For this reason, Haidt (2001) suggests that:-

- emotions can no longer be considered irrational, supported by research by Frank (1988);
- reasoning cannot be considered reliable, supported by Kahneman's (2011) research; and
- animals cannot be considered amoral, as advocated by De Waal and others (DeWaal, 2010; DeWaal, DeWaal, Macedo & Ober, 2009).

According to Le Doux (1998), emotions originate in the brain at a much deeper level than conscious feelings, and emotional responses are hardwired as part of our brain's mechanics. His research reveals that those things that make us emotional are learned through experience, and that many psychological disorders occur because of glitches in the way emotion systems learn and remember.

Despite the powerful impact emotions can have on the learning process, it was only towards the turn of the 20th century that they began to garner attention in learning (Ingleton, 1999). Although this can be explained by a historical belief going back as far as Plato that emotions subjugate rationality and cloud the truth (Dirkx, 2001), it is also partly ascribed to the dominance of cognitive psychology over educational research and thus the difficulties involved in capturing the emotional aspects of learning in research efforts. Increasingly there has been interest in looking at the role of emotions in the learning process, and the constructionist paradigm sheds some light. This theory focuses on the meaning learners make of their experience, which includes looking at the impact of emotion (Ingleton, 1999). The constructionist theory of learning, which involves the construction of mental models in order to understand the world around one, can occur even more effectively when learners actively produce concrete objects (Papert & Harel, 1991). Barbalet (2001) argues that because emotion comprises elements of reason, action and feeling, it can no longer be considered as 'irrationality'. Emotion has a deep and central role to play in learning as it is impacted by social relationships and helps to create a sense of identity that is important in the learning process:

> Emotions shape learning and teaching experiences for both teachers and students, and the recognition of their significance merits further consideration in both learning theory and pedagogical practice.(Ingleton, 1999, p. 9)

It was in the early 20th century that Dewey argued for the development of the 'whole' child, and Sylwester (1994) suggests that it could be research on the role of emotions in learning that actualises this outcome. Traditionally it is those measurable rational abilities that have been valued in the schooling system, yet emotions are far more powerful in determining behaviour than the brain's rational processes (because there are far more neural fibres connecting from the emotional centre into the rational centre than the reverse). Dirkx (2001) also advocates emotions as integral to the process of adult learning. To him, the making of meaning is more likely impacted by emotion and imagination than rational and reflective thinking, and the meanings attributed to emotional states inform us about ourselves and the world around us. He notes that emotions are more than mere impediments or motivators in the learning process, and the imaginative and affective should be appreciated as 'modes of knowing in their own right'. Research by Damasio (1999; 1994) on brain-based theories and Goleman's (1998) concept of emotional intelligence both reveal that emotions play a key role in the processing of external information as well as the internal storing and retrieving of information in memory. Furthermore, recent research into transformational learning theory suggests that non-rational aspects such as emotion and spirituality are integral to deep and lasting change (Dirkx, 1997, 2001).

Just like Dewey, Jarvis (2009) advocates for a more comprehensive theory of learning that focuses on the 'whole person', which includes body and mind. He suggests that current theories of learning tend to have 'an incomplete theory of the person', and need to begin with an understanding of the learner, but look more broadly than the psychological perspective to include sociological and other viewpoints. He sees the senses – seeing, hearing, feeling, smelling and tasting – as the beginning of every learning experience and describes his understanding of the learning process as follows:

> Human learning is the combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person – body (genetic, physical and biological) and mind (knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, beliefs and senses) – experiences social situations, the perceived content of which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically (or through any combination) and integrated into the individual person's biography resulting in a continually changing (or more experienced) person (Jarvis, 2009, p. 25).

**Evolutionary psychology theory.** Haselton & Ketelaar (2006) highlight the paradox inherent in Western society where rational thought prevails yet, from an evolutionary psychology perspective, emotions are considered sensible. Theoretical and empirical evidence in support of evolutionary psychology explanations about human behaviour help to overcome this paradox by linking certain adaptive problems to specific emotions. The discipline of evolutionary psychology advances the notion that the human mind is designed by natural selection to solve adaptive problems faced by our

hunter-gatherer ancestors – and to regulate behaviour to meet these ends there is an associated theory of emotions (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000). The theory suggests that, just as biological changes occurred over time in response to challenges faced by our stone-age ancestors, so were there psychological changes. Emotion was an important part of responding to environmental challenges in order to survive and reproduce, and evolutionary psychologists, Cosmides & Tooby (2000), apply cognitive science conceptions to many relevant ancestral challenges – such as aggression, cooperation and sexual attraction – that relate to the study of emotion. The mind is considered as a kind of computer which has specialised programmes which have evolved to deal with each challenge that has been faced repeatedly over time. However, because of conflicting challenges that can be faced at the same time, the mind is 'equipped with superordinate programs that override some programs when others are activated' (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000, p. 2). This structure also helps to manage situations where a number of different 'programs' are required to solve a problem, which is often the case. These 'superordinate programs', say Cosmides & Tooby, are emotions:

> In this view, the exploration of the statistical structure of ancestral situations and their relationship to the mind's battery of functionally specialized programs is central to mapping the emotions. This is because the most useful (or least harmful) deployment of programs at any given time will depend critically on the exact nature of the conflicting situation (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000, p. 2).

As far as learning is concerned, the emotions are expected to impact directly, particularly in terms of the nature of the emotion that is being experienced. In this view there are highly specialised learning mechanisms which are triggered , such as food aversion or being conditioned to fear (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000). In organisations today, Nicholson (2000b) argues that we still possess stone-age minds comprising these same learning mechanisms, making us ill-suited to modern industrial and commercial environments. Of the ten themes of human nature he writes about, there are two that apply in terms of this principle. 'Emotions before reason' refers to the fact that people keep their emotions in check, but when they vent their feelings they can be difficult to control. He explains: 'Even when we think our reason is in command, it is dancing to the rhythms of the emotions' (Nicholson, 2000b, p. 5). The second theme is 'loss aversion and the quest for control' which involves regaining control in situations that are emotionally upsetting, and this translates into failure aversion within an organisational context.

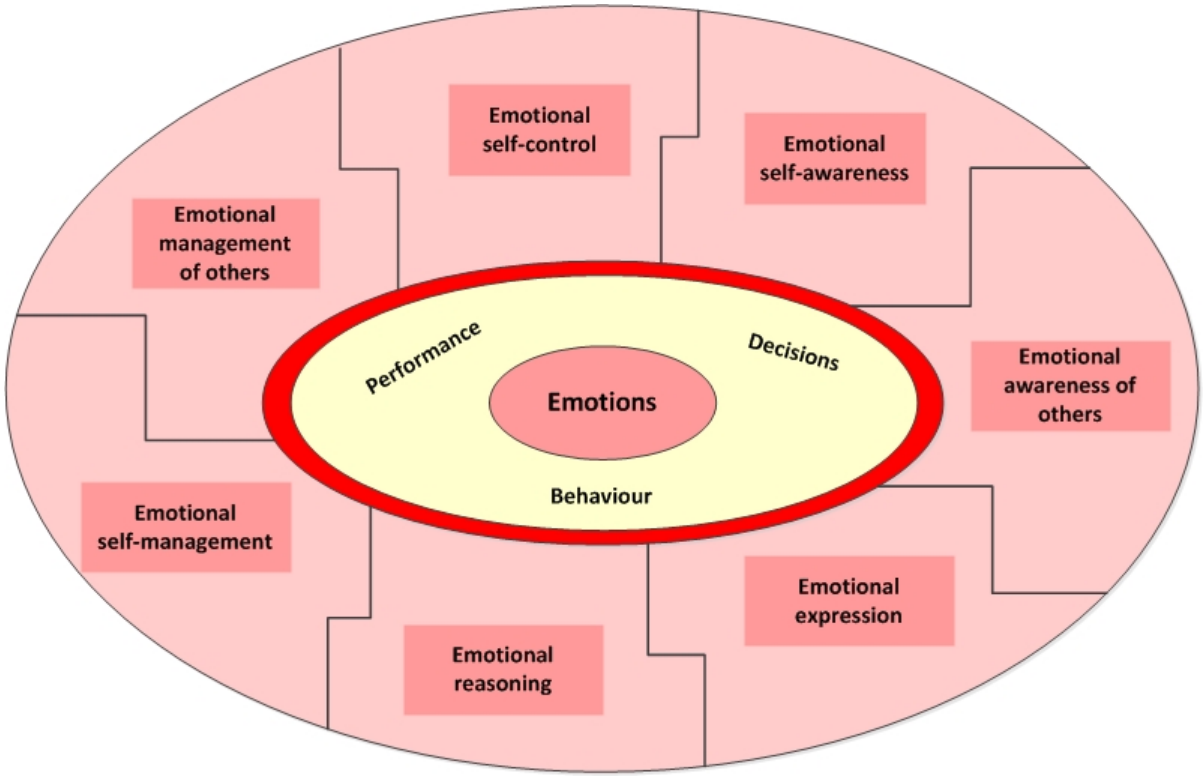
**Literature reviews.** There are several limitations of the Harvard case study method that should ideally be included in a neo-Harvard case study method prototype. For instance, one of the weaknesses of the traditional Harvard case study method is that emotion is not explicitly and overtly drawn on in terms of content and method used. In some instances, there are minor initial paragraphs in the actual physical case that utilise some form of drama which is used to 'hook' learners in

emotionally. Furthermore, the traditional use of the case method fails to capture the complexity involved in terms of dynamic human emotion in the workplace, and thus does not match the reality of leaders operating in the workplace. The emergence of more sophisticated technology provides the opportunity to heighten the sense of reality in the simulation process – such as interactive virtual technology and teaching through online platforms – as the traditional Harvard case study method is static and fails to show the dynamic realities of the business world. Because a large group of 90 learners is typically taught in the traditional case method, there is limited opportunity to capture the collaborative conversational learning and sharing that typically occurs in smaller groups. MBA teaching has drawn on a scientific approach since the 1950s which is detached, ignoring the significant part of what makes us human – our emotions. In teaching MBAs in the future, it is advocated that there should be more focus on the emotions in the teaching process, offering a variety of pedagogical content and method that stimulate the different senses so that more powerful and deeper learning takes place.

What is the role of emotion in management education? Bowen (2013) argues that emotions are part of the learning process and that, when these emotions are aroused, they improve learning and retention. Fineman (1997) takes a position that the traditional cognitive approach to management learning has obscured the presence and role of emotion. Other scholars recognise that the interplay between emotion and learning is a source of both debate and enquiry (Simpson & Marshall, 2013; Brown, 2000).

Fineman (1997) concludes that there is a need for more explicit frameworks, drawn from the widest literature on the subject of emotion, that place emotion as both a product and process of learning.

A visual framework that associates emotions with primary outcomes from the use of emotions – Behaviour, Decisions and delivery of Performance is the subject of Figure 9.1. In the figure there are connections of the outcomes to the core variable factors that act as drivers to the emotions-related outcomes (Batool, 2013, p. 90).




Source: adapted from *Batool (2013, p. 90)*

**Figure 9-1: Emotions associated with outcomes and outcome-related drivers.**

Scholars who have researched the matter regard emotions as important for effective leadership and decision-taking (Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2009; Batool, 2013; Jain, 2014).

The key actors in the management education processes have a leadership role and duty in the delivery of management education 'success'. The learner role is primarily associated with self-leadership in achieving personal goals while instructors (teachers) have a primary leadership role to play in delivery of course, curriculum and institutional outcomes. Management of emotions may consequently be viewed as one critical success factor in the delivery of management education. One scholar (Bowen, 2013) advocates the inclusion of 'emotions' scholarly research into education and practice. Improvements to the case study method is one possible way to build 'emotions management' into coursework delivery.

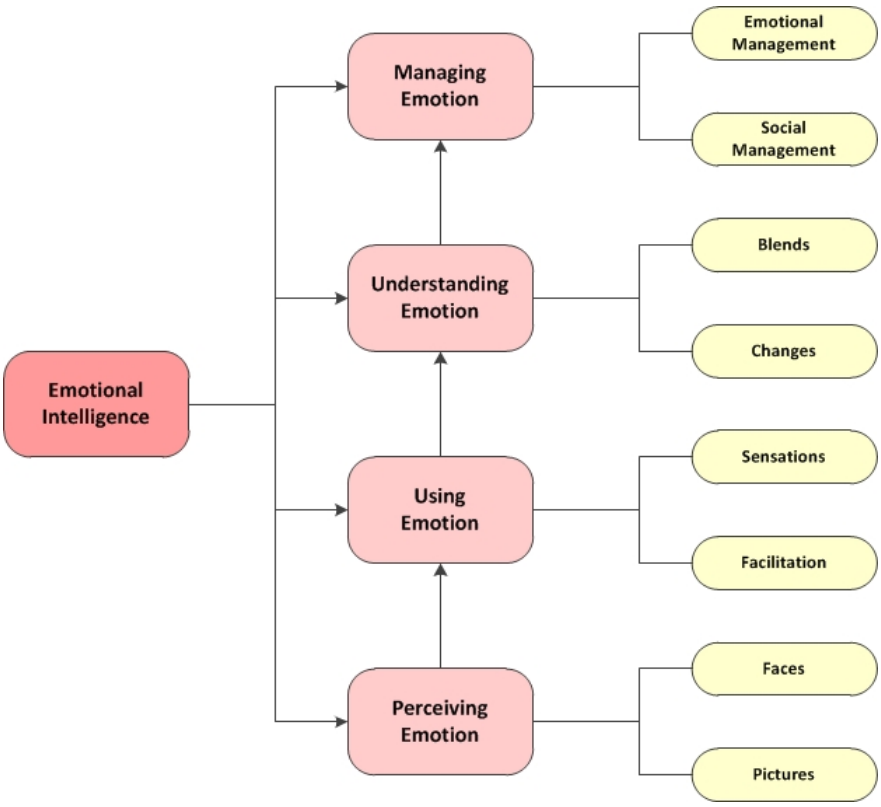
In 1990 emotional intelligence was described formally by two scholars (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). They defined it as 'the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions' (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189).

A number of scholars have made contributions to the field of study 'emotional intelligence' and that today have yielded two scientific approaches to emotional intelligence. The approaches can be broadly classified as the ability model approach and mixed models approach (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso four branch model – an ability model – of emotional intelligence states that there are four branches of skills that are related to emotional intelligence. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso construct provides for each of the branch 'emotions' to be mapped and measured. The construct is specifically designed as an emotions measurement tool or resource.

The four branches of the model are hierarchically linked with the bottom 'emotion' branch, 'perceiving emotion', ultimately feeding into the top 'emotion' branch of 'managing emotion' (Mayer, et al., 2000; Brackett, Rivers & Salovey, 2011; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Batool, 2013; Jain, 2014).

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso four branch model is the subject of Figure 9.2.




Source: adapted from *Brackett et al. (2011, p. 92)*

**Figure 9-2: Graphical representation of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso model of Emotional Intelligence.**

The 8 'measurement' branches to the 4 'emotion' branches form part of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso construct to facilitate measurement of emotions at each of the 4 'emotion' branches.

For the purpose of this study the content of the 4 'emotion' branches can be viewed as potential connecting points for the targeted integration of case study method improvements through specific attention to emotions management in the design and delivery of an improved case study method.

**Empirical research.** The empirical study of the Zoo programme revealed that the learning environment described in this principle is implicit in the learning process, as supported by various

participant findings and the researcher's participant observation. The content and method resonates with all participants, reflecting a commitment to engage at a deep emotional level. The practitioner, Andrew O'Keeffe, who was a co-developer of the design principles in this chapter, revealed that his teaching method is driven by an appeal to the emotions, one of the chief reasons being that it one of the 'human instincts' identified in evolutionary psychology theory i.e. 'emotions before reason'. For this reason all of the pedagogical devices listed in the elements are activated with an appeal to the emotions in mind, such as family-sized learning groups so that learners feel a sense of belonging, or drawing on unusual methods – such as the Zoo location – so that learners feel excited and stimulated about the learning experience. Furthermore, the use of a variety of teaching methods is more likely to draw on a range of emotions and different parts of the learner, making the learning more interesting, and feeling safe in the learning environment will encourage exploration.

***[48]Elements underpinning the creation and maintenance of a learning environment within Principle 1***

a. SENSES – Learning should stimulate the different senses, drawing on the 'whole person' not just the intellect.
b. AUTHENTICITY – An authentic instructor makes learners believe in the learning process.
c. GROUP SIZE – Family-size groups of no more than 6-7 people encourages a sense of belonging.
d. VARIETY – The use of a variety of activities is more likely to appeal to the different senses and emotions, making the learning more interesting.
e. QUALITY – The quality of the teaching materials draws learners in as they are attracted by the care and attention involved in developing them.
f. THE UNUSUAL – The unusual tends to engage as learners are curious to learn about something with which they are unfamiliar.
g. FAST PACE – Learning should be fast pace as it keeps attention focused.
h. TECHNOLOGY – The use of technology that is appropriate to the needs and preferences of students can work well in the teaching process as it draws on their habits and will attract them emotionally, leading them into the learning process.
i. SAFETY – Students that feel emotionally and physically safe in the learning environment are much more open to explore and discover in the learning process.

## 9.3 Principle 2:- Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity

**Learning theories.** This design principle is primarily about content, but there are two elements which involve the use of pedagogical method. Content focuses on humanity and the contemporary moral and ethical role that business leaders play in terms of this broader context. As regards each of the elements for this design principle, the primary human capability appealed to in the learning process is 'moral intuition'. Historically this can be compared to Aristotle's conception of virtue – with *phrónêsis* being a unifying and critical habit of the mind - and Socrates's idea of *phrónêsis* or

[48] Framing of text is used throughout Chapter 9 to highlight the design elements associated with nominated design principles.

‘moral understanding’ as the most critical learning outcome. Aristotle argued that it could not be taught, advocating instead that it could only be acquired through enhanced self-knowledge (Gallagher, 1992). In more recent times, McIntyre (1984) has called for the social sciences to include the idea of *phrónêsis* because of the unpredictability of the human race, and thus the need to look at practical experiences. For this reason the use of case knowledge is essential to the practice of *phrónêsis*, as advocated by Aristotle in ancient times (Flyvbjerg, 2001). Others like Birmingham (2004) advocate that reflection in the learning process should be coloured by *phrónêsis*, introducing the idea of this teaching method having a moral dimension in the learning process. Although she acknowledges that teaching in this way is complex, it is essential:

> As the purpose of morality is to promote human welfare, the purpose of phrónêsis in this context is to promote the welfare of all involved in teaching and learning. In a time when society’s moral questions are polarizing, emotionally laden, and associated with partisan politics, phrónêsis speaks as an alternative voice for the place of ethics in education (Birmingham, 2004, p. 322).

Moral learning is curiously absent from adult learning (Brookfield, 1998), and Palmer et al (2010) argue for the importance of including elements of relationship and the ‘interconnectedness of humanity and the earth’ in the learning process. This highlights the connection between learning and purpose and meaning in our lives, reflecting the complexity of our lives and helping to make sense through an integrative education approach. One theory of moral development that can be drawn on in the learning process is that of Kohlberg’s (Kohlberg, 1971; Kohlberg, Levine & Hewer, 1983) framework of moral reasoning, which is an adaption of Piaget’s psychological theory. According to this theory, there are six stages of moral development a person’s competence is assessed as he or she moves up the levels (represented by blind egoism at the first level to mutual respect as a universal principle at the sixth level), in psychological terms and in terms of how conflicting social-value claims are managed. For Kohlberg, the ideal result is when a person evaluates a moral judgement wherein the judgement would be satisfactory if roles were switched.

**Evolutionary psychology theory.** From an evolutionary biology perspective, it is often argued that success in survival and procreation is driven solely by self-interest. The design of organisms is highly sophisticated, however, sometimes benefitting the survival of the species as a whole rather than the individual. The idea of altruistic behaviour as a product of evolution is documented by Wilson (2012) and Wright (2010), and De Waal (2010; 2009) illustrates the evolution of morality through his empirical work in primatology. In this work there is evidence spanning millions of years underscoring empathy as the mechanism through which this occurs. Similarly, from the perspective of evolutionary psychologists (Cosmides & Tooby, 2004), it is insightful to understand human nature if the intention is to create a just and humane social order through the teaching of business and ethics.

In the challenging ancestral environment it was to the benefit of human beings to collaborate in order to survive, so they would not merely operate at the level of self-interest. In the same way, these tendencies towards social exchange, collective action, and the social construction of groups can be harnessed in the business environment. In *Knowing thyself: The evolutionary psychology of moral reasoning and moral sentiments*, Cosmides & Tooby (2004) argue that the realities of a human nature designed to possess an 'us versus them' mentality in some situations needs to be highlighted so that it is possible to activate ethical solutions. The idea of a universal human nature, a key assumption of evolutionary psychologists, in which we all share certain characteristics – often clouded by the adoption of different cultures – can help to activate strategies that capitalise on the diversity of the human race.

**Literature reviews.** With its origins in the early 20th century, when business was considered an inferior occupation and social welfare was a mainstream concern, the Harvard case study method was proposed as a teaching method that could teach people to be 'professional' businessmen (Khurana, 2007). That is, as a professional needing to adhere to strict codes of conduct which involved stringent ethical and moral obligations, one would have the broader needs of society at heart. This did not explicitly eventuate in the use of the traditional case method, and there are limitations in the Harvard case study method as a 'phronetic' exercise where values are considered and practical wisdom is developed, for which reason these aspects should ideally be included in a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype. Ethics has been increasingly included as 'add-on' subjects in MBA business school curricula, especially since early in the 21st century (Anteby & Khurana, 2012; Khurana, 2007; Khurana & Nohria, 2008; Fryer & Levine, 2009), and ethics and values are expected to become more important to include in MBA pedagogy in the future (Datar et al., 2011; Fougère, Solitander & Young, 2014; Khurana, 2007; Khurana & Nohria, 2008), shifting these institutions away from their value-neutral approach of the past. The impact of *phrónêsis* (Antonacopoulou, 2010; Shotter & Tsoukas, 2014), moral reasoning (Desplaces, Melchar, Beauvais & Bosco, 2007; Fougère et al., 2014) and practical wisdom (Billsberry & Birnik, 2010; Küpers & Pauleen, 2013; Roca, 2008; Statler, 2014) in the learning process has been brought into business schools increasingly over the years, especially after criticism was levelled at the MBA in the 21st century (Ghoshal, 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; The Economist, 2005). In respect to moral reasoning, Haidt (2001) concludes that evidence suggests that it is not to models of rationality that we need to turn as most thinking occurs automatically and unconsciously i.e. as moral intuition, and that:

> [t]he time may be right, therefore, to take another look at Hume's perverse thesis that moral emotions and intuitions drive moral reasoning, just as surely as a dog wags its tail (Haidt, 2001, p. 830).

**Empirical research.** The empirical data unearthed in the study of the Zoo programme suggests that there is profound resonance in terms of understanding where we come from, and why we behave as we do. Further, the content of the programme provides a new way to understand and make sense of human behaviour through the human instincts framework, providing a lens which helps to manage people in organisations more effectively. As a participant observer in the Zoo programme, it was clear that there was significant interest in the wildlife preservation and the work of the Jane Goodall Institute, and which involved moral undertones. The dialogue with the practitioner revealed the practitioner's underlying philosophy of wanting to make organisations more pleasant places in which to work by improving the way that leaders manage their teams. It was clear that he sees his learning as applying not only to the workplace but at home as well, and aims to help leaders to understand where they fit in terms of humanity, as an individual and as part of an organisation.

***Elements underpinning learners seeing themselves as being part of and understanding humanity within Principle 2***

a. BROADER CONTEXT – In response to serious crises in the environment, in learning about the role of business, it is important for learners to see themselves as part of and understanding humanity.
b. SOCIAL RESPONSIBIITY – Ethics and corporate social responsibility is an important part of acting responsibly as a leader.
c. UNIVERSALITY – Learners can benefit from the perspective that human beings have a universal human nature.
d. PURPOSE AND BELONGING – Learners need to understand the various aspects of their lives – their personal lives, their work, their family and their community – in determining what is most important.
e. HUMAN INSTINCTS – The human instincts framework resonates deeply with learners, engaging by striking an emotional chord and drawing them in, and helps them understand behaviour in new ways.
f. PERSONAL SENSE-MAKING – Learning should aim to help the learner make sense of their lives in broader terms than only the work place, including personal life, family and community

## 9.4 Principle 3:- Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-make and make choices

**Learning theories.** Two thirds of the elements in this design principle involve the use of pedagogical method, and the other third focuses on content. The chief focus of this principle is to become more conscious of oneself, and thus a better leader. The human capability that is chiefly tapped on in the learning process is 'self-awareness'. French philosopher Descartes famously made the statement 'I think, therefore I am', which became a central element of Western philosophy because it was considered to provide a foundation for all knowledge (Williams, 2014). Whilst being conscious means being aware of body and environment, self-awareness is recognising that consciousness, or realising that one is a thinking person able to consider one's own thoughts (Jabr, 2012). Although it has traditionally been maintained that self-awareness is only a quality experienced by humans

(Markowitsch & Staniloiu, 2011) and some mammals and birds, it has recently been proven that it is much more universal - albeit of a more primitive nature (Hills & Butterfill, 2015).

Baumeister (2010) suggests that interest in the 'self' increased in the 1960s and 70s, attributed to rebellion against the status quo, and involving a search into the inner self to as a means to a happier existence. He argues that self-awareness appears to increase the human being's tendency to live up to an internal virtuous value system. There are a range of learning theories associated with the concept of self-awareness, some more explicit than others. The humanistic theories associated with theorists such as Maslow (1943), Knowles (1973) and Rogers (1951), focus on strengths, and propose learning as a personal act to fulfil one's potential. The ultimate goal of self-actualisation involves personal development and self-understanding which requires a degree of self-awareness. Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy builds on varying degrees of self-awareness, while Mezirow's (1981) transformation theory of adult learning has become a dominant approach in the field of adult learning, in theory and practice. Developed over several decades, this theory involves a transformation of perspectives or worldview. Involving an examination of values, beliefs and emotions, and a questioning of associated deeply held assumptions, this theory proposes three dimensions: psychological (changes in understanding of the self), convictional (revision of belief systems), and behavioural (changes in lifestyle). This kind of perspective transformation, which is the catalyst for transformative learning, does not happen often. According to this theory, learners experience a 'disorientating dilemma' triggered by a life crisis, engage in critical reflection on their experiences, and reconstruct meaning.

Critics of this theory argue that there is too much emphasis played on rationality, that there are often emotions and unconscious thoughts involved (Taylor, 2001) and this kind of learning often involves a creative, intuitive and emotional process (Boyd & Myers, 1988; Dirkx, 1997, 2001). Because the transformation theory of learning involves two human characteristics that appear to be in conflict, the emphasis for instructors needs to shift away from purely focusing on the rational, and facilitate the use of feelings and emotions both in critical reflection and as a means of reflection (Kegan, 2009; Taylor, 2001). Dirkx (1997) explains that this is because our feelings and emotions are a kind of language that helps us to understand ourselves and other better, and to make sense of our experiences. Brookfield (2000) argues, however, that transformative learning cannot take place merely by reflecting; instead it is necessary to question at fundamental levels or to reorganize how one thinks and acts.

**Evolutionary psychology theory.** The ability of human beings to be self-aware is reported to have originated roughly 60,000 years ago (Leary & Buttermore, 2003). As a social animal, the human being faced adaptive problems involving social challenges – such as those regarding mating, competing for scarce resources, the need for support and assistance, and conflict with other groups (Cosmides &

Tooby, 1997). Specialised psychological systems developed within the mind to deal with these challenges, many of which require the ability to evaluate oneself in relation to others, especially in terms of mate selection, status competition and the formation of alliances (Kirkpatrick & Ellis, 2006). Although accurate information about the self is important in solving social challenges, the objective 'truth' about self does not always dominate. This is because individuals might want to inflate their value in specific situations (such as when they are negotiating or persuading), even if it presents them in an inaccurate light, as this is self-serving (Kurzban & Aktipis, 2006). Wright (2010) points to overwhelming evidence as to why humans engage in self-deception, and this implies that humans should be more careful when thinking about who they really are – he explains this as follows:

> Natural selection appears to have hidden our true selves from our conscious selves. As Freud saw, we are oblivious to our deepest motivations – but in ways more chronic and complete (and even, in some cases, more grotesque) than he imagined (Wright, 2010, p. 10).

In the Nicholson (2000b) publication, *Executive Instinct – Managing the Human Animal in the Age of Information*, this self-deception can play out in organisations through the hardwired inclination to have 'confidence before realism', and engage in 'contest and display'. In the case of the former, he notes that:

> We are hardwired to tough it out in situations where we cannot avoid challenge. In fact, we seek out challenging situations, like competitive sports, with the very aim of arousing this psychic buzz of confident performance (Nicholson, 2000b, p. 5).

He argues that, to the detriment of organisations, humans engage in self-deception, and are hardwired to believe that 'the grass is greener on the other side'. They also do not notice inefficiencies around them, and adaptive behaviour makes them feel a sense of stability. Further, he argues that evolution has a bias towards 'economy and simplicity', which is the direct opposite of the complexity in organisations today.

**Literature reviews.** The Harvard case study method has been criticised for its inability to test deeply held assumptions and beliefs, in which case it would be beneficial to introduce a pedagogical tool which encourages critical self-reflection (Argyris, 1980; Griffith, 1999; Rasmussen, 1984). Just as the traditional method is aimed at helping learners to learn a way of thinking in terms of judgement and decision-making, this design principle involves teaching about the importance of new ways of thinking and about making choices as a leader. In MBA education, there has been emphasis on self-awareness in terms of leadership development (Cashman, 2008; Conger, 1992), self-reflection and testing assumptions (Argyris, 2002), and sense-making in organisations (Weick, 1995). In fact, in

organisations self-awareness is possibly the most valuable of leadership competencies (Goleman et al., 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b). Whole person learning is often recommended as a response to deficiencies in leadership abilities; leaders are often functional specialists who do not possess the repertoire of necessary skills that include the ability to learn, reflect and change (MacGregor & Semler, 2012). This holistic kind of learning – engaging the whole person by integrating cognitive, emotional and spiritual learning into the learner's experience - is required to address the complex issues of today, and is part of the integrative education approach which represents a shift from information provision to learning through personal insight (Palmer et al., 2010).

Organisational theorists (Argyris, 2002, 2004; Argyris & Schön, 1974; Mintzberg, 2004a; Schön, 1985, 1987, 1995) have advocated the use of reflection in order to heighten self-awareness in the learning process. Critical reflection can help not only to sense-make in the work-place, it can also help to reveal improved practices and inform more appropriate leadership choices. In his work on organisational learning, Argyris (1977) coined the term 'double-loop' learning in the 1970s, suggesting that if managers looked deeply into their own theories behind their actions, which usually involved a value shift, they could improve the way they operated in the organisation. His later work (Argyris, 2002) explains that many people are blind to their ineffectual behaviour, and most current leadership development initiatives that purport to increase awareness of underlying assumptions and biases, do not. It is predicted that there will be increasingly interest in development of self-awareness skills such as beliefs and values (Datar et al., 2011), increasing use of mental models to sense-make, increasing emphasis on whole person learning (Palmer et al., 2010), and driving business growth by developing innovative and pathfinding skills (Datar et al., 2011; Leavitt, 1989; Pink, 2006; Robinson, 2011).

**Empirical research.** In the study of the Zoo programme, participants found that they learned about themselves in different ways as a leader, and the human instincts framework helped several participants to understand the behaviour of others but also their own behaviour better. They also provided a range of educational experiences that had shifted their worldviews, with many of them citing that confronting personal experiences and personal development programmes having made the most impact. In the dialogue with the practitioner, he showed considerable interest in including more self-reflective content and method, especially in terms of worldviews and mental models of leadership, and the impact on choice and sense-making. Because the Zoo programme in its current form did not have this focus, he was keen to explore ways in which to bring in this component in the learning process.

***Elements underpinning learner self-awareness in their making of sensible, informed choices within Principle 3***

a. REFLECTION - Striking the right balance between reflection and action is critical in operating as a leader, as it is easy to become entangled in the practical act of getting things done each day.
b. QUESTIONING – Learners should be encouraged to constantly question their worldview and that of others if they are to find superior ways of responding to challenges.
c. MENTAL MODEL – Learners should understand that their mental model of leadership plays an important part in how they operate as a leader.
d. PATHFINDING – Learners should recognise the value of pathfinding and innovation in terms of driving business growth, and in how they translate this into leading people.
e. UNDERSTANDING BEHAVIOUR – Understanding why learners and others behave as they do helps them to lead more effectively.
f. PERSONALISATION – Making the learning personalised helps to ensure that it applies and is relevant to the learner.
g. WHOLE PERSON – The self-reflection on worldview is not merely cognitive, but about the whole being.
h. CHOICE - Learning should allow learners to make different choices as leaders, including what kind of activities they undertake, how they use their time, and how they make sense of things.

## 9.5 Principle 4:- In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing

**Learning theories.** Half of the elements included in this design principle are content-related and the other half method-related. This principle is about recognising, as a leader, the impact of working together towards a common goal. The human capability that is mainly tapped on in the process is 'collaboration'. Because of the far more complex challenges faced today by leaders, there is a shift away from the individual to community in the 21st century. Implicit in this trend is shared power, relationship building and a community perspective (Sandmann & Vandenberg, 1995). The latter involves moving away from the idea of a 'heroic leader' (Huey, 1994) representing a model of competition and self-interest and towards a more collaborative model of organising and sharing (Nirenberg, 1993; Sandmann & Vandenberg, 1995; Senge, 2010). True collaboration is difficult to achieve, and leaders need to be able to possess a range of skills to make it happen effectively (Sanaghan & Lohndorf, 2015). The word 'collaboration' has a few different meanings:

1. the act of working with another or others on a joint project
2. something created by working jointly with another or others
3. the act of cooperating as a traitor, especially with an enemy occupying one's own country (Collins English Dictionary, 2015).

Although in past world wars the term had a negative connotation, for today's leaders it is a critical competency, and being collaborative means being able to work across cross-cultural groups, ensuring a deep sense of shared values and purpose, and preventing polarisation when there are difficult and complex issue to resolve (Sanaghan & Lohndorf, 2015). It also means understanding how

powerful collaborative intelligence of the group is, especially in terms of dealing with ambiguity, frustration, and hardship (Hansen, 2013). The idea of 'leaderful' organisations reflects the trend towards leadership from the bottom-up, where the exhibition of leadership skills amongst team members throughout the organisations is valued (Raelin, 2005).

Interactive collaborative learning has been shown to be more effective in terms of engagement and retention than traditional learning models where learners merely receive information from the instructor (Prince, 2004). A vast range of learning theories incorporates the idea of collaboration in the learning process, either in terms of methodology or environment, with an increasing number of them being Internet or web based. Connectivism, for instance, is a theory advanced by Siemens (2005, 2007) in which he argues that traditional learning theories – behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism – conflict with the human need for externalisation of knowledge. He argues that with technology heavily impacting the learning process, connectivism is the appropriate 'theory for a digital age' as it reflects a new social environment. He argues that technology has 'rewired' our brains, and that as a leader it is critical to share various perspectives amongst diverse teams in order to comprehensively explore ideas:

> Connectivism is the integration of principles explored by chaos, network, and complexity and self-organization theories. Learning is a process that occurs within nebulous environments of shifting core elements – not entirely under the control of the individual. Learning (defined as actionable knowledge) can reside outside of ourselves (within an organization or a database), is focused on connecting specialized information sets, and the connections that enable us to learn more are more important than our current state of knowing (Siemens, 2005, p. See website http://www.itdl.org/journal/jan_05/article01.htm).

Russian educational theorist Vygotsky (1978, 1980) has collaborative learning deeply embedded into the learning process with community and culture as central feature, similar to the social constructivist theories of Dewey (1938) and Bruner (1996). His social learning theory has become an important foundation for learning over the last few decades, as he proposes social interaction as a critical part in creating meaning, and also an essential precursor to development. Furthermore, he places an emphasis on interaction with peers as a useful way of developing skills and strategies (McLeod, 2014). Bandura's (1971) social learning theory has a different approach which emphasises the importance of observational learning. It includes the modelling of behaviours, attitudes and emotional reactions of those in the social environment. The theory of cooperation and competition, developed by Deutsch (1949), focuses on interdependence among goals (cooperative versus competitive) and types of actions taken (effective versus bungling). And finally, In teaching leadership, Palmer et al (2010) argue for 'collegiality and conversation' in the learning process, and at

the heart is community. From a pedagogical perspective, they recommend an integrative education approach which relies on collaborating with others, and which is often resisted in academic culture.

**Evolutionary psychology theory** – Philosophers did not believe that animals showed emotion, but primatologists and other scholars have shown the opposite to be the case. For instance, in several publications, De Waal (2008; 2010; 2009) argues that primates engage in the following behaviours: cooperation, altruism, and fairness. His work has mostly focused on understanding what makes primate groups work together and his more recent works look at empathy in animals. He uses his research findings to show what can be learned about human social evolution and the tendency to cooperate and resolve conflict (DeWaal, 2006, 2001). Brinck & Gärdenfors (2003) argue that in comparison to primates collaborating, humans have the advantage of superior communication through language and the sharing of imagined strategies and perspectives. Research in primatology and gossip suggest that language is likely to have evolved to create alliances and encourage social bonding (Dunbar, 1998), and this is confirmed by evolutionary psychologists as a human 'instinct' (Pinker, 1995). Besides humans and primates, such as chimpanzees and baboons, the only other animals which appear to show that they engage in some form of cooperation for mutual benefit (or what is known as 'reciprocal altruism') are some birds, and possibly the vampire bat.

Evolutionary psychologists argue that the rarity of this kind of cooperation suggests that there is specialised cognitive machinery that operates in reasoning about social exchange. They have used tools like evolutionary game theory and data about ancestral environments to help determine the nature of ancestral challenges that were faced, which in turn inform how specific psychological programmes, or 'reasoning instincts', have developed over time in the human brain (Cosmides & Tooby, 2004). Thus this machinery involved in social exchange interactions has evolved through natural selection in response to social challenges such as the need to help family members, and this also means that humans have the ability to be able detect cheaters and free riders (Tooby, Cosmides & Price, 2006). For evolutionary psychologists it does not make sense that, despite traditional economic theories advocating rationality and self-interest and thus a lack of individual's interest in cooperating in the face of a free rider problem, there is evidence of human collective action in all cultures and historical periods. For this reason they note that:

> We expect that emerging evolutionarily psychological theories of n-person exchange and collective action will replace theories of standard economic rationality by explaining their puzzles (Tooby et al., 2006, p. 3).

Evolutionary psychologists acknowledge that the way the brain has developed over time, usually in response to unfriendly competing groups in the ancestral environment, may have an 'us versus them' component. In organisations, Tooby & Cosmides (2004) recommend that situations should be

created that override these kind of evolved programmes, and an understanding of human nature plays a key role. This is the foundation of Nicholson's (2000b) *Executive Instinct* which recommends that leaders work with human nature, rather than against it. There are various aspects of human nature that Nicholson alludes to in his book, and which are relevant to collaboration or the lack thereof ('gossip, narrative and grooming', 'the trading instinct', 'hardwired individual differences', 'group discrimination' and 'contest and display').

**Literature reviews.** Overall the emphasis in the Harvard case study method is on the creation of a competitive skill set, as the pedagogical approach is one of debate and individualism rather than collaboration (Bailey et al., 2005). Although since early in the millennium the School has facilitated meeting in organised small groups prior to classes to discuss cases, and which encourages collaboration, this is only a small part of the delivery process. Whilst the method aims to develop a range of other interpersonal skills through placing students in a position similar to that of the workplace, it currently falls short in regard to debate (Stewart & Winn, 1996), participation (Desiraju & Gopinath, 2001; Siciliano & McAleer, 1997; Uslay, 2007), and reflection (Argyris, 1980; Rosier, 2002, 2005). Furthermore, the content of cases has tended to be ideology bound, emphasising managerialism (Contardo & Wensley, 2004), rationalism (Swiercz & Ross, 2003) and the male business executive perspective (Ruhe & Allen, 1999), downplaying the human element (Dean & Fornaciari, 2002). A neo-Harvard case study method prototype would need to accommodate these shortfalls. In the MBA education environment more broadly the focus in traditional economic theory favours individualism and competition but there has been a shift towards collaboration and team work (Datar et al., 2011). With the increasing trend towards globalisation, in particular, it has become more important to encourage collaboration in the workplace (Datar et al., 2011). Similarly, diversity management and multiculturalism is become increasingly important as the world gets more connected. In teaching management education, there are new ideas about teaching in a more collaborative manner through team work and sharing of experiences, especially in a globalised context (Mintzberg, 2004a).

**Empirical research.** In the empirical study of the Zoo programme there were several participants who noted that they had undergone impactful collaborative-type programmes that had resulted in a change in behaviour. Furthermore, in terms of pedagogical delivery techniques, sharing examples was enjoyed, and active interaction was preferred by participants. In the dialogue with the practitioner, there was interest in terms of making more of this principle in the learning process, especially regarding collaborative vs. competitive and group vs. group behaviour – such as is found in organisational silos – and the idea of 'we are not all like me'. The practitioner was inspired by the ideas of Minzberg (2004a), especially the approach of sharing by example and 'friendly consulting'.

***Elements underpinning collaboration that results in learning by sharing within Principle 4***

a. SHARING - Learners benefit from learning through the sharing of workplace experiences and solutions.
b. GLOBAL MINDSET - There is a heightened emphasis on learning how to understand a much 'bigger' world, and developing a global mindset, including learning how to understand multiple cultures.
c. EMPATHY – Learners need to know how to respect others and have an empathetic approach, and that although we are all more similar than different, we are 'not all like me'.
d. COLLABORATIVE – In understanding that human beings are a humane and social species that can operate collaboratively and competitively, learners need to build on the natural tendency to collaborate across groups so that they can work optimally in teams.
e. POWERFUL – Learners need to recognise the power in working collaboratively in order to work efficiently in teams, capitalising on the diversity of perspectives and actions.

## 9.6 Principle 5:- Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process

**Learning theories.** Most of the elements included in this design principle focus on pedagogical delivery, with only two of the eleven looking at content. The essence of this principle is engagement of learners to the extent that they are immersed in the learning process. An important part of doing this is appealing to them in ways that 'move' them to become involved, and the human characteristic chiefly drawn on in the learning process is 'curiosity'. This is an innate quality of both animals and humans, and is attributed to have been the form of human behaviour that has resulted in massive technological, scientific and industrial development over time (Keller, Schneider & Henderson, 2012). Although it has an 'elusive definitional history' (Jirout & Klahr, 2012, p. 3), curiosity can be expressed in many ways, and is conceptualised as 'a positive emotional-motivational system associated with the recognition, pursuit, and self-regulation of novelty and challenge' (Kashdan, Rose & Fincham, 2004, p. 291). Psychological theories of curiosity suggest that it has many different motivations: some suggest that it is an innate instinctual drive, whilst others posit that it is induced by outside stimulation. There were further advances that curiosity is effected because of a need to interact with and control the environment, or that it was prompted by a need for achievement or to be successful (Pittman & Boggiano, 1992). Berlyne (1954) provides a neurophysiological view that there are two different types of curiosity which he saw as a form of exploratory behaviour: diversive (e.g., seeking relief from boredom) and specific (e.g., uncertainty, conceptual conflict).

In the learning process, research by Ainsworth (1989) revealed that children who feel safe in the sense of being emotionally attached to their parents are more likely to be curious, and others have found that as children grow older they appear to express less curiosity (largely ascribed to a structured school system). Renowned educational theorists such as Dewey (1938) and Piaget (1951, 1959) value the notion of curiosity in the learning process. Dewey advocated that children are naturally curious beings, and there is a need to appeal to the natural interests of the child. He

emphasised the 'pattern of inquiry' which involves a cyclical process highlighting the learning journey rather than the final destination. It is initiated by the interest of the learner who becomes engaged to find out more, with an indeterminate outcome. Out of this questioning process the learner use ideas and concepts leading to possible solutions, and these ideas and concepts are then applied to new situations (Rapparlie, 2009). Piaget also believed that children are innately curious with 'the urge to explain the unexpected', whether or not they are externally rewarded. Bruner (1961, 1996), who argued that learning is a process rather than merely an accumulation of knowledge, built on Piaget's theories, advocating that the learning process should encourage problem solving and learning through the processes of inquiry and discovery in order to rearrange and transform what is learned. He also introduced the concept of a 'spiral curriculum' in which a concept is taught repeatedly at a number of levels, each being more complex than the last as this enables complex issues to be absorbed.

Lowenstein (1994) is well known for his theory of curiosity, which explains curiosity as 'a form of cognitively induced deprivation that arises from the perception of a gap in knowledge or understanding' (Loewenstein, 1994, p. 75). This explains why curiosity is such a powerful motivator in the learning process, as it is both an emotion and mental state that encourages the learner to seek the missing information or understanding. A further learning theory which highlights curiosity in the learning process is Jackson's (2009) neuropsychological hybrid model of learning in personality which proposes that sensation seeking provides a core biological drive of curiosity, learning and exploration.

**Evolutionary psychology theory.** Several evolutionary biologists have argued that human beings are different from most other species in that we retain childlike qualities for much longer – known as neoteny or developmental delay. Although this has made us weaker than other primates, it provides us with a capacity to learn and form deep attachments with others. The capacity to learn, not only as a child but as an adult, has enabled us as a species, to adapt and survive (Fanning; Stafford, 2012). MacNeill (2008 ) observes that human beings are curious about others and themselves for a reason, and there is a tendency for humans to engage in social curiosity and gossip in order to find out about each other. This has helped the human race to build alliances and relationships, playing a central role in terms of finding out information that can inform the understanding of the complex environment around them.

Thus by definition, curiosity has driven the search for solutions to adaptive problems in our ancestral environment over extremely long periods of time, helping us to not only survive but to reproduce and keep our species alive. In this respect, Cosmides & Tooby (2002) argue that humans possess both dedicated intelligence (in which we can solve predefined problems according to a set of rules) and improvisational intelligence (in which we can solve problems that are unexpected). Whilst they

propose that it seems obvious that dedicated intelligence is suited to solving adaptive problems (such as relationships or finding enough food), the reasons for improvisational intelligence to have evolved is not easily explained in terms of evolutionary psychology logic. They have not yet found an explanation for how humans are able to 'exploit the novel features of unique situations' (Cosmides & Tooby, 2002, p. 195). Indeed, in their view it is a rare occurrence for this kind of intellect to evolve, and 'one lineage, in four billion years, has wandered into the preconditions that favored the evolution of this form of intelligence' (Cosmides & Tooby, 2002, p. 22). It would be entirely necessary for humans to draw on curiosity in making use of this improvised intelligence. Furthermore, evolutionary psychologists argue that the brain is not wired to process information coming from a single source for an extended period of time as this would fail to contribute to the survival of the human species. Stone-age man needed to consider information in short segments in order to shift attention to respond to threats or opportunities (Sylwester, 1996). The implication is that the brain is better equipped to process information in short timeframes or up to 15 minutes followed by opportunities to act (Jensen, 1998).

**Literature reviews.** One of the important assumptions behind the Harvard case study method is that learners will be motivated to find out more in their search to resolve the dilemma which is a hallmark in this teaching method - in this way learners 'learn how to learn'. In the typical business case, the story-line typically only provides context and poses a challenge, and it is up to the learner's sense of curiosity as to how much they will look for answers by reading up or talking to others. However, cases are about the experience of others, making them less relevant than if they were about the learner's own experience and thus limiting the level of curiosity. Furthermore, the traditional method is bounded by how the story is framed, and several scholars argue that it does not encourage questioning of the practice of management itself as it is limited to a rationalistic and quantitative approach (Swiercz & Ross, 2003) with a managerialist viewpoint (Contardo & Wensley, 2004). Variety in terms of perspective and ideology is important in order to pique curiosity to higher levels. As far as MBA education in the past is concerned, there has been a tendency to 'spoon-feed' which means that the sense of curiosity so innate in humans was not encouraged. In the MBA of the future, the trend is for learners to learn how to learn and to embrace life-long learning. Increasingly there is also a trend towards innovation and multiculturalism, both of which require a strong sense of understanding through exploration and discovery.

**Empirical research.** In the Zoo programme, various forms of pedagogical content and method are used to unconsciously and consciously draw learners in, and the study confirms that this was successful: learners enjoyed the novelty inherent in the content and method, indicating they felt it helped them to make sense of and explain behaviour in the workplace. The dialogue with the practitioner revealed that he had meticulously planned the programme so that learning would occur

both consciously and unconsciously, appealing to learners through the way that the content was revealed and where it was held. He did this by using content that was unusual yet familiar and interesting, and methods that were unusual enough to draw on the sense of curiosity that we all have.

***Elements underpinning the moving of learners to be involved in the learning process within Principle 5***

a. UNCONSIOUS - Using various methods to unconsciously draw learners in helps the learning to be more effective.
b. ACTIVE PARTICIPATION - Active participation by learners makes them receptive, especially in the way that the learning is revealed and where it is held.
c. THE UNUSUAL - Unusual activities inspire curiosity as learners want to find out about something they don't know, whilst at the same time it engages them at various levels.
d. SIMPLE BUT COMPELLING - The use of compelling yet simple concepts makes it easy for learners to understand and be curious about learning more.
e. SCIENCE. The provision of scientific evidence in support of the learning invites learners to build on that knowledge, and to be open to further discoveries.
f. VARIETY – Use of a variety of methods helps to engage learners at different levels, and by appealing to the different parts of themselves that make up the 'whole person'.
g. CHALLENGE - The provision of a challenge helps to draw learners into the learning process, as they apply themselves to finding a solution.
h. MYSTERY/SURPRISE. Learners are drawn into the learning process through wanting to solve a mystery, or by enjoying a surprise.
i. STORY AND METAPHOR - The use of story and metaphor invites learners into the learning process as they are able to imagine and discover, encouraging thinking in new ways, and acting as a trigger for the learner to become immersed in the learning process.
j. PLAY AND HUMOUR - Learners are attracted to humour and fun, and this helps to engage them further in the learning process as they are curious to learn more about material that allows itself to be presented in this way. The use of humour helps students to relax and encourages an atmosphere in which to 'play', opening them up to further learning.

## 9.7 Principle 6:- The content and learning process should explain reality to learners

**Learning theories.** Just over half of the elements comprising this design principle are method-related, whilst the others are focused on content (some elements focus on both content and method). It is for this reason that the design principle emphasises content and method in terms of how reality is explained to the learner. The human trait that is drawn on in this principle is that of 'experience'. It has been found that a child's early experiences in life sculpt the brain, determining all future cognitive and affective development. In this way experience or 'nurture' is the critical force which transforms the brain after birth, with relationships in particular playing an important role in socio-emotional development. It is much more difficult to alter brain architecture in later years, so early foundations are critical (Oberklaid, 2007).

Maslow (1943), whose self-actualisation theory is based on the philosophies of existentialism and humanism, was convinced that experience is the primary factor in human learning and behaviour. His emphasis was on meaningfulness and subjectivity, and he advocated experiential learning as opposed to objective or scientific learning. To him this meant being receptive and open, with experience unfolding naturally whilst letting go of preconceived beliefs, and this approach was different to those learning theories based on rational empiricist ideology. Dewey (1938) believed in focussing on actual learning experiences rather than on knowledge acquisition, the latter of which was the traditional model of learning. For him a theory of experience determined the design of the learning process, and required a deep understanding for how humans undergo their experiences. In his view, there was also a need to understand the link between education and personal experience. The quality of the educational experience was paramount, as not every experience was educational. Furthermore, experiences arose from the interaction of two principles: continuity (wherein each experience impacts on future experience) and interaction (between what the instructor does and the learner's internal state of mind).

Other renowned learning theorists who fit into this experiential category, viewing experience as pivotal to the learning process, are Piaget (1951) and Lewin (1946). The central tenets of experiential learning, drawn from the work of these two theorists, and that of Dewey, is summarised by Kolb (1984), and is based on certain principles where learning is: a process not an outcome, based on experience and is continuous, involves the resolution of conflicts in terms of how to deal with the outside world, encompasses an holistic adaption to the world, involves transactions between learner and environment, and is the process of creating knowledge. Based on these principles he provides a definition of experiential learning:

> Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience (Kolb, 1984, p. 32).

Experiential learning falls within the paradigm of constructivism which states that learning is an active process wherein the learner constructs her own subjective interpretation of reality because new information is linked to prior knowledge or experience. Within this paradigm, there is a range of other types of learning such as problem based learning, activity and dialogical processes, and anchored instruction.

Pragmatism, originating in the early 20$^{th}$ century in the United States and based on the work of Dewey (1938), James (1975) and Pierce (1905), is an educational philosophy placing value on the concepts of reality, practicality and community. Of pragmatism, philosopher and psychologist James once said, 'Pragmatism is a temper of mind, an attitude, it is also a theory of the nature of ideas and truth and finally it is a theory about reality'. Dewey believed that education changed with the needs

of the times, and that a problem solving or inquiry-based approach to learning wherein learners imagined various outcomes or consequences, is relevant. Elkjaer (2009) contends that Dewey's notion of learning - based on conception of experience, inquiry and knowledge - can be very useful in contemporary times. Experience in this paradigm is different to that used in experiential learning in that it not only draws on the physical or bodily activities that are experienced, but is more holistic as it also looks at the dimensions of emotion, aesthetics, ethics and knowledge. As such, Dewey's interpretation of experience provides 'a learning theory of the future' which 'helps educators and learners develop a responsiveness towards challenges'(Elkjaer, 2009, p. 75).

**Evolutionary psychology theory.** Rather than being a 'blank slate' (Pinker, 2002) at birth as advocated by the behaviourists, which is filled by experiences during socialisation, evolutionary psychologists contend humans are born with specific programmes in the mind that evolved in response to problems or 'experiences' in the ancestral environment over time (Confer, Easton, Fleischman, Goetz, Lewis, Perilloux & Buss, 2010). The role of experience in dealing with challenges in the ancestral environment was critical in terms of developing adaptive behaviour, and the kinds of behaviours that developed framed the way that humans understood their experiences. There are far more of these evolved psychological mechanisms or circuits than previously imagined – such as friendship, mating, language and intuition – and:

> These circuits organize the way we interpret our experiences, inject certain recurrent concepts and motivations into our mental life, give us our passions, and provide cross-culturally universal frames of meaning that allow us to understand the actions and intentions of others, and to acquire the locally variable components of culture (Cosmides & Tooby, 2002, p. 149).

One of the ways in which problems were solved by humans, and humans alone, was through language and imagery. The use of these narrative and visual forms of communication over millions of years helped humans to share experiences, and to learn from them. Cosmides & Tooby (2000) propose that past experiences which are stored in the human mind serve to inform future planning. They occurred through the recreation of cues through imagery which allows the same emotion mechanisms of the mind to be effectuated, which in turn enables the planning function to determine which imagined situations work best by using the same mechanisms that evaluate real experienced situations. Nicholson argues that it is possible to 'play on primordial models of people's experience to produce the best results' (Nicholson, 2000b, p. 12) in organisations, but that this does not often happen. For example, he talks of the 'as if' principle as a common theme in human nature, arguing that humans approach most social situations within the context of methods of dealing with family and non-family. There are many other ways in which an evolved human nature determines behaviour and colours human experience.

**Literature reviews.** The learning involved in the traditional Harvard case study method draws on the experience of others, both in terms of learning from the case itself and also from the experience of others as they interact in the physical classroom and in preparing in small teams prior to meeting in the classroom itself. One of the greatest strengths of the case method is the fact that it provides context to the learning, and by doing so moves beyond theory by simulating the reality of a business challenge faced by an executive. It enables the learner to imagine facing a challenge as a business leader, but it does not provide the dynamic experience of business practice, or allow learners to learn from their own experience. For instance, it does not reflect the implementation aspects of managing, and fails to instil a sense of responsibility in learners for the consequences of their actions. This poses severe limitations on use of this method in reflecting reality. As noted by Mintzberg (2004a, p. 60):

> [W]hen cases care used in place of experience, devoid of history, and force people to take stands on issues they know little about, in my view they become a menace.

Mintzberg 2004) places great value on the importance of managers reflecting on and learning from their own experience, embedding it into the MBA programme at his ground-breaking International Masters in Practicing Management. This programme values the sharing of experience whereas the traditional case study method has focused primarily on the development of analysis and decision-making skills. Daudelin (1997) emphasises the value of reflecting on one's own experience so that, in learning from the current work situation, a manager can adapt this learning to new experiences. In this way managers take responsibility for their own learning, which is highly relevant to their own work situation. The focus going forward in MBA education is on making learning as real as possible - as close to the experience of being a leader in the workplace as possible. This could mean learning while actually in the workplace, entering the workplace for a short period (such as in consulting for instance), or learning and going back into the workplace and applying the learning and then coming back into the classroom to reflect on one's experience.

**Empirical research.** Participants in the study of the Zoo programme placed great value on real examples or experiences, preferably customised to their own work situation. This made the learning more meaningful and relevant, and they also confirmed that they prefer practical solutions which are immediately implementable. In the dialogue with the practitioner, it was clear how important he felt it was that learners 'know what it is like to be me', and for this reason it was a priority for him to ensure that the learning explains reality through both content and method. This is done through providing relevant examples and exercises that reflect the complexity of the business world, making them personalised and contextualised. It involves making meaning by drawing on the experience of self and others, and using frameworks that help to make sense of reality.

***Elements underpinning the explanation of reality to learners within Principle 6***

a. RELEVANCE – The learning should draw on experience that is practical and useful, providing a balance of theory and practice so that it is relevant to the workplace.
b. MEANING - Drawing on one's own experience and that of others provides meaning to the learner as it gives context to the learning.
c. CONTEXT – Providing context to the learner helps to give a sense of reality about operating as a leader in the workplace.
d. PERSONALISED - If a personalised example is given in the learning process, it is relatable to the learner as it applies directly.
e. PRACTICAL AND USEFUL – The learning should be practical and useful, and be able to be immediately implementable.
f. SENSEMAKING - In the learning process, frameworks and other tools should be provided that help to make sense of reality, providing 'aha' moments.
g. COMPLEXITY AND UNCERTAINTY - The complexity and uncertainty that is involved in operating as a leader in the business world should be reflected in the learning process.
h. STORY - The use of story and scenarios in the learning process should reflect the actual experience of being a business leader.
i. UNDERSTANDING - Learners react best if they sense that the instructor 'knows what it is like being me', and fully understands the experience involved in being a business leader.

## 9.8 Principle 7:- Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content

**Learning theories.** In this design principle, half of the elements relate to pedagogical content and the other half to method. The essence of this principle is reinforcement of the learning, through using content and method that will not easily leave the minds of learners after the learning has taken place. For this reason, it is proposed that the chief human capability drawn on is that of 'imagination'. Harris (2000) argues that the ability to imagine alternative possibilities develops early in childhood and remains present throughout adult life. The ability to imagine future events has been studied throughout the various sub-cultures of psychology, perhaps a sign that it is one of the most intriguing aspects of human nature (Taylor, Pham, Rivkin & Armor, 1998). Imagination is defined as 'the faculty or action of forming new ideas, or images or concepts of external objects not present to the senses' (Oxford Dictionaries, 2015a), whilst a psychological perspective might be that it is a term explaining what kind of thinking that people do in order to move from one situation to another, having done something in between:

> Mental simulation can be useful for envisioning the future because it addresses the two fundamental tasks of self-regulation and coping, namely the management of affect or emotional states and the ability to plan and solve problems (Taylor, Pham, Rivkin & Armor, 1998, p. 430).

Schools tend to encourage conformity by expecting learners to provide exactly what is expected of them in a highly structured environment (Eisner, 1985), requiring educators to be more inventive in

their teaching methods (Eisner & Reinharz, 1984) and to provide an environment 'where success and failure are intermingled' (Moyle, 2010, p. 12) . This is especially the case with regards to transforming pedagogy in terms of information technology so that it reflects the new environment within which there has been ubiquitous uptake of this tool by children on a daily basis. It is also essential to tap on the use of imagination and creativity in order to strengthen a country's level of innovation and thus competitiveness (Moyle, 2010). Egan (1992) contends that although most people today believe that imagination should be stimulated and developed at school, there are few that understand exactly what it is and what pedagogical techniques and strategies should be used to teach it.

Dewey (1938) once stated that: 'Perhaps the greatest of all pedagogical fallacies is the notion that a person learns only the particular thing that he is studying at the time'. He placed emphasis on learning for the 'whole person' which means learning draws on all human faculties. In terms of imagination, he argued that in solving problems in the learning process there was a playing out of possibilities in the minds of learners. Vygotsky (1978, 1980) wrote several theories of imagination and its development, observing that: 'Somehow our society has formed a one-sided view of the human personality, and for some reason everyone understood giftedness and talent only as it applied to the intellect' (Vygotsky, 1983, p. 57). He believed that imagination is directly linked to the making of meaning, and that it is a superior psychological function connected to emotions and intellect. He also argued that it changed as a person developed, it helped to make sense of the world, and it depended on other human activities especially experience (Gajdamaschko, 2005).

Egan (2005), who was influenced by the work of Vygotsky, offers a way to improve teaching and learning through having developed the theory of imaginative education (IE). This theory looks at the nature of children's imagination and practical recommendations for how to engage children in learning. It provides insight into how the imagination is sparked by different forms of language – verbal, written and theoretical thinking – and how these 'cognitive tools' use vehicles like story and metaphor to shape an imaginative understanding of the world. Dirkx (2001) contends that imagination and emotion are becoming recognised as important in the education process, not least because it links our subjective experiences with our objective experiences, and allowing for deeper dimensions of learning.

**Evolutionary psychology theory.** Fuenes (2014) contends that it was towards the end of the Pleistocene period, i.e. between 400-100,000 years ago, that humans experienced certain conditions within their environment which led to the emergence of imagination which has directly led to the success of the *Homo sapiens* species as opposed to other *hominins*. In this view, imagination is a distinctively human characteristic enabling symbolic and meaningful representation in the mind without the physical presence of an object, and Fuenes proposes that the advent of religious beliefs were likely a mechanism to navigate the complexities of ancestral times:

> During our evolutionary history humans developed a cognitive and behavioural process wherein experiences in, and perceptions of, of the world exist in a context in which the 'material' world is never without symbolic meaning (Fuentes (2014, p. 243).

Cosmides & Tooby (2001) argue that whilst initially humans might only have been able to experience cues in response to challenges in the ancestral environment while they were actually present, mechanisms of the mind evolved so that human beings could experience the same cues through imagery i.e. by using their imagination. These cues, which for instance might have included emotional expressions or the presence of a predator, provided unique advantage to the species in terms of its ability to imagine various outcomes or possibilities and thus activate planning strategies which enhanced the likelihood of success in solving adaptive problems. Cosmides & Tooby (2001) further propose that the human brain appears to have, as part of its design, specific psychological mechanisms that enable humans to imagine experiences (such as pretend play and fictional worlds) and engage in other artistic activities – although the benefits that accrue in solving adaptive problems are not entirely clear at this stage. They puzzle over the fact that despite the need for accurate information in solving adaptive problems, human beings tend to prefer communication media that are inaccurate such as non-fiction novels and films. Their observation is that as incomes have risen, people have chosen to spend more and more time in imaginary worlds. Further, they suggest that art (in various forms such as narrative, music, paint, clay) is universal because every human being is designed to be an artist and aesthetic experience drives mental development throughout one's life.

Carroll (2012) proposes that this tendency to engage in the arts – by creating objects and telling stories that evoke intense emotion - solved an adaptive problem in ways that are unique to humans by 'organizing motivational systems disconnected from the immediate promptings of instinct' (Carroll, 2012, p. 59). In his view, humans 'live in the imagination. For us, humans, no action or event is ever just itself' (Carroll, 2012, p. 59). In various forms, the arts thus play a fundamental role by helping human beings to live their lives:

> We have all had moments in which some song, story, or play, some film, piece of music, or painting, has transfigured our vision of the world, broadened our minds, deepened our emotional understanding, or given us new insight into human experience. Working out from this common observation to a hypothesis about the adaptive function of literature requires no great speculative leap (Carroll, 2012, p. 60).

In applying these concepts to the business world, Nicholson (2000b) looks at themes within human nature such as 'confidence before realism' which involves irrationally believing that one can deal with a an unavoidable challenge – and which is risky in business. 'Classification before calculus' is a further theme within human nature that is associated with 'narrative before accuracy', implying how frequently this happens in organisations.

**Literature reviews.** The MBA education literature review revealed that the effectiveness of this form of education has come into question (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). The stories that are such a significant part of the Harvard case study method draw on the imagination, helping the learner to imagine what it might be like to be in the business executive's shoes, and to understand their reality. To some extent the narratives may stay in the mind of learners, but the traditional method fails to dedicate pedagogical content and method components that help to ensure the learning stays in the mind of the learner and transfer into the workplace. For instance, it does not employ debriefing methods that help to draw out the explicit reality and meaning involved in the learning experience, or a transforming perspective that transforms thinking. The learning is not able to be applied more generally in the life of the learner, and there are limited 'memorable concepts' that are sticky enough to remain in the mind of the learner as she churns through case after case in the learning process. The traditional method is not able to show how the learning has been applied after the fact, and the lack of variety in terms of content and method within the classroom experience makes it less memorable.

**Empirical research.** It is clear in the study of the zoo programme that stories resonate with participants, and they favour the idea of realistic workplace descriptions. They also enjoy the stories of application of learning given by both themselves and others where they imagine what has occurred in their fellow participants' workplace. They also point to the use of sticky concepts such as 'the first seven words' and 'alpha male' which appeal to the imagination and are remembered. The framework is said to provide a new way of thinking and looking at human behaviour, another form of imagining. In the dialogue with the practitioner, he revealed that he felt the most powerful teaching method in the Zoo programme are the stories of application of the learning that are told in follow-up sessions, in which case the participants are able to imagine and understand how the learning has been transferred in particular examples. He draws on the use of story, metaphor and sticky concepts, all of which appeal to the imagination in the learning process, helping to engage and reinforce the learning. He also provides useful tools that are practical and immediately implementable, and debriefs on the learning process so that the explicit reality and meaning can be drawn out. Overall his content and method is sticky because it is unusual, practically useful, meaningful, emotionally engaging, and able to be applied to life in general. It is memorable in that stimulation in the future

triggers memories of the programme and the connection of the current situation to content and the learnings from the programme.

***Elements underpinning 'sticky' methods and content within Principle 7***

a. VARIETY - A variety of teaching methods help learners to retain what they have learned as different aspects will appeal to the imagination.
b. TOOLKIT – Developing a toolkit through learning provides the learner with various options in how to operate effectively in the workplace.
c. TRANSFORMING PERSPECTIVE - If teaching methods or tools are used that transform thinking, it will appeal to the imagination and be more likely to be remembered.
d. APPLIED EXAMPLES - The demonstration of examples of usage in the workplace during the learning process by a learner enables both herself and others to draw on their imagination to remember what they have learned.
e. STORY - Story invites learners into the learning process and tends to stick inside their heads, as it stimulates interest, stirs emotions, and provides meaning to what is being taught.
f. DEBRIEFING - Debriefing is a tool that, if used in the learning process, can ensure individual learning through the explicit drawing out of reality and the meaning involved.
g. EASY APPLICATION - If the learning has easy and quick application later, it is more likely to be used as learners will have been able to imagine how to use it, and thus will be remembered.
h. GENERALISING - The general application of the learning to aspects of their life other than work is likely to help them imagine how to use the learning in various ways.
i. MEMORABLE CONCEPTS - Making use of sticky concepts that have appealed to the imagination in the learning process enables learners to more easily remember what they have learned.

After having presented each prototype design principle, a model which is organised according to the principle of general human capabilities as identified in the previous section is now revealed. It had become clear to me that it would be useful to represent the model in a more memorable way, reflecting the human dimension, but keeping the representation conceptually accurate in that the range of human capabilities are drawn on and addressed in a holistic learning process. Instead of the pie diagram used to represent the design principles in the previous chapter, I wanted to use images and colour in order to stimulate and render the model memorable. I also wanted to keep the diagram simple and easy to understand, and O'Keeffe had underscored the desirability for each principle to encompass not more than seven elements in order to be easily remembered. ***Figure 9.3*** reflects each of the seven principles, and the associated chief human capability that is drawn on in the learning process. A summarised term for each of the elements are represented and listed beneath each design principle.

| 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LEARNING ENVIRONMENT | HUMANITY AND ME | SELF-AWARENESS | COLLABORATION | ENGAGEMENT | EXPLAINING REALITY | STICKY |
| *Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities* | *Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity* | *Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-make and make choices* | *In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing* | *Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process* | *The content and learning process should explain reality to learners* | *Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content* |
| • Senses<br>• Authenticity<br>• Group size<br>• Variety<br>• Quality<br>• The unusual<br>• Fast pace<br>• Technology<br>• Safety | • Broader context<br>• Social responsibility<br>• Universality<br>• Purpose and belonging<br>• Human instincts<br>• Sense-making | • Reflection<br>• Questioning<br>• Mental model<br>• Path-finding<br>• Understanding behaviour<br>• Personalisation<br>• Whole person<br>• Choice | • Sharing<br>• Global mindset<br>• Empathy<br>• Collaborative<br>• Powerful | • Unconscious<br>• Active participation<br>• The unusual<br>• Simple but compelling<br>• Science<br>• Variety<br>• Challenge<br>• Mystery/surprise<br>• Story and metaphor<br>• Play and humour | • Relevance<br>• Meaning<br>• Context<br>• Personalised<br>• Practical and useful<br>• Sense-making<br>• Complexity and uncertainty<br>• Story<br>• Understanding | • Variety<br>• Toolkit<br>• Transforming perspective<br>• Applied examples<br>• Story<br>• Debriefing<br>• Easy application<br>• Generalising<br>• Memorable concepts |

**Figure 9-3: Design principles model for a neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype**

## 9.9 Summary

This chapter provides a design principles model for a neo-Harvard case study method prototype which informs its operationalisation in the chapter that follows. It is a model that has been informed

by the findings of the literature reviews and the empirical work as presented in earlier chapters, as well as several learning theories and evolutionary psychology theory. The prototype design principles model aims to offer a more holistic approach to teaching and learning in management education than has previously been the case, by drawing on more than intellectual capabilities, but also in developing the human capabilities that ideally should be developed to benefit a future global community in solving complex challenges. The details of the design principles and associated elements underscore the limitations of the traditional Harvard case study method regarding pedagogical content and method dimensions, and feed into the neo-Harvard case study method model.

For instance, from a learning environment point of view, the large 'sections' of up to 90 people in a class in the traditional Harvard case study method limits the degree of collaboration and conversation that can take place. This limits the sharing of experience and social connection that is known to result in deeper and more powerful learning. In looking at engagement in the learning process, although the method piques curiosity through challenge and mystery with its 'unfinished' narrative, it is bounded in the way that it is framed, diminishing the learning that can occur through deeper questioning. Furthermore, 'hooks' such as play and humour, metaphor and greater variety are required to fan the flames of curiosity. The traditional method can be argued to be partially 'sticky' in that its narratives provide particular context and plot, yet it fails to provide for dedicated pedagogical devices that reinforce the learning in the minds of learners and in transfer to the workplace. There is limited emphasis on the novel or unusual, or the practically useful, and it does not provide the variety or easy application that enables remembering in different ways.

The traditional method offers a way to explain reality through simulation, and being able to imagine facing a business situation through the experience of others, but falls short of providing the dynamic realities of managing under pressure or dealing with human crises. It also does not provide a framework that makes sense of reality. In addition, the neo-Harvard case study method prototype outlined in the next chapter also address three additional areas in which the traditional method fails to deliver, and which are increasingly important in drawing on in the context of the MBA of the future, viz. moral intuition, self-awareness and collaboration. These are highlighted through addressing the issue of humanity and the role of business leaders within this context, the development of self-awareness skills in order to understand one's own behaviour and that of others, and the impact this has on one's choices as a leader. It also highlights the importance of developing collaborative skills in tandem with competitive skills so that diversity is valued and there is the ability to work together in solving highly complex problems. For further elaboration on these themes, and how they are integrated in the prototype, we now turn to the final chapter.

# 10 Neo-Harvard Case Study Method: MBA Prototype

This chapter provides the details of a 'transformed' leadership subject based on a neo-Harvard case study method – a pedagogical prototype informed by the design principles established in this thesis. It should be noted that this prototype is designed to be used as a module which is part of an Organisational Behaviour MBA programme at Australia's Macquarie Graduate School for Management (see https://www.mgsm.edu.au/).

Because the prototype is to be used in a university-based business school, the first part of the chapter details the customisation of the prototype that is required in order to make it suitable for MBA teaching. As the prototype is being developed for use in a particular business school (MGSM), this involves developing a profile of the MGSM students and their anticipated learning needs in the context of the MGSM MBA and associated teaching methods. The second part of this chapter outlines the differences between the new content and techniques introduced in line with the design principles and the established pedagogical content and delivery techniques used in the existing Hardwired Humans Zoo programme. The third section provides detail on how the seven design principles are operationalised in the prototype, whilst the fourth section provides suggestions regarding the evaluation of the prototype. The fourth section provides suggestions regarding the testing of the model, and in the final section a brief summary is provided.

## 10.1 Customising for the MBA setting

This prototype is developed for use in a leading Australian business school, the Macquarie Graduate School of Management (MGSM), located in Sydney, Australia. Customisation for the MBA setting was based on a documentary analysis of MGSM documents on student profile and learning outcomes, and interviews with the school's professional pedagogy experts and lecturers[49].

### 10.1.1 Profile of MBA students at MGSM: their anticipated learning needs

Sixty percent of MGSM students are male, and the same percentage are in the 25-40 year age bracket, with the rest being over forty years of age. Just under half of the students typically possess 3-5 years of management experience, whilst a further third have 6-10 years of experience and the remaining 20% have over ten years of experience. Just over 40% of all students tend to hold middle management positions whilst 25% hold senior management positions. These students tend to be informed and have done extensive research with regards to their choice of school. They are demanding and expect their study experience to be flexible, convenient and with on-demand service. They are competitive in a range of environments, ambitious and looking for career advancement

[49] For the purposes of researching this aspect of the study, discussion also took place with Eleanor Duncan, Learning Excellence Project Manager, who works with the school's academics to develop the overarching versatile pedagogy underpinning all learning and teaching.

opportunities. They are also *au fait* with the latest technology and use the latest gadgets and software. The MGSM MBA was ranked in 2014 as the No.1 MBA in Australia, and 40th in the world, with a significant component of this ranking being the quality and satisfaction level of the students and alumni.

There are several challenges faced by those designing the learning process at MGSM. Career progression is ranked highly at most business schools with MGSM being no exception, and students often select schools based on their international ranking in this and other related areas rather than, for example, their teaching methods. The majority of students at MGSM also tend to be full-time professional working managers taking the MBA part-time and looking for flexible study options so that they are able to apply themselves whilst employed. As such, these students tend to be highly pragmatic, with their main intention being to improve performance at work and in their careers through management education. A shortage of time is one of their chief concerns, so they are looking for learning solutions that involve the most efficient use of their time.

Because of shrinking government funding, the business school is sourcing a minority but growing number of students from other countries, and an increasing component of the student cohort are full-time international, with English often being their second language. When combined with a greater exam focus amongst these students, this created pedagogical challenges for any subject attempting to stimulate reflective practical experience based learning. This challenge is likely to increase as the democratisation of management education continues, especially with the growth of Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) and online programmes, making the management education environment far more competitive and placing pressure on business schools to increase access and competitive pricing. As a result many students are looking for 'reputable, portable, short, you know, the one year MBA' (Duncan, 2014).

With these constraints in mind the challenge is not only to inspire and motivate students to engage with the learning process, but to also inspire instructors. The latter is particularly difficult because whilst instructors are under pressure to produce excellent teaching and research, the increasing time demands for the production of quality research creates challenges for any academic wishing to take time to improve the quality of their pedagogy and take risks in doing so. As explained by the Learning Excellence Project Manager at MGSM:

> In that pragmatic, and necessarily pragmatic, environment which we're all driven by, how do we inspire students to learn and to keep learning? How do we encourage teachers, to help inspire students to learn and to challenge their students to think outside the square, to maybe shock students to realise that there may not be one right answer and therefore if there is not one right answer, and especially in a complex changing business world, to give them the scaffolding, the frameworks, the concepts, and then enabling the students to be able to think and analyse those concepts and apply them to their own context, to give them

> maybe a few alternatives to go forward and then basically to take the risk and the plunge to take one of those things? Now that's a challenge (Duncan, 2014).

### 10.1.2 The MGSM MBA: teaching methods

The Macquarie Graduate School of Management, which falls under the auspices of Macquarie University, has been offering postgraduate management education programmes for more than 40 years. Recently, the school's strategy of re-engaging with alumni, focusing on making the programme attractive to female executives, and engaging with corporates at high level has paid off, making it Australia's highest placed business school in the 2015 *Financial Times* MBA ranking (Hare, 2015). The school offers a range of management programmes for experienced professionals, including the MBA, the Graduate Diploma of Management, and the Graduate Certificate of Management. The MBA programme is offered in three locations: North Ryde, Sydney CBD and Hong Kong campuses. On its website, the MGSM Master of Business Administration (MBA) is argued to be 'a transformational experience' that covers all aspects of business management, and bridges theory and practice by being 'grounded in industry reality' (MGSM, 2015a).

The MBA is structured so that 16 units are completed on a full-time basis over a two year period. At MGSM there are currently ten MBA foundation units which provide students with different general management perspectives, including: organisational behaviour, marketing management, accounting for management, strategic frameworks, information and decision analysis, economic context of management, financial management, operations management, foundations of management thought, and strategic management. There are also six elective units, selected from a pool of up to 45 units (MGSM, 2015b). The organisational behaviour unit identifies its aim as follows:

> This unit seeks to engage students with multiple perspectives for understanding and managing their own and others' behaviour within organisations, with a view to developing organisational capability through strengthened internal dynamics. Among the approaches taken are the macro perspectives important in leadership and change, particularly the relationship between behaviour and organisational structure, and the psychosocial, political and cultural/symbolic aspects of organisations. Other topics covered include individual differences, groups and teams, power, learning, interpersonal communication, perception and ethics. (MGSM, 2015b, pp. https://www.mgsm.edu.au/mba-and-graduate-programs/unit-directory/mba/organisational-behaviour-2).

Each course unit comprises 40 hours of face-to-face lectures, and an additional workload of up to 140 hours over the 10-week term. Learning occurs through face-to-face teaching in a weekly or block class format, or online via an online interactive class format (there are currently five online units available). During this time students prepare for various kinds of work that has been set including: lectures, projects, presentations and exams, as well as individual and group assignments.

The MGSM Organisational Behaviour (OB) programme is typically run with a group of approximately 40 students over 10 weeks in the form of lectures, case studies, small group exercises, and videos, whilst larger class discussions are used to facilitate learning. The programme aims to aims to engage

students to explore and critically examine insights about human behaviour at work to better manage and improve organisational capabilities and performance. It covers micro- (such as individual foundations, perceptions, attitudes and motivation), meso- (such as communication and team dynamics), and macro-level (such as culture, change, power and leadership), perspectives of OB, as well as ethics and CSR. The specific learning outcomes for this unit are as follows:

1. students will understand and be able to articulate a variety of theoretical frameworks and research findings about human behaviour within organisations;
2. students will be able to apply micro, meso, and macro perspectives to critically explore and analyse organisational problems and phenomena;
3. students will understand the critical importance of people management and leadership to the efficient and effective operation of organisations;
4. students will be able to engage in practical and contingent applications of organisational behaviour principles and theories within their own work experiences for managing and leading people and organisations successfully; and
5. students will critically reflect on OB theories and their applications from cross-cultural and ethical perspective in developing their knowledge on leadership and management.

The MBA and management programmes at MGSM are accredited by the AACSB International (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business) with whom less than 5% of the world's 13,000 business programmes are accredited (AACSB International, 2015). Any unit that is run at the business school requires a lengthy and complicated accreditation process within the business school and Macquarie University more broadly. But perhaps most importantly, it must meet the requirements of the Australian Qualifications Framework (see http://www.aqf.edu.au/aqf/in-detail/aqf-levels/)[50].

The business school is formally committed to fostering critical thinking by use of the questioning principles implicit in the Socratic approach, and encourage debate and collaborative learning. In its highly interactive approach much is learned from other students as well as from faculty instructors, as the school aims to help students develop a 'strategic, global and sustainable management perspective' with an emphasis on practical skills. A range of teaching methods are used, including formal lectures, case studies, role plays and guest presentations, and there is a strong focus on the exchange of ideas and use of group work together with theory. The subjects are designed so that students get to practice the same skills they use in the work environment, and real issues are looked at in research assignments (MGSM, 2015c)[51].

[50] Duncan (2014) advocates that for a new pedagogical approach to work, students need to understand exactly how the learning will help them in their role at work, and from an instructor point of view, it needs to be simple to understand, and preferably able to be documented in a one-page diagram with extrapolated learning tools. It should also be interesting and inspiring, and reach instructors at gut level if they are to use it constantly enough for a transformation in the teaching process to take place.

[51] As an illustration of the MGSM's commitment to this style of learning, and In order to shift closer to the real world of work, it has introduced the living case study approach (see

The business school is currently in the process of rolling out a formal three-step approach to teaching, encapsulated in a 'plan, do, reflect' approach, which can be used online or on campus. The first step involves considerable preparation prior to attending classes, so that students are fully prepared to interact when they meet up. This 'flipped classroom'[52] approach to teaching enables a new way of learning, one which enables students' time to be used more optimally to engage in collaborative learning and striving towards solutions and creating their own meaning during classes. It enables students to think more deeply about the learning material, providing the instructor with a transformed role: instead of merely imparting information the emphasis is on facilitation and helping students to better understand the material (Duncan, 2014).

In the second step, students attend class and now that they are familiar with the knowledge and concepts, can apply the learning to particular situations through interaction with other students and the facilitator. As noted by Duncan (2014):

> It's then about starting to apply that knowledge and skills in the real world, and that's what the MBA in the end has to be about.

At this point, the role of the instructor is to guide students towards a realisation of how they can apply what they are learning to the corporate setting.

The third step involves reflection, where the instructor reflects back to the class, and the students reflect on the insights they have gained from the learning process and how it can apply to different aspects of their lives.

## 10.2 Pedagogical content and method: existing and new programme

The neo-Harvard case study method prototype programme was considered as appropriate by O'Keeffe and I to slot into the OB programme that was part of the MGSM MBA curriculum. We were constrained by the fact that a decision was made that there were only two days available, and for this reason O'Keeffe would need to extract parts of his existing programme so that we could modify it in accordance with the design principles. This restriction was imposed because of the requirements that an OB course covers a variety of perspectives and approaches not explicitly covered by the Hardwired Humans programme. O'Keefe had emphasised the importance of follow-up days to allow for experimentation in between - most particularly in the form of sharing examples of application of the learning - and this remained the ideal, but we were required to work around this because we needed to design the new prototype programme so that it would fit within the two days. If there was

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https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLWOypWFky0QjWOO2aKAWS6VpFz_qEXj_5). This is a competition involving a number of teams of students addressing a real challenge within the business in an approach that merges consultancy and education. Once they have developed and presented a solution, a winning team is chosen by a decision-making senior management team within the business. Because of the complexities involved in organising this kind of learning scenario, and the significant degree of commitment on the part of the business sector, there are limited positions available and the living case study approach is reserved for top performing students only (Duncan, 2014).

[52] For detailed explanation see http://educationnext.org/the-flipped-classroom/.

the opportunity at a later stage to provide another physical interactive experience, O'Keeffe preferred it to be at least six weeks after the initial learning had taken place, and this has been put in as a future request at the MGSM. The prototype is run over two days at the Conference Centre at Taronga Zoo in Sydney. ***Appendix Q*** shows the details of the neo-Harvard case study method prototype programme, with the new pedagogical components which are added in represented by blue italics in bold. These changes to the programme, as well as operationalised improvements that are discussed in the next section, were formulated in an iterative dialogue between myself and the facilitator-practitioner over several years, and in a more focused fashion towards the end of 2014 (in the event that more details are required regarding the existing Zoo programme, see ***Appendix H****).* The areas highlighted in green in ***Table 10.1*** below summarise the elements of the prototype design principles that are injected into the new programme, whilst those in grey comprise the aspects that already exist and work well in the Zoo programme. The content and method components of the prototype that are added into the existing programme so that it is transformed into a neo-Harvard case study method prototype, and represented by the green shaded blocks in ***Table 10.1****,* are listed below. Their operationalisation is explained in detail in the next section. There were several components that O'Keeffe and I agreed would be useful to include in terms of the prior set-up of the programme so those are listed first, whilst the others involve changes being made to the existing programme prior to or after running the programme, or during the 2-day period over which it is run. As can be seen from the Table, there were no changes made to Design principle 6.

*SET-UP*

1. Family-size groups set up in cabaret style (Design principle 1)
2. Festive theme with visual and audio cues (Design principle 1)
3. Learning styles quiz to provide insight about learning style (Design principle 3)
4. Reflective creative journal provided to each participant (Design principle 3)

*PRE-PROGRAMME*

5. Invitation to interactive online website especially customised for this programme (Design principle 1)
6. Pre-prepared 1-page story of self as leader (Design principle 3)

*DAY ONE*

7. Live Zoo display of homo sapiens (Design principle 5)
8. Way to remember the 9 human instincts (Design principle 2)
9. Leader and chimp behaviour – actors acting out human instincts live compared to chimp video clips (Design principle 5)
10. Theory and main assumptions of evolutionary psychology (Design principle 2)

*DAY TWO*

11. Sharing of experiences – application of 'Gossip and grooming' (Design principle 4)

12. Use of Thales case study handed out at the end of the previous day – application of 'Change management' (see ***Appendix R***) (Design principle 2)
13. Story of self as leader – application (Design principle 3)

*POST PROGRAMME*

14. Sharing of key 'takeaways' (Design principle 7)
15. Story of application of human instincts framework in the workplace (Design principle 7)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **1) Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities** | Senses | Authenticity | Group size |
| | Variety | Quality | The unusual |
| | Fast pace | Technology | Safety |
| **2) Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity** | Broader context | Social responsibilty | Universality |
| | Purpose and belonging | Human instincts | Sense-making |
| **3) Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-make and make choices** | Reflection | Questioning | Personalisation |
| | Path-finding | Whole person | Choice |
| | Mental model | Understanding behavoiur | |
| **4) In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing** | Sharing | Global mindset | Empathy |
| | Collaborative | Powerful | |
| **5) Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process** | Unconscious | Active participation | The unusual |
| | Simple but compelling | Science | Variety |
| | Challenge | Mystery/surprise | |
| | Story and metaphor | Play and humour | |
| **6) The content and learning process should explain reality to learners** | Relevance | Meaning | Context |
| | Personalised | Practical and useful | Sense-making |
| | Complexity and uncertainty | Story | Understanding |
| **7) Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content** | Variety | Toolkit | Transforming perspective |
| | Applied examples | Story | Debriefing |
| | Easy application | Generalising | Memorable concepts |

**Table 10.1: Pedagogical content and method – existing programme vs. new programme**

## 10.3 Operationalising the design principles

The detail of the prototype is now presented, and the words 'instructor' and 'facilitator' are used interchangeably, although the role of teacher is primarily a facilitative one. The operationalisation of the design principles includes pedagogical content and method devices that apply to both the

existing Hardwired Humans Zoo programme and those components that have been added in to 'transform' it into a neo-Harvard case study method prototype.

**Design principle 1: Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities**

**Existing content and method**

Content is used which appeals to the emotions in terms of being deeply resonant, and in this case is represented by the human instincts framework, drawn from evolutionary psychology theory. The programme also involves using content drawing on other emotions, such as surprise, humour and play (through the primate and stone-age man metaphors) – and which also draw on various pedagogical methods. Because this design principle is about the learning environment within which the learning process is operationalised, it features in all aspects of the programme, drawing on emotion in all cases. The operationalisation of this principle in terms of method is done in various ways, as implicit in the elements within this principle. For instance, this prototype involves instruction by an authentic expert who understands the reality of the learning and is able to make learners believe in the learning process by connecting emotionally in various ways. The use of quality learning materials supports this end because learners understand that the instructor has taken care in addressing their needs. Furthermore, the attention of the learners is captured by designing a fast-pace programme throughout, so that there is no time to be distracted by other things. Just as O'Keeffe used a range of teaching techniques in the Zoo programme which taps on emotion in several different ways, the emphasis here is on story, and use of images in the learning process appeals to learner's emotions, cultivating a stimulating and interesting learning environment. The use of an unusual training venue, as at the Zoo, draws learners in psychologically, and the associations they have are fun and humorous, providing an emotionally appealing learning atmosphere. Organising family-size groups in the learning process makes learners feel like they belong, just as O'Keeffe does in the Zoo programme when he makes them feel emotionally and physically safe, and this results in a climate favouring exploration and discovery.

| Authenticity | Variety | Quality | The unusual | Fast pace | Safety |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

**New content and method**

Round tables are set up with groups of 8 people per table. Because 40 MBA students will attend the programme, this meant at least 5 tables. In this way the groups of eight can easily be split up into smaller groups of four or less to engage in activities, which are family-size groups. The physical location is characterised by a festive theme with visual and audio cues, and relevant physical and sensory props around reflecting the metaphors of zoo, chimps, and evolutionary psychology. For instance, bunches of bananas are placed on the tables, there are lots of plants, drum beats, and even actors dressed up to represent life on the Savannah Plains. Furthermore, through drawing on technology in the form of a customised website developed for the programme, the opportunity is provided to operate according to the human instinct of 'first impressions to classify' by making personal contact with the 40 participants prior to the start of the programme. The website acts as a conduit for assignments to be handed in and marks to be awarded, and for sharing information between learners in an online learning community. It is used as a catchment for further resources to be drawn on if interested, such as about the theory of evolutionary psychology in particular. Furthermore, an online quiz regarding learning style is executed through such a mechanism, providing insight for the learners themselves, but for the deliverer of the programme. Finally, prior to the programme starting learners are requested to pre-prepare a one-page story of their most challenging experience as a leader (discussed next) and post this online for only the instructor to view at this time.

| Senses | Group size | Technology |
|---|---|---|

**Design principle 2:** **Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity**

**Existing content and method**

Although the human instincts and personal sense-making is operationalised in terms of both content and method, this principle is primarily operationalised through content components. In the Zoo programme, having nature as a key component in unpacking the primate metaphor, and running the programme at a wildlife institution such as the Zoo, provides moral undertones to the content. The involvement of the Jane Goodall Institute, and the importance of wildlife preservation that is part of this programme, helps to cultivate an understanding of the broader moral context within which we live. It provides a sense of the kind of serious crises within the broader environment, indicating the importance for learners to see themselves as part of and understanding humanity, and how they can be socially responsible in helping to address such issues. The content appeals to one's sense of moral intuition in terms of being deeply resonant, which in this case is the human instincts framework, drawn from the discipline of evolutionary psychology. This framework provides the opportunity to make sense of the behaviour of others, but also the behaviour of self, and in this way can help leaders to make sense of their lives both inside and outside of the workplace. With one of the key underlying assumptions of evolutionary psychology being the existence of a universal human nature, and the nine human instincts emanating from the evolutionary psychology literature, this design principle is directly operationalised through the content presented in this prototype, and the associated sense-making that takes place through drawing on this perspective.. The human instinct 'empathy and mind-reading' provides the learner with the opportunity to think about how we all have the tendency to understand how others around us feel, and reminds how as a leader it is a moral obligation to take this into account when making decisions.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Universality | Human instincts | Sense-making | Social responsibility |

**New content and method**

In discussing the operationalisation of this design principle with the practitioner, it was obvious that it was explicit in his 'higher aim' and underlying philosophy of bringing humanity back into the leadership process. This was heightened even more so through the research process. It is part of his mission to make leaders into the best they could be, making their jobs more fulfilling and improving the life journey of their teams. As insights are gained through being engaged in the prototype, it is expected that learners will begin to see themselves differently in terms of their role of leader within the organisational and broader context, and that this will help them to better understand what is most important in their lives. This is especially the case in terms of the application of human instincts to leadership challenges, the discussion of the pre-prepared personal leadership stories, and reflections post-prototype that are captured on the collective website. Furthermore, the reflective journal that is drawn on throughout the programme is an important tool through which this design principle is operationalised, as it provides material and exercises that amongst other things, are designed to stimulate reflection about moral and ethical issues as they apply to leadership inside and outside of the workplace. Several methods are used to reinforce or explain the human instincts material. A simple logo representing each human instinct provides an impactful yet memorable visual which is aimed at helping participants to remember all nine instincts. To provide more context and theoretical background for the MBA setting, there is a short discussion about the discipline of evolutionary psychology and its main assumptions, especially in terms of how they apply to human instincts. Additionally a multimedia presentation of life on the Savannah Plains in stone-age times illustrates the kinds of challenges that are assumed to have arisen. In this way the students better understand the 'lens' of evolutionary psychology in understanding human behaviour, and it draws them in further, especially as the scientific evidence in support of it was emphasised. This is further enhanced with references to web links and recent findings which are

placed on the customised online website. As part of the 'Change management' segment a case is used that has been customised specifically for Hardwired Humans, and reflecting a real Australian example of human instincts being applied to a change management situation. By drawing on the case that shows how human instincts are applied to the management of people in the corporate world, learners understand the practical value of what they are learning.

| Purpose and belonging | Broader context |
|---|---|

**Design principle 3:** **Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-make and make new choices**

**Existing content and method**

This prototype offers a 'lens' or new perspective through which to make sense of one's job as an organisational leader. It does so through the discipline of evolutionary psychology, the content of which helps to explain and predict human behaviour. As such, this design principle is operationalised via the pedagogical method of offering a new mental model or worldview of leadership, which then provides the opportunity to make new leadership choices. This involves tapping on the learner's self-awareness in order to challenge one's own worldview. A *Harvard Business Review* article, called 'Inner Work Life: understanding the subtext of business performance' (Amabile & Kramer, 2007) is used to further operationalise this principle by providing insight into the mind of the learner whilst at work. As part of the method involved here, there is a personalised appeal to the learner so that the learning is relevant and directly applicable, and the aim here is to provide choice, not only in terms of daily activities, but also on a more fundamental level, regarding what worldview to employ and how to make sense of one's role as a leader in a business organisation.

| Understanding behaviour | Personalisation | Choice |
|---|---|---|

**New content and method**

There is also a focus on self-discovery and personal development as the leader explores and develops the different aspects of self, i.e. the 'whole person'. In better understanding herself, the leader is then able to better understand others, and thus manage them more effectively. Because this principle is about self-awareness it draws on pedagogical delivery techniques that call for self-reflection in operating as a leader, and can be confronting as this involves questioning assumptions and deeply held worldviews in order to make sense of one's world as a leader. It also involves learners becoming conscious of their mental model of leadership, and how this can impact on effectiveness as a leader. It also considers the role of pathfinding and innovation as the hallmark of business growth and thus the effective leadership of people in organisations is highlighted. A reflective journal is provided to each participant wherein certain sections provide further information about human instincts, evolutionary psychology, and poses specific insightful questions to be answered about oneself as leader. It also adds more variety, and different stimuli especially in terms of images and ideas, and there are open spaces for personal reflection. In this way, it covers aspects of the 'lens' used in the programme, encourages self-awareness and personal development, and insights into one's role as a leader in business. To trigger creative energies, various writing and drawing materials are left on the tables to be used by learners. This journal is used to encourage reflection about human instincts and human nature, but also about the different aspects of self as a leader. The thinking behind this was that the non-intellectual as well as the intellectual parts of learners would be stimulated and they would get to keep a physical communication device within which they could be self-reflective both during and after the programme. A learning styles quiz is provided online (similar to www.learning-styles-online.com), which personalises the learning by providing insight into one's own learning style, further improving self-awareness, and providing information to the instructor about the learning preferences of the group. The one-page leadership story written by participants about themselves is about their biggest current challenge as a leader. The narrative begins with the following: 'Everything was going well until…..', and the story is written

in the third person. It includes a section on (1) assumptions about your role and responsibilities, how the organisation works and the behaviour of people (2) the perspectives of others around you and at different levels in the organisation (3) what has been tried. A multi-media aspect to illustrate their experience can be added, making it as real as possible, with short videos, the web, organisational material, and social networking sites. In groups of four the pre-prepared story of self as leader is discussed. Once a participant presents her challenge, she turns her chair away from the group and listens quietly whilst the others work towards a solution to her challenge. Afterwards three stories are randomly picked to discuss in the plenary. The learners are advised to draw on the A4 laminate showing the nine human instincts throughout the process. Because this method draws on the human instincts framework in proposing solutions, it is only used towards the end of the intervention, once learners have had time to absorb the material. It is expected that this method will make the writer think about what they are thinking, and the person is unable to dominate their own story. The idea is to appreciate the power of collaboration, examine assumptions and share different perspectives of how to arrive at a leadership solution. The aim is to debrief and highlight the key learnings in the programme. This aim of developing this story is for learners to gain insight into their assumptions about themselves as leaders, and what they believe about work and the organisation.

| Reflection | Questioning | Mental maps | Pathfinding | Whole person |
|---|---|---|---|---|

**Design principle 4:** **In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing**

**Existing content and method**

Implicit in the operationalisation of this design principle is the concept shared by the practitioner that although we are all more similar than different, 'we are not all like me'. By this he means that it is necessary to develop a strong sense of empathy in order to understand the reality of others, as this enables one to operate as a better leader. The prototype is characterised by collaborative interaction throughout (interaction takes place at least 80% of the time), carefully interspersed with the sharing of critical perspectives and knowledge by the facilitator. Work occurs in small groups of four or less, and there is a strong emphasis on sharing of experiences.

| Empathy |
|---|

**New content and method**

The common features that humans share, including empathy and collaboration are underscored, especially in terms of how important they are in navigating a complex globalising business environment that involves a range of different cultures and perspectives. The impact on the group of competitive and collaborative behaviour is shown in the discussion of another primate species, the chimpanzees – by physically watching them and hearing about their stories from the chimp handlers, learners gain insight into these two types of behaviours. In this prototype, which draws on the human characteristic of collaboration, an underlying code of conduct for all learner interactions is mutual respect for each other, and sharing of information and experiences. Part of the content involves understanding the importance, in this respect, to be able to develop a global mindset. From a delivery point of view, the emphasis in this new prototype is on sharing experiences and knowledge, and in particular, sharing by example. The power of working together collaboratively is a further feature of the pedagogical method employed, and this is emphasised through the way that the groups work together towards a common goal in various activities. For example, as an application of the 'Gossip and grooming' application of human instincts, sharing of own experiences is involved. In small groups of four participants are asked to (a) share a good experience of what you have done or observed (b) what do you currently do that does represent bonding (c) what could you start doing differently? Three examples are then randomly picked for plenary discussion. Sharing of own experience also takes place in small groups through the presentation of the pre-

prepared personal story of the most challenging problem currently faced by each leader, providing the opportunity for constructive group feedback from the group regarding proposed solutions. In drawing in technology, sharing takes place through the online webpage that has been created specifically for this intervention. This occurs prior to meeting up, and continues after the learning process has finished. Through the use of this facility, which is matched to the technology habits of the learners (possible use of Google, use of a wiki which is a content creation and discussion forum, and/or closed LinkedIn group), there is a two-way communication process in which knowledge and experiences are able to be shared. In this prototype, a powerful form of sharing takes place after formal instruction at the Zoo. Six weeks later, learners are requested to share online by posting a story of how they have applied the learning in the workplace. This sharing process is intended to remind learners of what they have learned, and encourage them to use it in their role as organisational leader.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sharing | Global mindset | Collaboration | Powerful |

**Design principle 5:** **Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process**

**Existing content and method**

This design principle, which draws on the distinctive aspect of human nature that is curiosity, employs content that is unusual in order to engage the learner. The use of story and metaphor, which are used as both content and method here, offers content that is relevant and resonant and leading to a deeper level of learning. There are a whole range of methods used to operationalise this neo-Harvard case study method prototype, encouraging immersion in the learning process, and 'moving' learners to be involved. This is done both unconsciously and consciously, using simple concepts and complex teaching methods (such as metaphor), and by appealing to different parts of the whole person: physically (active participation), emotionally (through play, humour, mystery and surprise) and intellectually (through challenge, variety and the provision of scientific evidence). In terms of unconsciously engaging participants, first impressions are capitalised upon by engaging with learners prior to the start of the intervention, so that they immediately understand what is involved and how the learning experience can help them at work. This approach, together with the use of several carefully selected psychological 'hooks' – such as happy memories associated with past childhood Zoo visits and watching wildlife documentaries after the intervention has taken place – help to remind the learner of the learning experience that takes place through this pedagogical prototype. There is a further method that is used to unconsciously draw the learner in, and this occurs near the start of the intervention when learners are asked in small groups to identify characteristics of the species *Homo sapiens*. In doing so, they are expected to identify most of the evolutionary psychology-based 'human instincts' prior to them formally being presented, providing little room for argument. In discussing how to operationalise this design principle in the MBA pedagogical prototype, the practitioner was emphatic about using a variety of methods in order to invoke the interest of learners – thus it involves drawing on the human characteristic of curiosity. From a content point of view, he felt strongly that something 'unusual' would achieve a similar outcome, as would stories and the use of metaphor – in this case the latter is in the form of a chimpanzee and stone-age man metaphor. It was central to his belief in teaching leaders in organisations that engagement requires variety in terms of content and method, and that active participation made learners receptive. Furthermore, the location and the way that the learning is revealed are important. The use of challenge as a teaching method is used consistently throughout the delivery of this prototype, as it draws on the curious nature possessed by learners. In this prototype learners are presented with the challenge of taking on a new perspective so that they are able to understand human behaviour in new ways. In small groups they are also provided with challenges of different kinds throughout the learning process. In pre-preparing their stories of most challenging situation, diverse challenges are presented to others about each learner's personal experiences. The challenge of applying the learning a month and a half after the intervention is activated in the requirement to provide a story of application back in the workplace.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Unconscious | Actively participate | The unusual | Simple but compelling | Science | Variety |
| Challenge | Story and metaphor | | | | |

**New content and method**

Mystery and surprise are further teaching methods drawn on in this prototype, most evident in the Zoo display of the Homo sapiens species. In this instance, the use of real human actors is a welcome surprise and at this stage it is a mystery as to why it is there and what will play out, as well as how this will ultimately end up being practically useful in one's role as business leader. In order to demonstrate the similarities between chimpanzee and human behaviour a 'human' zoo display is set up – along the lines of what O'Keeffe referred to the in existing programme when he asked participants to imagine it – with a real person inside (a live human actor). This is a humorous yet meaningful addition and an interesting surprise, using a prop to make it look like a Zoo display, and located in the Zoo conference room where the training takes place. Furthermore, videos of chimpanzee behaviour are viewed, followed by human actors illustrating the learning by acting out the same behaviours in the workplace. Four specific behaviours are demonstrated, viz. hierarchy, dominance/submission, gossip, social belonging (e.g. silos). The actors are filmed so that this can be used again in future as needed. This focus on play and humour, although careful not to downplay the seriousness of the subject, is a hallmark of this prototype as it helps learners to relax and encourages an atmosphere in which to 'play'. It not only opens them up to further learning, but provides positive connotations to their learning experience and helps them to remember what they have learned at a later stage.

| | |
|---|---|
| Play and humour | Mystery and surprise |

**Design principle 6: The content and learning process should explain reality to learners**

**Existing content and method**

The operationalisation of this design principle is explicitly characterised by matching of the reality of learners as workplace leaders. For this reason it is crucial that the instructor operates in a manner that shows that he or she 'knows what it is like being me', and fully understands the experience involved in being a contemporary business leader. This involves drawing on the learner's own experience in the learning process. Most critically, the learning is practical and useful, and able to be immediately implementable as it is directly relevant. It does so by offering a new perspective of human behaviour, one which helps to make sense of the most difficult challenge faced by leaders i.e. managing people. Sense-making and 'aha' moments are provided not only through the use of the 'human instincts' framework, but also through the use of various concept messages like use of 'the first seven words' and the 'gossip map'. Both content and method are used here to convey a sense of reality in the learning process. Stories about workplace challenges of others and of oneself are conveyed and reflected upon to help derive meaning and context about what it is like to be a business leader. From a content perspective, the aim is to provide the learner with an accurate representation of what is involved in operating as a leader in the workplace, so that it effectively explains the reality. In doing so, practical and useful material is used that is relevant and thus meaningful to the learner, enabling sense-making of the complexity and uncertainty that is so prevalent in workplaces. Stories about personal experience resonate in operationalising this principle, as they reflect actual scenarios which can be discussed and reflected upon in the learning process. Pedagogically, story is used as both content and method, as it is used by both instructor and learner as a method to convey and explain reality. Similarly, meaning, relevance and complexity of life as a leader is used in the delivery process – through discussion, role-plays, scenarios and activities – to provide the learner with sense-making tools and perspectives.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Relevance | Meaning | Context | Personalised | Practical and useful | Sense-making |
| Complexity and uncertainty | Story | Understanding | | | |

**Design principle 7:** **Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content**

**Existing content and method**

In discussion with the practitioner about operationalising this design principle, it became obvious that there are several important and powerful pedagogical content and method aspects used to help learners recall what they have learned. By drawing on the imagination, the idea of making the learning 'sticky' is a cornerstone of this prototype and it is for this reason that content and method needs to be meaningful, unusual, and practically useful. From a content point of view, the prototype helps learners to develop a toolkit through the learning process, providing various options in how to operate as a leader. Not only does the easy application implicit in the learning help to remember, so does the fact that the learning can be applied more generally to other aspects of the learner's life. For instance, the human instincts framework can be applied to situations involving friends and family at home as well. This design principle makes use of content that enables a learner to imagine that is easy to apply after the learning has taken place, and can be generalised to apply to other aspects of the learner's life. It does so by providing a toolkit of possibilities in the mind of the learner so she is able to operate more effectively as a leader. There are various teaching methods that are particularly influential in that they are used as content as well, such as the use of story and applied examples, and also the use of variety. Each of these teaching techniques helps the learning to stay in the mind of the learner. Variety is an especially useful method, for instance, as it helps learners to remember by appealing at different levels and to different aspects of self, i.e. intellect, emotion, spirit, and physical. In the prototype, there is use of different speakers and locations (two separate rooms within the Zoo conference centre, walking down to the Zoo enclosure), concepts and tools, stories, images, metaphors, group set-ups and the unusual Zoo location provide stimulation and appeal to the imagination in different ways. There are several other teaching methods used in this prototype. The use of a transforming perspective is a teaching method that is used to further embed the learning into the mind of the learner, as by adopting a new way of thinking it changes the way that one perceives reality. Debriefing is used as a tool to explicitly draw out the reality of the learner, and thus the personal meaning involved, and as such tends to stay in the mind of the learner. In this learning process there is use of a range of memorable or 'sticky' concepts, such as the 'alpha male', the 'gossip map', 'the first seven words', which are remembered because they are simple, humorous or useful. The nine human instincts themselves are sticky because they involve concepts about human behaviour that resonate because they ring true for learners.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Variety | Toolkit | Transforming perspective | Memorable concepts | Story | Debriefing |
| Easy application | Generalising | | | | |

**New content and method**

In order to reinforce the learning further, directly after the programme each participant posts their reflections at an online website in order to share the impact of the learning in terms of the following:- (1) self at work and at home (2) the importance of relationships and their impact on collaboration and diversity management (3) the impact of choice as a leader in the organisation and the community (4) people management. This encourages insight about each of these aspects and how fresh insight from the human instincts framework has changed thinking. Just as O'Keeffe had

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| | begun to typically include at least one follow-up session after the learning experience, we decided that this should be operationalised in the prototype. However, due to the constraints of only having 2 days available for the learning experience, we decided that sharing online after the fact would be the next best option. For this reason, participants post a story online six weeks after the programme about how they have applied the human instincts framework to a challenge they have faced at work. These are posted on the customised website that all students have access to so that they can be shared. Feedback is welcomed on these applications. The aim is to encourage application and reinforce the learning in this programme, and to share these findings and encourage interaction and deep discussion online. |
| Applied examples | |

## 10.4 Testing the prototype

The whole idea behind a prototype is that it is an early model built to be tested so that it can be improved and replicated. It is intended to be used in a real situation and serves as an example, and is defined as follows:

1. A first or preliminary version of a device or vehicle from which other forms are developed:
2. The first, original, or typical form of something; an archetype (OxfordDictionaries, 2015b).

The prototype outlined in this thesis is the outcome of operationalising seven design principles that are informed by theory and practice, and testing it out means determining how effectively they have been operationalised. This involves determining the extent to which each of the identified human characteristics and capabilities identified as a crucial part of the learning process has been tapped by the programme. The prototype is sufficiently well-developed that, with the advice of the Hardwired Humans facilitator-practitioner, it can be delivered for testing as part of an MBA subject.

For example, if we were to examine content and method in regard to the ideals outlined in design principle 1, the test would explore to what extent has emotion been tapped on in providing a safe yet stimulating learning environment? This can be determined in various ways, by looking at content (human instincts framework, memorable concepts, evolutionary psychology theory, personal stories) and method (instructors experience and personality, quality of learning materials, family-size groups, variety of activities and speakers, themed class-room set-up) aspects. The impact of these aspects could be measured, for instance, through customised surveys, personal observation or open-ended face-to-face interviews as in the examples provided in ***Table 10.2***.

It is planned for the prototype to initially be tested out with MBA students in the Macquarie Graduate School of Management setting within the Organisational Behaviour component of the curriculum. After testing and improving on the prototype, it could be tested again in other Australian MBA classrooms, after which it could be run as part of OB or in extended form as an elective in other

cultural settings abroad. Ideally, the prototype will be further refined by continuously feeding in suggested modifications – as is the case with any prototype.

Because the design principles involve tapping on aspects of human nature in attempting to engage, motivate and inspire, it is argued that they can be used to do this is in environments other than the MBA educational realm. Most obviously they can be used in other higher education disciplines, and in schools, but also in corporate training settings. Furthermore, it is possible that the design principles can be used in environments where the focus is not on education, but in other situations where engagement, motivation and inspiration is important such as in the marketing or advertising industry.

### 10.4.1 Suggestions for evaluation

In this prototype, which aims to teach a range of leadership skills, it is challenging to determine how best to measure them. Because they are intended to be taught within an MBA setting there is an emphasis on learning as opposed to training, and thus deeper levels of learning requiring more attention to be paid to challenging of assumptions, the development of critical thinking skills, and the ability to adopt multiple perspectives. After all, the role of business schools is to trigger the development of leadership behaviours through building knowledge and learning mechanisms, which also assists in a life-long learning process (Varela, 2013).

The skills required to operate as a leader are complex and comprehensive, demanding not only the acquisition of knowledge, but the adoption of a toolkit of skills, and the interest and ability to be able to use them at appropriate times. In learning them, it is important to be able to practice them under the guidance of an instructor (Smith, 2014). In the prototype the emphasis is on 'soft skills' development, which are increasingly in demand in contemporary corporate settings, especially leadership, communication (Brill, Gilfoil & Doll, 2014), ethics and team skills (Ingols & Shapiro, 2014). However, there are challenges in teaching these skills in business and other disciplines, and it has been argued that finding appropriate assessment methods may go some way towards alleviating this situation:

> … soft skills are greatly desired by employers, yet are elusive in many of these disciplines' contemporary models of pedagogy, and have not been sufficiently explored due to great difficulty in capturing them through systems of outcomes assessment. This last point may be the key to understanding where better solutions for nurturing soft skills within higher education begins - with a reliable and valid assessment tool (Brill, Gilfoil & Doll, 2014, p. 175).

However, despite this growing interest there are many critics of the quality of the skills that are developed (Mintzberg, 2004a; Pfeffer, 2011; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), and business schools and other organisations offering management education programmes are increasingly being called to account in terms of showing that their learning experience is relevant and appropriate - not only by

international accreditation agency, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), but also the business community at large (Eiter & Halperin, 2010). There has been limited work done to develop tools (Rubin & Martell, 2009), especially those which effectively assess soft skills (Brill et al., 2014; Eiter & Halperin, 2010), even though there is widespread agreement that it needs to be done (Eiter & Halperin, 2010). This is partly explained by the fact that it is not only difficult to measure soft skills, it is also difficult to teach them (Brill et al., 2014). For instance, teaching ethics which some scholars might argue as 'unteachable' (Lawrence, Reed & Locander, 2011), is a challenge. Soft skills development does not lend itself to being tested by standardised assessment tools, as it involves measuring the intra- and interpersonal skills which enable a person to operate effectively in organisations (such as teamwork, communication, leadership, negotiation and conflict resolution) (Ingols & Shapiro, 2014).

But if business schools do not effectively measure the degree of learning that has taken place, they are not able to show that they have achieved their goal in teaching them; instead it will be 'merely an aspiration' (Smith, 2014, p. 385) and unlikely to be taken seriously by stakeholders, most particularly the students themselves and the business community. Pfeffer (2011, p. 228) argues that 'one of the oldest findings in organizational studies is that measurements affect behaviour – that what gets measured gets done'. It is evident that this is the reason that things began to change after the AACSB became involved, introducing its assurance of learning (AoL) standards. We would expect the evaluation and testing of the prototype to draw on and contribute to such developments.

Although the AACSB has been in existence since 1916, it is only since 2003, when they implemented the AoL standards and learning achievement had to be demonstrated, that things began to change. The introduction of AoL shifted the emphasis from what was being taught to what was being learnt (Martell, 2007), and since then business schools have been called to account in measuring the value of their learning on a systematic basis (Gray, Boasson, Carson & Chakraborty, 2014) and to take it seriously (Smith, 2014). The mission of the AACSB is expressed as advancing 'quality management education worldwide through accreditation, thought leadership, and value-added services' (see http://www.aacsb.edu/en/about/), and it pledges quality management education through its AoL standards.

Perhaps the most significant change in introducing the new standards is that business schools are required to establish learning goals because until then, curriculum quality had been mostly determined by inputs and indirect measures of learning (i.e. do we teach it and do you think you learned it?), the latter of which involved self-assessment. Now the focus was on a requirement to provide direct measures of learning that were demonstrable, and most faculty members did not know how to do this (Martell, 2007).

The principles of accountability and continuous improvement underpin AACSB AoL standards, which involve a process of defining learning objectives; aligning curricula with objectives; identifying measures and instruments for measuring; collecting, assessing and disseminating assessment data; and using this data for continuous improvement. This translates into four interrelated steps, *viz.*:

> What will our students learn in our program? What are our expectations? How will they learn it? How will we know they have learned it or not? What will we do if they have not learned it? (AACSB International Accreditation Coordinating Committee, 2013)

The AACSB AoL standards were updated in 2013, now focussing on innovation, impact and engagement, and retaining most of the same standards but introducing a renewed focus on indirect measures to be used as evidence, and supporting continuous improvement (AACSB International Accreditation Coordinating Committee, 2013). Martell suggests that the introduction of the AoL standards offers a positive retort to critics: 'AoL provides a way to answer our critics—to demonstrate the learning that takes place at institutions, and to make concern evident with continual improvement' (Martell, 2007, p. 195). These standards are reflected in ***Table 10.2***

How have business schools done this so far? Since the introduction of these tests, many standardised tests have been used to assess the extent to which MBA students are learning both functional and management topics (Ingols & Shapiro, 2014), but although some progress had been made regarding AACSB requirements, business schools have struggled to meet them, and especially with regard to the MBA programme. This was largely ascribed to specific attitudes and behaviours involving a lack of genuine commitment and scant understanding of the purpose of assessment (Martell, 2007), and also challenges in finding the right kind of evidence (Rubin & Martell, 2009).

In general, though, recent efforts by business schools have been more comprehensive, with additions such as open-ended response formats, and the use of authentic assessment tasks that involve ill-structured problems similar to those faced in real life situations. The latter two require the development of rubrics (Smith, 2014), described as follows: 'A rubric is a structured set of evaluation criteria that includes concise written descriptions of different performance levels for each criterion; they are often used to evaluate student writing, oral presentations, and other performances' (Smith, 2014, p. 392). It is argued that the assessment of outcomes are unlikely to have any effect if there is no 'closing of the loop' (Brill et al., 2014), a widely-used term which means that assessment results are used to inform and improve the learning process. Furthermore, it is critical that instructors avoid 'teaching to the test' and teaching simplistic and formulaic methodologies, something that often characterises business school teaching (Smith, 2014). The idea of rubrics has been included in ***Table 10.2,*** so for example, would be used to measure the level of collaboration that has occurred during the learning process.

In a study of emerging assessment practices in executive education, Eiter & Halperin (2010) found that there has been a shift away from only looking at return on investment to the use of multiple measures that include both quantitative and qualitative components. They also established that as executive education becomes more aligned with the strategic approach of the company, it becomes more important to have qualitative measures such as the transfer of the learning into the business setting. Furthermore, instead of an isolated approach to evaluation, there has been a trend towards embedding assessment measures into the design of the learning process – making evaluation and design much more interrelated. This has occurred in this prototype, for instance, through requesting participants to develop a story of self before the class meets up, and the quality of this story is then able to be measured with grades awarded.

There are several examples of success in evaluating the development of soft skills in business schools. For instance, in measuring leadership, teamwork, and ethics skills, Ingols & Shapiro (2014) drew on a 360-degree commercial product, made use of paid expert input, and built an assessment tool based on theory. Lawrence, Reed & Locander, 2011) used a web-based simulation to show that the teaching of ethical behaviour can be systematically assessed, whilst Leigh, Shapiro & Penney (2010) evaluated a programme that developed diverse and collaborative leadership through using quantitative and qualitative assessment methods including participant observation, and the analysis of a critical incident that addressed group process.

Whilst progress has been made in terms of assessment and evaluation of management learning in business schools since the introduction of the AACSB measures, there are several approaches that can help to make it more effective. Varela, Burke, Michael & Michel (2013), for instance, suggest that in establishing learning objectives, a distinction is made between the development and mastery of leadership skills, and that early stages of development of these complex skills should be considered relevant as evidence of success. This is because they are unlikely to be developed to high levels of mastery during the MBA journey. Smith (2014) emphasises the importance of including the business community in developing assessment methods so that the learning remains relevant and practical. He also suggests making use of 'double dipping' by using a single assessment to address several learning objectives. This can be done by teaching and assessing certain business skills, such as relevant thinking skills, in practical contexts; he argues that this should be done because management education is practice orientated, and use should thus be made of realistic problems, cases and decision situations. He also notes that it is recognised that there is a need to measure how the learning is applied in practical situations and that shortcomings thus far have in part been because of ineffective assessment practices (Smith, 2014). There are several challenges that remain such as how to address the evaluation of social learning networks as they become more prevalent in

the learning and development arena (Eiter & Halperin, 2010), and how to best measure the soft skills that are part of business management degrees (Ingols & Shapiro, 2014).

There are various tools that can be used for evaluation and assessment. Schuh & Upcraft (2001, p. 4) differentiate between evaluation and assessment as follows: 'Assessment describes effectiveness; evaluation uses these descriptions to improve effectiveness'. Assessment instruments can be self-designed or purchased as standardised tests from educational testing services. They can be embedded within the course design as part of an activity that involves a grade, or they can be stand-alone mechanisms that are outside of the course, in which case students may not be inclined to take part in them unless it is done on an incentive basis (Smith, 2014). Furthermore, they can be indirect (such as surveys) or direct (demonstrated evidence that learning outcomes have been achieved). The range of tools includes qualitative and quantitative methods such as models (like Kirkpatrick's Four-Level Training evaluation model), participant observation, computer simulations, self-assessment, 360 degree tests, standardised commercially available tools, building one's own instrument based on theory, and sourcing help from experts. Each tool has its advantages and disadvantages; for instance, self-assessment is limited by the possible self-report bias that is characteristic of many psychological inventories (Leigh et al., 2010).

In looking at ideas for evaluating the prototype as presented in this chapter, there are several aspects that cannot be excluded. The following points cover the recommendations for evaluation of this prototype, after which specific proposed methods and procedures are presented in ***Table 10.2***:

1. **Soft skills.** The learning objectives are directly related to the elements listed in the design principles, thus addressing the development of various soft skills related to organisational leadership. The underlying intention, as with all MBA education initiatives, is to transfer knowledge and learning mechanisms that trigger life-long skill development, and not necessarily mastery at this point.
2. **Customisation.** Evaluating the impact of this prototype is customised and, where possible, embedded into the learning process. In this way it is part of the design of the prototype, and enables the impact on learners to be assessed with ease. The customisation is necessary, as it is envisaged that standardised tools will not, on their own, be able to assess the kind of soft skills for leadership that are being taught in this prototype.
3. **Multiple measures.** In order to comprehensively evaluate the learning achievement there are multiple measures used: qualitative and quantitative, but emphasis on qualitative. It is argued that the more different kinds of evaluation, the more perspectives of the learning process are provided, and thus direct and indirect, pre-test and post-test observations, embedded and stand-alone processes are used. To allow for thorough and in-depth assessment the use of rubrics will help to be detailed and specific with regard to the measures. The multiple measures used in this prototype are reflected in ***Table 10.2***, as can be seen in the instance of measuring the level of self-awareness.
4. **Systematic.** The evaluation process is systematic and involves commitment to the process. If evaluation is not done on a systematic and consistent basis it will fail to provide an accurate assessment of the learning process.

5. **Practical transfer.** The translation of the learning into the corporate world is evaluated, and there is an emphasis on follow up, as the more this is done regarding what has been taught or intended, the more likely the learning will be remembered, and there will be follow-through and application of the learning. This is reflected, for instance, in Design principle 7 in ***Table 10.2*** where the story of application that is shared six weeks after the learning experience.
6. **Self-monitoring.** In line with the shift towards taking responsibility for one's own learning, this evaluation process involves the learner monitoring own learning. This involves awareness of this role in the learning process, and then assessing and reporting on the extent of absorption and application of the learning.
7. **Business involvement.** In order to keep the learning practical and relevant, the business community is regularly consulted regarding the evaluation process. Committing to this process helps to forge positive relationships with the corporate sector as they collaborate in elevating the chance of high levels of appropriate learning being achieved by the business school.
8. **Technology.** Where possible throughout, technological mechanisms are used to assess, such as Survey Monkey, which help to make the evaluation process much more simple and easy, and ideally fitting with the technology orientation of learners.
9. **Continuous improvement.** Last but not least, this evaluation process is set up to close the loop, which involves continuous improvement of the prototype through feedback on assessment of learning achievement, for as noted by Martell: 'Closing the loop is not just the final step in AoL; it is the raison d'être for assessing student learning' (Martell, 2007, p. 192).

| DESIGN PRINCIPLE | What will our students learn in our prototype? | How will they learn it? | How will we know they have learned it or not? | What will we do if they have not learned it? |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. *LEARNING ENVIRONMENT* *Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities* | • Being aware of connection to emotions | *Tapping on emotion through:*<br>• Different senses<br>• Authentic instructor<br>• Family group size<br>• variety<br>• quality learning materials<br>• the unusual<br>• fast pace<br>• technological innovation<br>• feeling safe | Participant observation, self-assessment, learner responses to the learning process (during and after) | Feed back into the prototype by bringing in new ideas re content and/or method |
| 2. *HUMANITY AND ME* *Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity* | • Being aware of connection to moral intuition<br>• Part of humanity<br>• Understanding there are broader issues at stake than business<br>• Universal human nature perspective<br>• Purpose and belonging<br>• Improved understanding of behaviour of self and others | *Tapping on moral intuition through:*<br>• human instincts framework<br>• sense-making of different aspects of life | Participant observation, personal interviews, reflective journals, quality of personal stories of application and of self as leader, use of detailed rubrics | Feed back into the prototype by bringing in new ideas re content and/or method |
| 3. *SELF-AWARENESS* *Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-making and make choices* | • Being aware of connection to self-awareness<br>• See self differently, understand whole person better<br>• Aware of own mental model of leadership<br>• Make new choices | *Tapping on self-awareness through:*<br>• reflection<br>• questioning<br>• worldview<br>• value of pathfinding<br>• personalisation of learning<br>• availability of new choices | Self-assessment, learning styles test, quality of story of self as leader, 360 degree assessment, reflective journal, use of detailed rubrics | Provide more opportunity for reflection and questioning |
| 4. *COLLABORATION* *In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing* | • Being aware of connection to collaboration<br>• Recognising importance of collaboration at work<br>• Empathy and diversity management<br>• Effective communication and teamwork | *Tapping on collaboration through:*<br>• sharing of experiences and solutions<br>• explaining importance of a global mindset<br>• understanding we are not all like me<br>• power of collaboration/ teamwork | Participant observation, quality of sharing of work experiences, response to listening to group feedback re story of self as leader, use of detailed rubrics | Provide more opportunities to share experience and knowledge |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5. *ENGAGEMENT*<br>*Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process* | • Being aware of connection to curiosity<br>• Being responsible for learning how to learn | *Tapping on curiosity through:*<br>• unconscious drawing in<br>• active participation<br>• the unusual<br>• compelling but simple<br>• scientific evidence<br>• variety<br>• provision of challenge<br>• mystery/surprise<br>• story and metaphor<br>• play and humour | Participant observation, self-assessment, reflective journal | Look for innovation in terms of the existing delivery methods |
| 6. *EXPLAINING REALITY*<br>*The content and learning process should explain reality to learners* | • Being aware of connection to experience<br>• Understanding reality of operating as a business leader | *Tapping on experience through:*<br>• practical and useful experience that is relevance<br>• gives meaning<br>• provides context<br>• personalised so relatable<br>• sense-making through frameworks<br>• complexity and uncertainty is reflected<br>• story reflects reality<br>• understanding 'what it's like to be me' | Quality of the stories or practical and useful experiences that are shared, online feedback and interaction, reflective journal, use of detailed rubrics | Find new ways to share experience to that they are more real, and closer to practice |
| 7. *STICKY*<br>*Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content* | • Being aware of connection to imagination<br>• Remember the learning<br>• Easy transfer of learning to workplace to be a better leader<br>• A toolkit of options of how to operate as a corporate leader<br>• Generalises learning to other aspects of life | *Tapping on imagination through:*<br>• variety<br>• transforming perspective<br>• applied examples<br>• story<br>• debrief<br>• memorable concepts | Pre-and post-LSI, sharing of story of application 6 weeks later, reflections shared online | More follow ups, more sharing of example of application, reminder through newsletter |

**Table 10.2: Evaluation of the neo-Harvard case study method prototype - proposed methods and procedures**

## 10.5 Summary

The neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype developed and presented in this chapter draws on the strengths of the existing Hardwired Humans Zoo programme, and injects a range of pedagogical content and delivery components that are informed by the research endeavours that were part of this study (literature reviews, empirical critique of the Zoo programme and the dialogue with the practitioner). It has been customised here to slot into a business school Organisational Behaviour module that is part of the MBA programme, offering unique insights into a non-MBA programme that is highly successful, and the possibility of upgrading the current OB offering at the business school.

The recommendations offered in terms of the evaluation of the programme provide useful ways to measure the success of the programme in achieving its objectives, with perhaps the most important aspects being the continuous improvement that needs to occur through feedback on assessment of the learning achievement, and the use of multiple measures as there are a range of capabilities being measured that are not only difficult to teach, but challenging to measure.

# 11 Conclusion

## 11.1 Thesis argument and findings

The neo-Harvard case study method is defined as a pedagogical teaching method used in management education that 'transforms' the traditional Harvard case study method by drawing on its strengths and overcoming its limitations. As represented in this thesis, this includes content and delivery components that facilitate the development of leadership skills appropriate to the contemporary business environment.

The strengths of the Harvard case study that the neo-Harvard case study method draws on include its particularisation which enables the understanding of management as complex and multifarious, unable to be described by theoretical models, and requiring detailed qualitative research. Cases, which are historical stories about problems faced in real-life business situations, capture the experiences of managers and thus simulate reality. Through the use of story with plot, relevance and familiarity, the traditional method captures the interest of learners as they aim to solve the 'mystery' implicit in the incomplete narrative. The case dilemma or decision-focus of the case helps the student to understand the complexity of understanding a business problem and making a stand based on the facts of the case. A further strength of the traditional case method is that through analysis of the case prior to meeting up in the classroom, complex interactive discussion is able to occur between the individual learner, the class as a group of learners, and the instructor. In this way experiences and knowledge are shared, as well as different viewpoints, in co-creating meaning of the challenge, and providing the opportunity to practice interpersonal skills in a safe environment.

It is proposed in this thesis that, despite these educational achievements, the Harvard case study method in its traditional form has been restricted by a narrow approach to management education in drawing primarily on the intellect to teach analytical and decision-making skills. The neo-Harvard case study method, in contrast, taps into a broader range of human capabilities in the learning process – including emotion, moral intuition, self-awareness, collaboration, curiosity, experience and imagination – in order to develop a comprehensive leadership skill-set that is more suited to a complex and rapidly changing environment where solutions are required across boundaries of different kinds.

In answer to the research question 'What does a neo-Harvard case study method look like, that captures the strengths but overcomes the limitations of this traditional method for MBA education?', the thesis has developed a set of seven design principles for management education. These highlight both content and method, and are drawn from the literature reviews, empirical case study and the integrative and cyclical dialogue with the programme developer-facilitator. These were transformed

into a more elaborate design principle model that includes a pedagogical process relating to each design principle, and the human capabilities that are tapped into in each case. The pedagogical content and delivery methods used in the model are encapsulated in the seven key areas and associated principles, viz. learning environment, humanity and me, self-awareness, collaboration, engagement, explaining reality, and sticky - see ***Table 11.1***.

| 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LEARNING ENVIRONMENT | HUMANITY AND ME | SELF-AWARENESS | COLLABORATION | ENGAGEMENT | EXPLAINING REALITY | STICKY |
| • Senses<br>• Authenticity<br>• Group size<br>• Variety<br>• Quality<br>• The unusual<br>• Fast pace<br>• Technology<br>• Safety | • Broader context<br>• Social responsibility<br>• Universality<br>• Purpose and belonging<br>• Human instincts<br>• Sense-making | • Reflection<br>• Questioning<br>• Mental model<br>• Path-finding<br>• Understanding behaviour<br>• Personalisation<br>• Whole person<br>• Choice | • Sharing<br>• Global mindset<br>• Empathy<br>• Collaborative<br>• Powerful | • Unconscious<br>• Active participation<br>• The unusual<br>• Simple but compelling<br>• Science<br>• Variety<br>• Challenge<br>• Mystery/surprise<br>• Story and metaphor<br>• Play and humour | • Relevance<br>• Meaning<br>• Context<br>• Personalised<br>• Practical and useful<br>• Sense-making<br>• Complexity and uncertainty<br>• Story<br>• Understanding | • Variety<br>• Toolkit<br>• Transforming perspective<br>• Applied examples<br>• Story<br>• Debriefing<br>• Easy application<br>• Generalising<br>• Memorable concepts |

Content | Content and method | Method

**Table 11.1: Content and method in the neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical model**

The literature reviews drawn upon in the development of this model highlighted the need for a more holistic leadership skill-set, including collaborative, self-awareness, moral and practical capabilities as well as the ability to adopt multiple perspectives, each of which are reflected in the design principles. They also reinforced the need for a greater variety of teaching methods, and the requirement to shift closer to the reality of the business world. Drawing on emotion in the learning experience, and the use of reflection and more sophisticated technological delivery methods was also highlighted. The case study evaluation of the Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme revealed a range of content and method components that elaborated on and led to refinements in the principles derived from the literature view. These included forms of pedagogical content and delivery methods and devices. The cyclical dialogue with the practitioner extended and deepened this understanding through an iterative process of collaborative elaboration, refinement and prototype testing of the design principles.

As the basic elements of this model have been fully captured, summarised and justified throughout the thesis, I will not take up any extra space by repeating these elaborations here in this conclusion. What I would like to point to is that the ultimate test of the thesis is whether or not the design principles are able to be used as a generative framework for upgrading management education, drawing on yet going beyond the traditional Harvard case study method in addressing the needs of

modern business and society. Their suggestivity and value in the development of the MBA prototype is one indication of this generative ability.

## 11.2 Limitations of the study and areas for further development

### 11.2.1 The literature review

The literature review in this thesis involved integrating a vast and sprawling literature on the Harvard case study method and its MBA education context, something that has not been done before. Further research would, however, build on this review to provide a more detailed analysis of the historical nature and context of the various versions of the method, and the controversies involved in shaping its alternative forms.

### 11.2.2 The case study

In regard to the case study, the prototype draws on a non-MBA subject which resonated strongly with practitioners and used a novel 'Zoo'-based case study to produce an innovative learning programme. The dialogue with the practitioner sought to capture the learning principles, generate ideas about the improvement of the programme in line with these principles, and adapt the programme to an MBA context. For future research, two areas of development would be useful. Firstly, in regard to this programme, it would be useful to implement and evaluate the prototype in order to determine its effect, and use this data to further refine the design principles. Secondly, the principles could be applied to prototype the development of an existing MBA subject, rather than a practitioner-based subject being adapted to the MBA. A part of this exercise could involve a systematic evaluation of the effects of the programme before and after the adaptation based on the application of the design principles.

### 11.2.3 Alignment with programmes within a given curriculum

The study has explored some of the key implications of the adoption of the neo-Harvard case study prototype into the OB programme that was part of the MGSM MBA curriculum.

The study has not engaged in any depth with alignment or other issues by the prototype with competing and alternative theories of behaviour as they impact on the learning outputs and outcomes at the institution.

In so far as the generalisability of the prototype is concerned – the extension of the research findings and conclusions from the study – needs to be reviewed in the context of any given management education institution with reference, in particular, to alignment with all aspects of institutional teaching and learning.

### 11.2.4 Assurance

The study has touched on some aspects of 'assurance' with regard to the neo-Harvard case study prototype.

Assurance relates to the 'promise' or 'guarantee' of a management education institution to deliver full value of product/service offerings to key stakeholders – delivery of full stakeholder satisfaction.

For assurance to be alive and well calls for quality management and performance management to be so well integrated that "surprise" outcomes – good or bad - are indeed a surprise.

This study has a focus on a teaching method that holds promise to improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning within a management education institution.

Any institution that chooses to make use of the prototype will need to attend to all quality and performance management issues that pertain to the particular institution.

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# *Appendices*

**supplement to thesis entitled**

# *Towards a Neo-Harvard Case Study Method*

**The Dialogical Development of Design Principles and a 'Hardwired Humans' MBA Prototype**

by

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2015

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# Appendix A: Macquarie University Ethics Agreement

This letter serves as evidence of the ethics agreement that I, as researcher, have entered into with Macquarie University, and which protects the identities of participants that were involved in the empirical research process via personal interviews. The title of my thesis has changed since this approval was granted at the start of the research process in 2011.

MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY

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**Human Research Ethics Sub Committee**
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2 May 2011

Professor Richard Badham
MGSM
Macquarie University, NSW 2109

**Reference: 5201100277(D)**

Dear Professor Richard Badham

**FINAL APPROVAL**

**Title of project: Alternatives to the Harvard case studies method: fostering artistic, craft and self-developmental management skills.**

Thank you for your recent correspondence. Your response has addressed the issues raised by the Faculty of Business & Economics Human Research Ethics Sub Committee, and you may now commence your research. The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Richard Badham - Chief Investigator/Supervisor
Tamzyn Dorfling - Co-Investigator

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is **conditional** upon your continuing compliance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)*.

2. Approval will be for a period of five (5 years) subject to the provision of annual reports. **Your first progress report is due on** May 2012.

   If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report on the project.

   Progress Reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:
   http://www.research.mq.edu.au/researchers/ethics/human_ethics/forms

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

4. Please notify the Committee of any amendment to the project.

5. Please notify the Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

6. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University. This information is available at: http://www.research.mq.edu.au/policy

# Appendix B: History of MBA Education

This is a brief literature review of the history of MBA education and pedagogies used within the MBA context.

## 1.1 Evolution of MBA education

As with all institutions, in order to better understand the business school institution and its central MBA programme, it is useful to research and understand its origins (Khurana, 2007). It will be seen that between 1900 and the mid-20th century, business schools came to be the most prominent part of many universities, yet they grew even further after that (Daniel, 1998). ***Table 1*** shows a timeline of the chief periods in the evolution of MBA education.

| | | Time period | Drivers/characteristics | Emphasis |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ORIGINS AND EARLY GROWTH **(1880–1914)** | **LEGITIMISATION and EARLY CAPITALISM** (1880s–1920s) | Prior to 1880 | • Business education unimportant<br>• Inferior occupation<br>• Informal – apprenticeships and on-the-job training | ACTIVE, APPRENTICE PRACTICAL |
| | | 1880–1914 | • Second Industrial revolution and demand for managers<br>• Business schools looking for entry into academic world<br>• Based on applied economics<br>• Trade school but academic from 1910<br>• International exchange of knowledge<br>• Industry specific courses<br>• Explosive growth of business schools | QUANTITATIVE, THEORETICAL, ACADEMIC, DESCRIPTIVE, SCIENTIFIC, MECHANICAL |
| | | 1914–mid-1920s | • Francis Taylor's scientific management<br>• Explosive growth of business schools which continued into 1920s | |
| EXPANSION AND DIVERSIFICATION **(1914–1940)** | **HUMAN RELATIONS** (1925–1940S) | Late 1920s–mid-1930s | • With the Great Depression there was an attempt to revive professionalism<br>• Emphasis on demonstrating knowledge of a technical skill | PEOPLE CENTRED, HUMAN RELATIONS, SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, SAVIOUR FOR SOCIETY |
| | | Mid-1930s–1950s | • Elton Mayo and Hawthorne Studies – human relations where managers are 'thinkers' and workers are 'feelers'<br>• Humanitarian movement grew | |
| REASSESSMENT AND REORGANISATION **(1945–1960)** | | 1939–1945 | • Growth slowed down as resources involved in the 2nd World War<br>• Criticism: lack of academic rigour and relevance | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **MANAGERIAL CAPITALISM** (1950s–1970s) | Post 1945<br>1950s–1970s | • Significant war veteran demand led to exponential growth of management education between 1946 and 1956 the no of AACSB schools grew by 45%<br>• American influence was strongest<br>• Broader range of skills in demand<br>• By 1950 a university degree was a prerequisite for an entry-level position<br>• In 1950 the MBA came into its own with the emphasis on the general rather than specific<br>• First MBA awarded outside of US in Canada (1950)<br>• Foundation Reports (1959) – certain aspects examined for the first time<br>• 'The New Look' in 1960 – new emphasis and reputation and strong growth<br>• Two camps in 1960s – Carnegie academic approach and Harvard's case orientation (science vs profession)<br>• Much broader curriculum and emphasis on research<br>• European MBA business school models challenge American MBA model (1970) – more emphasis on work experience<br>• In 1970s–1980s, US influence weakened by European approach and strengthening national systems<br>• In 1960s–1980s, focus on regional and national visions<br>• Management and ownership became separated as the norm in the US<br>• Growth and expansion of businesses resulted in the need for 'coordination and planning' at higher levels of management<br>• 1970s – management science<br>• Increased criticism of business schools | ANALYSIS, SCIENTIFIC, ACADEMIC, RESEARCH, PROFESSIONAL |
| SCIENCE, REGIONALISM AND EXPORT OF AMERICAN BUSINESS SCHOOL AND ENTRY OF OTHER MODELS **(1960–1980)** | **INVESTOR CAPITALISM** (1980s-current) | 1980s–1990s | • Decline in MBA applicants at business schools felt for the first time – early 1980s<br>• Globalisation<br>• Technology<br>• Stock crash (1987)<br>• Important structural changes in economy and emphasis in economy was on consulting and then financial services<br>• Porter and McKibbin Report (1988) | ACTIVE, INTEGRATION, SYNTHESIS, SOFT SKILLS |
| GLOBALISATION, REGIONALISATION, TECHNOLOGY AND FRAGMENTATION **(1980 to current)** | | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1990s–current | • Shift from 'technocratic' to a 'proprietary' form of capitalism where shareholder interests are most important<br>• Regionalisation<br>• More sophisticated globalisation<br>• Information technology and the Internet make on-line education more convenient<br>• End of first decade of millennium was 'eureka moment'<br>• High growth rates but diminishing quality and homogeneity<br>• Fragmentation in initiatives<br>• More complex skills in demand<br>• Growth in emerging countries | ACTIVE, COMPLEXITY, GLOBAL, RELATIONSHIP, LEADERSHIP, BUSINESS ETHICS, PUROSE AND MEANING, REDISTRIBUTION OF WEALTH |

Source: Various including (Daniel, 1998; Gordon & Howell, 1959; Khurana, 2007; Nelson, 1993; Nishizawa, 1996; Pierson & others, 1959; Schlossman, Gleeson, Sedlak, & Allen, 1994; Schlossman, Sedlak, & Wechsler, 1998; Schlossman & Sedlak, 1988)

**Table 1: Timeline of Master of Business Administration education, 1880–current**

### 1.1.1 Beginnings

The earliest evidence of learning about business goes back about 4,000 years and primarily involved the principle of apprenticeship. However, this applied chiefly to crafts or manual occupations, and did not touch on the actual business aspects of an operation (Daniel, 1998). This was mainly because there was no organised form of management knowledge (Locke, 1998b). However, 400 years ago Sir Francis Bacon reasoned that there was a need to have a methodical study of business, when he concluded that the person who has education, even though lacking in experience, 'would far excel men of long experience without learning, and outshoot them in their own bow' (Daniel, 1998, p. 17).

In terms of the more immediate recent development of business education in the US in the twentieth century, the early business schools were strongly influenced by the German Cameralist schools, with leaders educated in this tradition playing key roles in shaping schools such as Wharton Business School and Harvard Business School (Spender, 2007). At first, there was resistance to the introduction of business education because formal education was reserved for the professions (clergy, law, medicine and engineering), there was no body of business knowledge, it had a low class reputation[1], and universities and colleges were considered at that time to be for 'learning, not earning' (Daniel, 1998, p. 28).

Notwithstanding these barriers, over the second half of the 19th century an entire category of managers emerged as experts in organisation (Locke, 1998b). The need for better qualified managers and administrators had led to the first significant academic business education institutions appearing from the mid-1800s in the United States and Europe, with business colleges also being established

[1] This stance, which had its roots in the ancient belief that money was the root of all evil, was also considered to be an occupation of last resort if one was unable to enter the professions (Daniel, 1998).

around or just after 1900 in other parts of the world such as Japan and India (Engwall, 2007 in Armstrong add Fukami, 2009). With the establishment of these institutions came the growth of theoretical and specialised knowledge, failing to directly address the subject of business knowledge and provide an acceptable alternative to the informal apprenticeship (Nelson, 1993). During the last few decades of the 19th century, different national systems of higher business education emerged and developed, with variations being attributed to different national business systems, although led by the United States, Germany and France (Amdam, 2007).

In the United States, the Wharton School which opened in 1881 at the University of Pennsylvania is considered to be the first of the more well-known business schools. The school was founded in response to businessman Joseph Wharton's criticisms of the 'learning by doing' approach common in colleges at the time (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009b), and represents the first attempt to shift out of the apprenticeship system. The inception of the Harvard Business School in 1908, however, was what stimulated business education to grow exponentially (Daniel, 1998), and by 1915 there were around 40 business schools in the US (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009b). The intention of these early business schools was for business to become a profession, incorporating the idea of professional ethics and benefiting society (Khurana, 2007).

The first Master's degree in Business Administration (MBA) came into being in 1900 at US-based Dartmouth College's Tuck School of Business (TuckatDartmouth, 2013). In these early times, most business educators were either practicing or retired corporate managers, which meant that students had the benefit of learning about the lessons learned on the job. Understandably, then, business schools were known for their 'trade school' approach to management education which lasted through the first half of the 20th century (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009b).

By the end of the first decade of the 20th century, business education was considered essential in contributing towards the well-being of society (Daniel, 1998). Business schools tried to implement many new ideas, and there was a wide variety of approaches, several of which 'anticipated some important current developments which today are considered quite revolutionary' (Pierson & others, 1959, p. 35). The 1910–1918 period was characterised by explosive growth and an academic focus (Daniel, 1998), as most business schools thwarted the established model of practical education (Pierson & others, 1959).

The most common subjects at that time were commercial geography, economics, money and banking, corporation finance, transportation, accounting, business law, statistics, insurance, business organisation and management. Business boomed during the 1920s, playing an increasingly central role in society, with its leaders regarded as working in a respectable profession, and business schools kept growing. Business itself started to be viewed as less mechanical and the search by business

schools for an ideal or basic curriculum continued, with different schools doing different things. Gradually there was a shift away from industry-specific courses, and, following the rise of scientific management, the 'human relations' movement grew slowly in the 1920s replacing the descriptive approach which was based on applied economics. Despite the gradual nature of this change, it marked an important turning point in the history of the MBA degree (Daniel, 1998).

By the end of the 1920s, instead of being perceived as a body that collected facts which could help to improve business, business education was seen as playing a key role in society. Some business schools professed that their aim was to train people how to be in positions of responsible leadership in the years to come, and the emphasis was not on making money. With the onset of the Great Depression increasing numbers of students signed up to learn about business, with many believing that the cause of the Great Depression was too little business education. During this difficult time, business schools were called upon to play a role in finding answers to the economic turmoil (Daniel, 1998).

Because they had played key roles during the Great Depression and the Second World War, there were heightened expectations regarding the role of the business school in society. However, with the enormous influx of returning veterans, there was considerable challenge in accommodating them. During this time there was:

> a swirl of confusion and contradictions in which theory sometimes moved ahead of practice and practice sometimes ahead of theory (Daniel, 1998, p. 138).

It was only after the Second World War that the boom in the US economy produced a flourishing business education sector (Kimball, 1995), and this was when the US began to export management education to other countries. The exponential growth of US business schools had made the idea an attractive proposition, as did the emphasis on preparing students for the profession of management. Many felt that '[it] propagated, if it did not invent, the idea of management itself' (Locke, 1989, p. 162), whilst there were others who labelled it 'educational imperialism' (Byrt, 1989). It was during the first two decades after the Second World War that the influence of US business education was strongest, especially in Western Europe and Japan.

In 1950, MBA programmes on offer were diverse – including for example majors in 'aeronautical administration' or 'building materials merchandising' – but the curricula remained much the same with schools offering the following required courses: accounting, economics, banking and finance, marketing and statistics. Management as a subject was offered almost everywhere, characterised by conformity and an emphasis on the general. During the 1950s, the MBA came into its own, as until then it had only offered a specialised extra year after having completed an undergraduate degree. By 1960, the MBA had 'a new look, a new emphasis, and a new enhanced reputation' (Daniel, 1998, p. 150), and was experiencing strong growth. The new terminology used resulted in a far more

professional look, and subjects offered at this time were: economics, accounting, statistics, business law, finance, marketing, and production or industrial management. At this stage the emphasis was on adding in social responsibility and the human aspects of management (Daniel, 1998).

### 1.1.2 Rise of the scientific method

The year 1959 marked a critical turning point, with the Carnegie (Pierson & others, 1959) and Ford (Gordon & Howell, 1959) Foundation reports[2] being published which offered perspectives on the state of business education in the United States. The reports reinforced the need for a scientific approach in management education, and argued for the sponsoring of reform in five American institutions in particular – Harvard, Carnegie, Colombia, Stanford and Chicago – and it was felt that the success of these institutions would stimulate growth more broadly (Locke, 1998b; Schlossman et al., 1998).

Almost immediately there was a response to the reports, and the approach of management educators was to become increasingly analytical in the 1980s and 1990s – this approach worked well with the academic quality of business education improving substantially (Leavitt, 1989). Knowledge convergence after mid-1960 meant that all programmes began to teach much the same content (Locke, 1998a), and there was a shift towards a general management approach. There was, however, a split in orientation in the 1960s with two camps emerging – Carnegie's academic approach, in which management is considered a science and Harvard's case orientation in which management is viewed as a profession. Research played a far more important role, and the period from the 1940s to the early 1970s 'witnessed the rise of an unprecedented degree of autonomy in American business education' (Schlossman & Sedlak, 1988).

Schlossman and Sedlak (1988) argue that although these reports symbolised the beginning of the 'modernist movement in management education', there were in fact a number of other complexities and innovations that impacted on this field of education after the Second World War. For instance, management and ownership had become separated as the norm in the US economy, and a manager with a broader range of competencies was in demand:

> Numerous previous extraneous variables, in short, had become essential components of business decision-making. New levels of psychological, social and political sophistication were essential for managers to deal with them (Schlossman & Sedlak, 1988, p. 4).

With the US-style business school spreadomg to many other countries, especially after 1960, Locke (1996) contends that the US did not deliver in terms of quality management education despite high levels of economic growth in some periods, and its influence weakened during the late 1960s and 1970s. Moreover, Amdam (2007) suggests that, at the global level, there were two competing visions

[2] Daniel (1998, p. 180) perceives the advent of the Foundation reports as 'a temporary interruption in the quest for the golden mean, the proper balance between academic theory and commercial practice'.

emerging: a European approach of developing a cross-national approach in business education, and one of strengthening national systems of business education. After the economic crisis which began early in the 1970s, nationalistic attitudes came to dominate, and this took the focus away from the European international vision, and the focus was on strengthening national educational systems – including business education. Ultimately this meant more of a focus on regional and national needs, strategies and visions, a phenomenon characteristic of the 1960s–1980s period (Amdam, 2007).

With the advent of the Vietnam War in 1959 came a whole host of criticisms about business schools in the United States. In response, the schools took a number of steps including a stronger focus on ethics and social responsibility. They also examined the relationship between business and schools and gave more attention to students who had graduated and their careers. As a result the MBA 'emerged stronger than it had been before' and business schools continued to grow. The 1970s recession brought in predictions of dire consequences for the MBA industry, yet it experienced its most rapid growth in history in the 1970s, and was characterised by a variety of interesting innovations and a much greater focus on research. Attention from the media placed the MBA firmly in the spotlight, mostly focused on the spectacular success of its graduates. It was during this time that universities began to regard the MBA as a financial 'cash cow', despite criticism that universities should have broader aims than increasing business profits (Daniel, 1998).

### 1.1.3 The active MBA, globalisation and regionalisation

After the *Bok Report* (1979) called for changes at the Harvard Business School, a subsequent range of attacks on business schools and the MBA ensued. The criticism focused on issues such as: too theoretical a curriculum, overemphasis on finance, under-emphasis on people issues, indifference to society, lack of international focus, the ambitiousness and materialism of graduates, and general disillusionment among employers. Some even lamented that the market had been flooded by MBAs. Interestingly, there was little comment regarding the fact that schools were starting to look remarkably similar or that faculty members were engaged in highly theoretical work. There were a number of reasons that these attacks occurred, with some arguing that it was a result of the exponential growth that had been experienced and the failure of the MBA innovations of that time to produce expected results. But perhaps the most significant reason of all was the slipping in competitiveness of the US economy, and that business schools must be to blame. In the early 1980s the long-predicted decline in demand for MBAs began to be felt for the first time (Daniel, 1998).

Some of the reforms included attempts to become more involved in the business world in a 'swing to practicality' (this included a new attitude towards business, more practical curricula, student participation in business on a formal and informal basis, business connecting with academia), and a more substantive curriculum (including the return of manufacturing, an entrepreneurial emphasis, an emphasis on global issues, interest in social problems and the arts, ethical concerns, attention to the

improvement of the personal attributes of MBAs, and increased attention to the needs of business). As a result, the demand for MBAs kept on growing with rising enrolments and increased prestige for the degree (Daniel, 1998).

It was from the 1980s that business schools became less academic, and rankings came into being (Augier & March, 2011). There was a marked movement away from the US model characterising most of the previous 75 years. Business schools started to do a lot of different things in response to massive changes in the business world. Over the next five years of alternating positive and negative growth for business schools, it was only in the early nineties that enrolments began to increase again (Daniel, 1998). However, it was during this time that there were important competitors entering the market. In response to the criticism that MBA programmes were too academic (Amdam, 2007), businesses themselves began to open in-house corporate training programmes (Daniel, 1998; Jones & Zeitlin, 2008). Management consulting entities also emerged to provide executive management training programmes (Amdam, 2007) and a number of new independent MBA schools were established around the world (Daniel, 1998).

Towards the end of the 1980s, Porter and McKibbin (1988) argued that although US business schools had fared exceptionally well since the 1950s, they had become complacent and lacked awareness of several important new market expectations and trends. They recommended a range of changes, including those related to curriculum and pedagogy, and suggested that business schools 'dare to be distinctive'. There were several issues which they felt that business schools were not giving enough attention, namely breadth of education, globalisation, service sector and information management, cross-functional integration, and people skills.

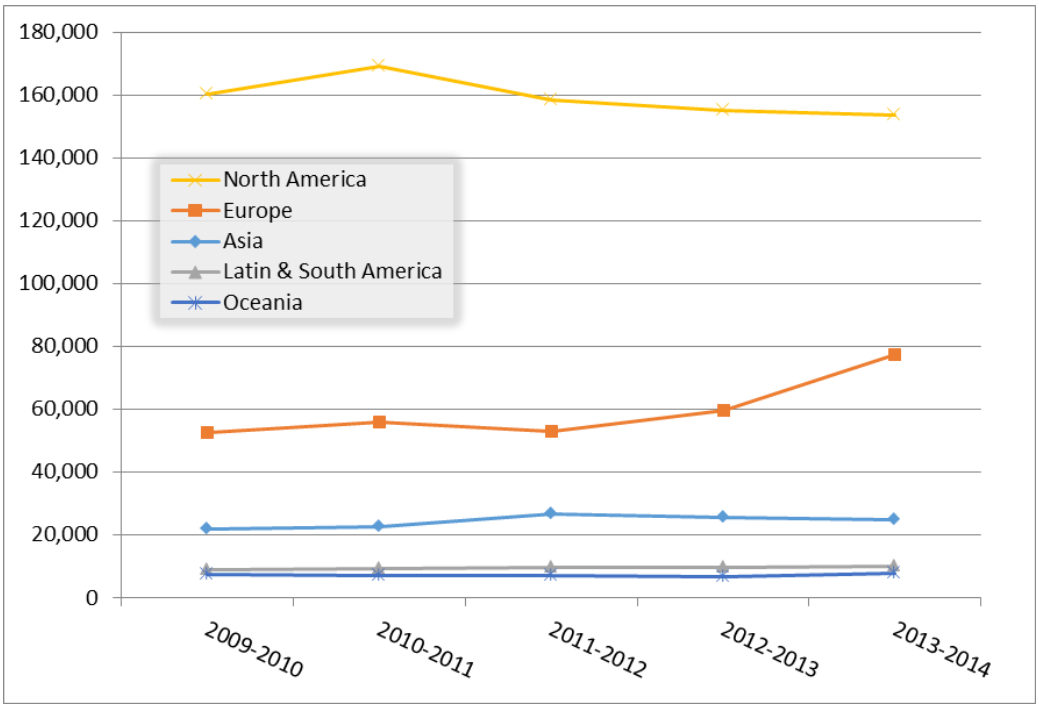
During the 1990s a variety of new elements were brought into the curriculum, methods of teaching and the underlying philosophy of business schools. On the whole, business schools began to look at offering practical, participatory and active elements in their MBA programmes, shifting the emphasis to greater relevance and forging greater allegiance to the business world. There was a common goal: 'to bring the MBA programs out of their ivory tower isolation and into the real world' (Daniel, 1998, p. 286). The curriculum gave far more emphasis to issues such as global business, entrepreneurship, ethics, leadership, and soft skills whilst there was a 'de-emphasis' of finance. The new methods of teaching focused on synthesis, making use of experiential techniques, the importance of people, and an interdisciplinary approach. Accompanying these changes, demand for the MBA degree began to grow consistently again (Daniel, 1998).

In the course of the 1990s, however, Englander and Kaufman (2004) contend that the US economy underwent a massive transformation, shifting from 'technocratic' to a 'proprietary' form of capitalism. Locke and Spender (2011) suggest that managerialism had come into play whereby

responsibility and ethics were cast aside by an elite group of businessmen who were in control of organisations. They conclude that despite attempts to introduce science into management over the years, there was no management science that resulted which was of use to the business world.

With these important structural changes occurring in the economy, critical new challenges facing business schools surfaced. The financial turmoil toward the end of the first decade of the millennium 'turned into a eureka event in world history, where observers suddenly discovered that the emperor has no clothes' (Locke & Spender, 2011, p. 189), and there was a need to become more socially responsible. The constant calls for change, which had occurred over the past 25 years, meant that management education was in trouble (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a). By the new millennium, business was the largest field in higher education, yet high growth rates were likely to have eroded the quality of the education and with increasingly intense competition schools were starting to look similar (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). Management had failed to become the profession that was originally intended, and did not have an agreed-upon common body of knowledge or formal licencing system for being a manager, and was without a commitment to the public good (Khurana, 2007). Furthermore, management education had ignored the ability of graduates to translate theory into practice (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a).

The advent of globalisation together with more sophisticated and widespread use of technology were the hallmarks of management education in the new millennium, and thus there was a need for more complex non-traditional skill-sets in the business world and new methods of teaching them (Poldony, 2008). Graduate management education grew extensively and rapidly over the decade of 1997–2007 (Anderson, 2007), largely attributed to the growth of private enterprise over the previous 20 years especially in Asia (Danos in Wakefield (2013)). However, different patterns of growth have emerged since then: for example, the traditional MBA has experienced lower enrolments while specialised Master's programmes are growing rapidly (Brown, 2012). Despite the American MBA still being the most dominant form of formal management education, a geographical breakdown of MBA enrolment growth reveals that it is occurring in places other than the US (see ***Figure 1***). ***Figure 2*** reflects an increase in enrolments since the 2008 financial crisis in the United States – in line with the historical trend to have an increase in enrolments in response to a downturn in the economy – and since 2010–2011, enrolment has been dropping.

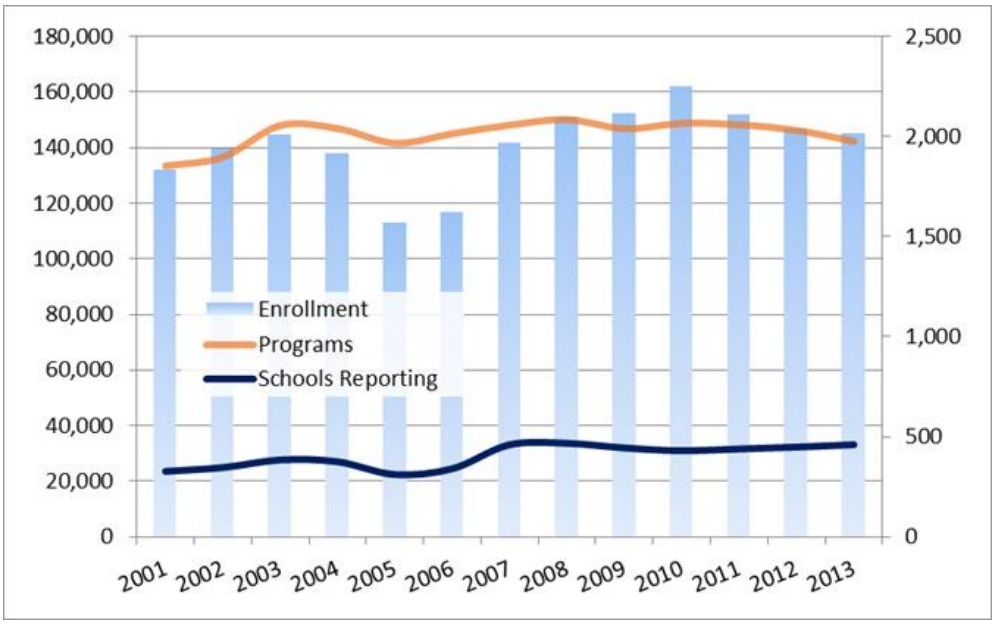



| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Asia | 95 | 87 | 96 | 133 | 109 |
| Europe | 71 | 91 | 84 | 68 | 82 |
| Latin & South America | 13 | 20 | 23 | 22 | 30 |
| North America | 2121 | 2134 | 2124 | 2116 | 2035 |
| Oceania | 28 | 27 | 27 | 28 | 18 |

**Note: The graph shows enrolment figures and the table beneath shows MBA programme figures.**

Source: Mondello (2015). This data is representative only of member schools that participated in the AACSB survey, and excludes many MBA-granting institutions that are not members or did not participate in the data collection. Of the 16,515 schools worldwide offering business programs, 8.6% are AACSB members.

**Figure 1: AACSB schools internationally – comparison of MBA data, 2009–2014**




Source: Mondello (2015).

**Figure 2: AACSB US schools – MBA data, 2001–2013**

Currently, some argue that management education is 'on the verge of a paradigm shift', in response to debates about effectiveness (Mintzberg, 2004), relevance (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), and content and delivery aspects (Danos in Wakefield, 2013) and demonstrated by the extent of extreme business school transformations globally (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a). However, business school initiatives intended to address the current and future challenges have been fragmented, and O'Toole (2009) questions the extent to which business schools are adequately equipped to cope with the challenges of the future, especially strong competition. He argues that this is because, although there is general agreement that the current dominant business school model is ineffective, there is no agreed-upon replacement for it. Furthermore, the emphasis is on identifying more effective ways of delivering teaching material at the expense of developing appropriate content, and 'pluralism will be the wave of the future' (O'Toole, 2009, p. 558).

## 1.2 The case method and other pedagogies used in MBA education

Before the advent of formal business education, the way to learn about operating in business was by signing on as an apprentice with a tradesman for a period of time or by sourcing a teach-yourself textbook. Once formal business education came into being, the primary teaching method dominant in professional schools was the instructor-centred lecturing model – although in those early days it 'was probably never quite as universal as legend portrayed it' (Daniel, 1998, p. 282). Early in the 20th century, the typical underlying philosophies at the time included: the importance of 'building character' (ethics, personality and good grooming!); attempts to classify activities involved in a business; and an understanding of the business based on its internal and external operations. The study of business was mechanical and the focus was on the particular as it was descriptive and highly specialised[3], and there was no common agreement amongst business schools regarding content.

Between the two World Wars, this shifted in response to the needs of a growing business sector, with a number of courses being added such as personnel, industrial relations and statistics, and other applied areas that we now call business functions. There was an emphasis on the liberal arts, and an increasing focus on the role of judgement and technical knowledge as business became more complex (AACSBInternational, 1966). It was in 1924 that the Harvard Business School introduced the case study method as its only form of instruction (Cruikshank, 1987), and this stood out as an exception to the rule, as most of the others stuck to traditional methods. Gradually other teaching methods began to be developed and used in relation to existing philosophies and content, with the pendulum swinging from the underlying importance of theory to practice at different points in time (Daniel, 1998).

[3] For instance, it was believed 'that in order to conduct business properly, one must know only that this kind of bean is shipped by this kind of method and sold at this kind of price' (Daniel, 1998, p. 83).

By the end of the 1920s the approach to the study of business shifted away from the mechanical approach to much more interest in 'people' issues involved in business. This human relations approach lasted for several decades until the end of the 1950s. The instructor-centred lecture method had predominated until then in schools which focussed on training for specialised jobs, whilst others which aimed to prepare for general careers in business (the managerial approach) emphasised participation, discussion and investigation (Pierson & others, 1959). But by the end of the 1950s there were calls for a more scientific analytical approach, wherein reasoning ability took priority over merely understanding the mechanics of a business. Some professors at the time believed that:

> [B]usiness education suffers even more than medicine and law from the theory-practice dichotomy for three reasons: education is not a proven necessity for success in business, colleges have no clear way of simulating the reality of business, and no clear agreement exists about the exact content of a good business education. The solution they recommended, therefore, was greater involvement and participation in business by university students, using business as a laboratory for learning about the underlying processes (Daniel, 1998, p. 173).

At the end of the 1950s there were also calls for business problems to be considered from the manager's perspective. Perhaps this was because at this time some saw the need to have a much broader understanding of business in making decisions as a manager, not just the technical expertise required for the job (Daniel, 1998). At graduate level there was much reliance on case and other problem materials (Gordon & Howell, 1959). In the Ford Foundation report it was argued that those schools most biased towards use of the case study method approach were also less likely to believe that there was 'a *teachable* body of systematic knowledge on which the practice of business can be said to be based' (Gordon & Howell, 1959, p. 369). Gordon and Howell (1959) warned against heavy reliance on this form of instruction, suggesting that systematic knowledge may fall by the wayside, and that instructors may also neglect academic research. The Harvard Business School again bucked the trend in aiming to remain relevant to business practice by using the decision-focused case method.

From the late 1960s the emphasis shifted away from the particular and to the general, where pedagogical tools were analytical with theoretical frameworks driven by academic research (Jain & Golosinski, 2011), and differences between business schools at this time depended more on method of teaching than content: there were those that adopted the more quantitative analytical approach, and there were those that made use of the case method (Cruikshank, 1987). There was increasing reliance on audio-visual aids, and some business schools began to make use of television. Role-playing was being used frequently, and smaller classes at graduate level were generally preferred by business schools, to provide opportunity for class discussion. Use of the Harvard case study method was increasing (Gordon & Howell, 1959), with reports that this teaching tool 'did more to invigorate

academic preparation for business than any other one development' (Pierson & others, 1959, p. 287). Some argue that the case method provided the opportunity to link theory with practice:

> In short, there is an epistemological gap between what theory can provide and what managers bring into mindful professional practice. The gap arises from the difference between the generalities essential to the language of theorizing and the particular here-now indexicalities of practice (Spender, 2013, p. 6).

The nature of the case method began to change outside of the Harvard Business School, shifting over time from only decision-making cases to, for instance, 'illustrative' or 'prediction' cases (Lundberg, Rainsford, Shay, & Young, 2001). One of the pedagogical innovations around 1960 included the 'incident process' method of teaching in which a specific incident is offered and then more details are added during the teaching process, and this was regarded by some as superior and far more realistic than the case method. Other innovations included the introduction of computers and business games, the latter of which was considered an improvement to the case method in that it was considered better at showing interrelationships of different courses of action, it allowed students 'active roles in ongoing decision processes', and it enabled students to test out what they had learned in class (Daniel, 1998). Pierson et al. (1959) highlight the importance of forging closer links between academic education and actual job experience, labelling business schools 'unimaginative' in this area.

In the early 1980s, instead of analysis the focus was on how to combine pieces of information and knowledge in order to make better decisions. It was only now that the underlying philosophy of teaching business began shifting towards an active[4] one (Daniel, 1998), including case studies, problem-based learning and simulations, and this impacted on curriculum and teaching methods, with experiential learning becoming most dominant (Augier & March, 2011; Jain & Golosinski, 2011). In fact, it was experiential learning that came to the fore a decade later as the making of meaning in the learning process became more important (Lewis & Williams, 1994). Experience rather than classroom learning became the preferred pedagogical approach (Lewis & Williams, 1994), and there was a marked shift away from technical training and towards human aspects such as motivation (Daniel, 1998). Thus there was much more participation by students in the learning experience, especially with advances in technology. However there were concerns that the quality of teaching was negatively impacted by imbalances in the faculty reward system with the strong emphasis on research as opposed to teaching (Porter & McKibbin, 1988).

The active approach aimed to involve students interactively rather than merely teaching them as 'empty vessels' waiting to be filled. The common approach was for students to work in teams on projects that were real or simulated reality. Other pedagogical devices or approaches included

[4] The term 'active learning' can be ambiguous, but is generally focused on the student being engaged with material being studied through reading, writing, talking, listening, and reflecting (as opposed to the teacher merely imparting information).

fieldwork programmes, competitions between business schools, and students involved with academics in doing consulting work for business (Daniel, 1998). McMahon (1992) claimed that although educators often argue about the effectiveness of 'European'[5] as opposed to 'American' methods of teaching, there was such a diversity of styles in all schools that it did not matter. In his view, there was no 'one best way' of teaching MBA students and a mix of pedagogies was being used, attributable at least in part to the fact that educators usually had multiple objectives in mind. McMahon notes that 'It is paradoxical that some management educators still cling to just one teaching method, be it lecture, case, or whatever.' (McMahon, 1992, p. 23).

Whilst the curriculum in 1985 was little different to that of 1965, by 1995 it was impacted by an emphasis on globalisation, entrepreneurship, ethics, and leadership. By 2015 other programmes were added on, such as sustainability, but emphasis remained on the core business functions that had emerged in the 1950s. At this stage decision-making was driven by business insights, corporate ethics, and global challenges, whilst from the 1960s–1990s it had been based on data analytics (Jain & Golosinski, 2011). Increasing globalisation is likely to impact management education curricula and pedagogy in significant ways. Anderson (2007) argues that with the proliferation of management education into Europe and Asia there is likely to be an increasing emphasis on content and delivery that enables students worldwide to understand different cultures, and that faculty will need to learn new communication-focused pedagogical approaches that reinforce cross-cultural experience and sharing of information. She notes further that short field trips to other countries may not be sufficient, and that US cases will need to become more global as resistance from other cultures in use of the traditional case method is well documented (Redding, 1980; Saner & Yiu, 1994; Watkins, 1998).

From the turn of the millennium, there was an increasing focus on global experiential learning in order to become more relevant. After 2009 this also included the use of renewed risk management models (Jain & Golosinski, 2011). Today business schools use a plethora of pedagogical tools, the most common of which are outlined in ***Table 2***, although any discussion of impact has to bear in mind that instructional tools are only as useful as the competencies of the person delivering them.

Anderson (2007) outlines that methods of delivery will need to change in line with the current trend towards international school partnerships and alliances. The demand for online and simulation-based learning is also expected to grow, as is the use of new and improved technologies used in the learning delivery process. The transfer of tacit knowledge in particular is a burning question that will require more innovative pedagogies going forward (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a).

[5] The European approach to education was perceived as more balanced, thus did not believe in overemphasising the analytical approach as did the American model. It had a closer link to practice, and highlighted softer skills and more socially responsible management (Thomas, 2012).

| Method | Content knowledge | Self-knowledge | Diagnostic skills | Application skills | Teamwork skills | Self-control | Social impact |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading assignments | X | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | | | | | | |
| Conference | X | | | | | | |
| Case study | X | | X | | | | |
| Simulations | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Self-assessments | | X | | | | X | |
| Role plays | | X | | X | | X | |
| Behaviour modelling | | | | X | | | |
| In-basket | | X | X | X | | X | |
| Videos | X | | | | | | |
| Videotaping and playback | | X | | X | | X | |
| Individual projects | X | X | X | X | | X | |
| Group projects | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Action research and action learning | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Collaborative | X | | X | X | X | X | |
| Cooperative | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Experiential | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Fieldtrips | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Internships | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Problem-based | X | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Service learning | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |

Source: Adapted from McMahon (1992)

**Table 2: Instructional method and potential areas of impact**

Anderson (2007) outlines that methods of delivery will need to change in line with the current trend towards international school partnerships and alliances. The demand for online and simulation-based learning is also expected to grow, as is the use of new and improved technologies used in the learning delivery process. The transfer of tacit knowledge in particular is a burning question that will require more innovative pedagogies going forward (Armstrong & Fukami, 2009a).

In a recent study of top international business schools it was found that the case study method comprised one-third of their learning delivery methods, higher than the traditional format of lecturing. The study noted that use of lecturing as a pedagogy was surprisingly high, however, and that experiential learning and team project work was on the increase, with some institutions claiming that as much as 25% of their delivery was in this style (Byrne, 2013). The detailed findings of this study are reflected in ***Table 3***, where it is evident that the Harvard Business School retains its focus squarely on the case method despite increasing interest in more experiential methods.

| School | Case study | Lecture | Team project | Experiential learning |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Harvard Business School | 80% | - | 10% | 5% |
| Western Ontario (Ivey) | 75% | 10% | - | 5% |
| Virginia (Darden) | 74% | - | 6% | 10% |
| IESE Business School | 70% | 10% | 10% | - |
| UC-Berkely (Haas) | 50% | 20% | - | 17% |
| UNC (Kenan-Flagler) | 50% | 20% | - | 15% |
| Dartmouth (Tuck) | 45% | 23% | 20% | - |
| Stanford GSB | 40% | 20% | - | 15% |
| Pennsylvania (Wharton) | 40% | 20% | 25% | - |
| Columbia | 40% | 38% | 15% | - |
| Yale | 40% | 34% | - | 10% |
| Georgia Tech | 40% | 25% | 25% | - |
| IE Business Schjool | 40% | 20% | 20% | - |
| Indiana (Kelley) | 35% | 25% | 20% | - |
| Texas-Austin (McCombs) | 35% | 35% | - | 15% |
| MIT (Sloan) | 33% | 25% | - | 20% |
| Duke (Fuqua) | 33% | 33% | 24% | - |
| Northwestern (Kellogg) | 30% | 30% | 25% | - |
| London Business School | 30% | 30% | - | 15% |
| INSEAD | 30% | 30% | 20% | - |
| Cornell (Johnson) | 30% | 30% | 20% | - |
| UCLA (Anderson) | 30% | 40% | 15% | - |
| Vanderbilt (Owen) | 30% | 40% | - | 30% |
| SMU (Cox) | 30% | 25% | 25% | - |
| ESADE | 30% | 30% | - | - |
| New York (Stern) | 25% | 25% | 25% | - |
| Michigan (Ross) | 25% | 20% | - | 15% |
| Notre Dame (Mendoza) | 25% | 27% | 22% | - |
| Emory (Goizueta) | 25% | 30% | - | 20% |
| Maryland (Smith) | 25% | 25% | - | 20% |
| Georgetown (McDonough) | 25% | 30% | 25% | - |
| Oxford (Said) | 25% | 40% | 25% | - |
| Carnegie Mellon (Tepper) | 20% | 50% | 10% | - |
| USC (Marshall) | 20% | 48% | 25% | - |

Source: Byrne (2013)

**Table 3: How the world's best business schools teach their MBAs**

# Appendix C: Information and Consent Letter: Participant interviews

This is the letter of consent that was provided to each interview participant for them to sign, assuring that their identities are protected for the purposes of this study.

Macquarie Graduate School of Management
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY NSW 2109

***Phone:* + 61 2 9850 7800**
Fax: +61 2 9850 8630
Email: MGSMrecep@ mgsm.edu.au

Chief Investigator's / Supervisor's Name:
Richard J Badham

Co-Investigator's Name:
Tamzyn K Dorfling

**Information and Consent Form**
**Pre-training programme interviews**

Name of Project: Alternatives to the Harvard Case Study Method: Fostering Artistic, Craft and Self-developmental Management Skills

You are invited to participate in a study of methods of training managers and leaders that are different to the traditional management education training methodology, the Harvard case study method. Instead of focusing on cognitive learning through the use of 'objective' Harvard case studies and methods, the purpose of this study is to explore alternative forms of case study materials and methods that involve contextual, practice oriented and experiential learnings.

The study is being conducted by chief-investigator Prof Richard J Badham, Macquarie Graduate School of Management (MGSM), Phone 02 9850 9021, Email richard.badham@mgsm.edu.au and co-investigator Tamzyn K Dorfling, *PhD Candidate* at MGSM, Phone 041942 8987, Email tamzyn.dorfling@students.mq.edu.au. The study is being carried out to meet the requirements of Doctorate of Tamzyn K Dorfling under the supervision of Prof Badham of the Department of MGSM.

You are asked to participate in case study research which will be conducted prior to a new training programme conducted by Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans in 2011/12 at Taronga Zoo. The purpose of the study is to capture how participants and consultants perceive, experience and understand previous similar training programmes that have taken place.

If you decide to participate, you will be contacted and asked to take part in interviews prior to the training intervention in November. You will be interviewed about your experience with previous Hardwired Humans training programmes at the Zoo. Mrs Tamzyn K Dorfling will conduct the interviews. There will be two interviews of approximately 45 minutes, one in April 2011, and one in June. The interviews will be audio-recorded for ensuring accuracy of the collected data for further analysis.

Your participation will be voluntary and not revealed to any other person than to the co-investigator Tamzyn K Dorfling. Further, your participation in the new training programme at the Zoo will not be affected by whether you choose to participate in the study or not. The participation in the study is unpaid and not renumerated.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. The interview will be anonymously recoded afterwards and neither your name nor your initial participation number can be linked back to you at any time. All data will be stored in a locked cabinet at Tamzyn Dorfling's MGSM office for five years (after which it will be destroyed) and only Tamzyn K Dorfling will have access to the data. The result of this

research will be presented as a part of her PhD thesis and may also be published in academic journals and conferences; but no individual will be identified in any publication of the results. Any quotations used will be checked upon for verification and will not be attributable to any specific person and no one will be identifiable from the quotes at any time. Audio recordings will only be used to capture data for further analysis and will not be presented in any form that reveals participants' identities. A summary of the results of the data will be sent to you on request per email as soon as it has been analysed.

If you experience problems during the study and would like to raise this issue, you can do so by notifying Mr Buttle, who is an experienced professional researcher and leader in social studies of management, and has conducted numerous quantitative and qualitative research projects and successfully supervised a number of similar doctoral projects. He can be contacted at: T +61 2 9850 8987 or email Francis.Buttle@mgsm.edu.au.

In case of any question, please do not hesitate to contact the co-investigator Tamzyn K Dorfling or Professor Richard Badham.

Thank you very much for your participation
Best regards,
Tamzyn K Dorfling

*Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.*

---

I, *(participant's name)* have read *(or, where appropriate, have had read to me)* and understand the information above and any questions raised have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in the 'Alternatives to the Harvard Case Study Method' study, which involves being contacted and interviewed (audio-recorded) twice prior to the training programme at Melbourne Zoo on the promise that all data collected will be kept confidential in a locked cabinet at Tamzyn K Dorfling's MGSM office, only accessed by her. I was also informed that I would not personally be identifiable and that the data would be destroyed five years after the result of the study being published in Tamzyn K Dorfling's PhD thesis and academic publications. I have not been in any way pressured or coerced into participating. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name:_____
(Block letters)

Participant's Signature: _____ Date:_____

Investigator's Name:_____
(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: _____ ___ Date:_____

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**(INVESTIGATOR'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)**

# Appendix D: Australian Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme: Interview Questions

During the interviews these 14 semi-structured questions were asked of participants with the aim of exploring management education themes relating to pedagogical content and method, and impact, especially in regard to change in behaviour or worldview. Through the questions I was also aiming to understand the context within which participants were working, and the reasons for why other training programmes might have been impactful. The responses to the questions were grouped in the following way:-

- Workplace context – These questions aimed to provide background information regarding the working place context of participants in terms of most challenging problem faced; hopes and expectations in regard to their workplace experience (to gauge their value system); past training experiences and the expectations of organisations about training (questions 11, 12 and 13).
- Experience of Zoo-based human instincts programme – The intention behind these questions was to gain insight into what participants thought of the human instincts programme in terms of content and method, and its impact after the learning had taken place. The first question was asked in order to gain metaphorical insight into perceptions of O'Keeffe's delivery style. Participants were also asked what other ideas they had about teaching leaders at the Zoo (questions 1-6, question 9 and question 14).
- Other impactful training programmes – These questions aimed to illicit information about what other training programmes had been experienced, and what had been the most impactful in terms of changing thinking and/or behaviour or had stimulated or challenged (questions 7, 8 and 10).

***For the four companies: Symantec, Thales, Philips, Metro Trains Melbourne***

1. If you could classify Andrew O'Keeffe as an animal, what animal would he be and why?
2. How did the audience respond to Andrew? What about his delivery of the programme seemed to work, and what did not work? (e.g. participant involvement, Andrew as an actor, props, timing)
3. In what way does the human instincts knowledge from Andrew's programme resonate with your broader perceptions of human beings?
4. Tell me what happened the next day at work, after the training programme? What did others think?
5. What aspects of human instincts training did you have difficulty in implementing, especially in regards to a change in behaviour?
6. What management or leadership capabilities do you feel have not been addressed through this training, and what could be done to improve on this?
7. Have you ever been part of a training programme which resulted in a change in behaviour? If so, please tell me about it.
8. Have you ever experienced a dramatic shift in the way in which you view the world through your educational experiences? If yes, please describe.
9. What did you learn about yourself from this programme? Can you tell me of a situation when you made use of what you learned?
10. Can you tell me a story of when you have been stimulated or excited by an educational experience? What has been the most challenging experience?
11. Describe your training experiences at work. What does the organisation expect of you with regard to this training?

12. Please tell me about a situation that you have found to be most challenging in your role as manager?
13. What have you hoped for in this organisation and what do you expect?
14. Imagine yourself as an expert in leadership training – explain how you would go about training leaders at the Zoo.

# Appendix E: Andrew O'Keeffe (Hardwired Humans Facilitator): Interview Questions

During the interviews these 12 semi-structured questions were asked of Andrew O'Keeffe with the aim of exploring and informing the following components of the study (as in ***Chapter 8***: Dialogue with the Practitioner): 1) co-developing a story of Hardwired Humans and its most valued pedagogical content and method components; and 2) outlining O'Keeffe's experience in working with the four organisations - Symantec, Philips, Metro Trains, and Thales - whose representatives were interviewed in the empirical critique of the Zoo programme. The second question was asked in order to gain metaphorical insight into perceptions of O'Keeffe's delivery style. The intention was to illicit 'stories' which could provide context and meaning to the responses, and which I wanted to filter for pedagogical content and method aspects.

1. What are the highlights of your career, and how and why did you become involved in human instincts training?
2. If you had to describe Hardwired Humans as an animal, what kind of animal would it be? What kind of animal are you?
3. Please describe the human instincts training you delivered to these four companies? Please start from the very beginning and explain the experience thoroughly, focussing on process and content issues in particular, and the way in which participants responded.
4. In what way does the human instincts knowledge from your programme resonate with your broader perceptions of human beings?
5. What aspects of human instincts training do you think participants have difficulty in implementing, especially in regards to a change in behaviour?
6. Have you ever been part of a training programme which resulted in a change in behaviour? If so, please tell me about it.
7. Have you ever experienced a dramatic shift in the way in which you view the world through your educational experiences? If yes, please describe.
8. Can you tell me a story of when you have been stimulated or excited by an educational experience? What has been the most challenging experience?
9. As director of Hardwired Humans, what particular situations have you found most challenging? Most rewarding?
10. What have you hoped for in this organisation and what do you expect?
11. Which of the training programmes you run do you consider to have been most successful, and why?
12. What kind of animal would you classify each of the following companies as: Symantec, Thales, Philips, Metro Trains Melbourne?

# Appendix F: Evolutionary Psychology - History and Foundations

Evolutionary psychology provides a useful and novel perspective to look at how humans behave. Despite the obvious impossibilities of returning to Pleistocene[6] times, there appears to be mounting evidence from various disciplines in support of its claims. There are numerous well-respected scholars and researchers who see its value, and are using it to explain behaviour in their fields in different ways, including Professor Nigel Nicholson of London Business School who has spearheaded its application in the field of business and organisational behaviour. Within this realm, there are many examples of businesses that have made practical and successful use of the thinking behind this paradigm.

## 1.1 Early foundations of evolutionary psychology

It was the idea of the *tabula rasa* or 'blank slate' that became the predominant philosophy amongst social scientists by the 1930s. This approach, which suggests that human beings are born without mental content and that all knowledge is formed through experience and perception, supported the onset of behaviourism. Scholars proposed that psychology should be concerned with observable behaviour rather than what cannot be seen within the mind. The political and ethical misuse of biology and the laboratory successes of behaviourism led to behaviourism's rise as the dominant paradigm within psychology as:

> … social scientists steered away from the concept of instinct and the use of genetics and evolutionary theory to explain human behaviour (Wilson, 2012, p. xvi).

In the second half of the 20th century, the cognitive revolution[7] became fashionable, although behaviourism was used complementarily. Whilst 'behaviourism' involved the study of human behaviour in laboratory conditions, 'ethology' is a combination of laboratory and fieldwork studies, which looks at animal behaviour under natural conditions as providing insights for understanding human behaviour. Work in ethology resulted in many contributions in understanding behaviour in new ways by comparative psychologists, and renowned writers and scholars from other disciplines such as Richard Dawkins (2006), Jane Goodall (1988, 2002), Desmond Morris (1969; 1967) and Frans de Waal (2008; 2006, 2010, 2001; 2009).

In the 1970s there was increasing interest in socio-biological aspects in the study of human behaviour. The catalyst for this was the publication of *Sociobiology: The New Synthesis* by Edward Wilson (1975). It proved highly controversial, mostly because of the political implications inherent in the assumptions behind this theory: it attempted to explain the evolutionary technicalities behind social behaviours such as altruism and aggression. In the contemporary scientific studies of behaviour there are a variety of approaches that work in complementary fashion to each other in addressing what can be learnt about human beings from animals and evolutionary development: comparative psychology (which looks at the comparison of human behaviour to that of selected

[6] This epoch is characterised by the world's most recent repeated glaciations that lasted from about around two and a half million years ago to almost 12,000 years ago.

[7] Cognitive psychology is a branch of psychology concerned with mental processes (as perception, thinking, learning, and memory) especially with respect to the internal events occurring between sensory stimulation and the overt expression of behaviour.

other species), ethology[8], behavioural ecology[9] and sociobiology[10]. In its human applications sociobiology became known as 'evolutionary psychology' (Wilson, 2012), but possesses important differences, not least that it focuses on behaviour as opposed to psychology *per se*.

### 1.2 Definition of 'evolutionary psychology'

The work of each of these disciplines laid the foundations for evolutionary psychology. In its simplest form, as Barkow et.al., (1995, p.3) observe,

> Evolutionary psychology is simply psychology that is informed by the additional knowledge that evolutionary biology has to offer, in the expectation that understanding the process that designed the human mind will advance the discovery of its architecture (Barkow, Cosmides, & Tooby, 1995, p. 3).

From the 1980s scholars began to work on new ideas in this area (Barkow et al., 1995; Buss, 1995a, 1995b, 2009, 2012; Confer et al., 2010; Cosmides & Tooby, 1987; Cosmides & Tooby, 1997; Daly & Wilson, 1999; Pinker, 1997, 2002), arriving at the ground-breaking conclusion that human behaviour is the result of the interaction of inbuilt psychological mechanisms or architecture and observed environmental cues. This work embodied a completely new way of looking at the human mind to that of the traditional view of the mind as 'a blank slate' or *tabula rasa* which is passively shaped by culture. The subject of evolutionary psychology is, however, still in its infancy, having only taken off since the mid-1990s with the publication of *The Adapted Mind – Evolutionary Psychology and the Generation of Culture* (Barkow et al., 1995) which was based on evidence gathered over a 30-year period from a number of disciplines. Evolutionary psychology is argued to be a scientific approach to understanding human behaviour by drawing on rigorous testing methods in psychology (including genetic methods and brain imaging) and other fields such as palaeontology, comparative analysis of other species, ethnography and archaeology (Confer et al., 2010). Evolutionary psychologists also benefited immensely from recent breakthroughs in the fields of cognitive science, neuroscience and behaviour genetics. These latter fields are important as they help to bridge the gap between biology and mind.

Within the evolutionary psychology perspective, many proponents consider the mind as operating as an information processing centre and describe how the brain operates. For this reason, most psychological mechanisms are explained in information processing terms, giving a full picture of why and how the nervous system possesses certain functions. The brain is considered to comprise a large number of modules or functionally specialised cognitive systems that are domain-specific and contain hardwired knowledge about the information being processed. This is explained by the metaphor of a Swiss army knife. Tooby & Cosmides (1997) claim that 'our modern skulls house a

[8] Ethology is the scientific and objective study of animal behaviour especially under natural conditions.
[9] Behavioural ecology is the study of the evolutionary basis for animal behaviour due to ecological pressures.
[10] Sociobiology is the comparative study of the biological basis of social organisation and behaviour in animals and humans especially with regard to their genetic basis and evolutionary history.

stone age mind' and describe this as modules that are units of mental processing that operate through various brain circuits that are specialised to solve different adaptive problems.

In looking at natural selection, evolutionary theory postulates that designs are selected by nature and this is dependent on how well an organism is designed to solve a particular reproductive or survival challenge (Buss, 1995a; Dunbar, 2008; Dunbar & Barrett, 2007). These challenges are also known as 'adaptive problems', which whilst traditionally have been applied to the body, can also explain the origins of psychological and behavioural adaptions in humans and non-human animals. Examples of these include evolutionary threats such as snakes, spiders, heights and strangers, which are fears that are consistently common across cultures. Furthermore, psychological adaptions often interact with each other to produce adaptive behaviour (Confer et al., 2010). Seemingly in contrast to the more competitive ideas of natural selection is 'inclusive fitness' which is an evolutionary biology theory that altruism and cooperation, such as relatives helping each other, can lead to improved genetic success. As part of this theory, the reproduction of genes is viewed as increasing when others with copies of the same genes are helped to survive and reproduce (Buss, 2012).

There are three assumptions implicit in an influential model of evolutionary psychology proposed by Barkow et al. (1995) in *The Adapted Mind,* which lays out the blueprint for the research paradigm of evolutionary psychology. An important implication of these assumptions is that societal ills occur due to a mismatch between our current context and Pleistocene hardwiring:

1. **Universal human nature**

   Human beings are born with a particular set of abilities and knowledge linked to the nervous system. They are known as 'psychological mechanisms' and are functionally specific to solving an adaptive problem from the evolutionary past. There are a large number of these mechanisms in the brain, each one designed to solve a specific problem. Natural and sexual selection mechanisms are operative in this process, which determines which design works best for an organism. The way that humans behave is determined directly by these psychological mechanisms, with cultural differences influencing some of these behaviours after the fact (Barkow et al., 1995; Buss, 2012).

2. **Psychological mechanisms as adaptions**

   The human mind is like a complex network of specialised computers that have developed over time in response to the various survival or reproductive challenges they faced. Human beings' minds adapted to their environment in this way in the same way as the rest of their bodies, and thousands of functionally specialised psychological mechanisms or modules came into being. Each of these mechanisms was designed to perform a specific function, such as learning a language or memorising (Barkow et al., 1995; Buss, 2012).

3. **Response to Pleistocene problems**

   Most of the changes occurred in Pleistocene times when adaptive problems, which were directly related to survival or reproduction, might have included the avoidance of dangerous animals or poisonous plants, but is likely to have also included many adaptive problems that involved social issues such as the selection of a mate, sexual infidelity, language acquisition, cooperation, friendship, kinship, or parental investment (Buss, 2012; Confer et al., 2010).

### 1.3 Human nature and the evolutionary psychology perspective

Because of the pervasive 'blank slate' philosophy underlying behaviourism, little attention was given to other ideas about human nature until the last few decades of the 20th century. Other than a few scholars such as William James, the field of psychology failed to take Darwinist accounts of human behaviour seriously (Cartwright, 2000). James believed that human beings possessed a large number of 'instincts' that were in conflict with each other, but could influence each other and be impacted by experience.

However, from the 1960s scholars and researchers from many other disciplines began to explore human nature, influencing the evolution of the evolutionary psychology conception of human nature. For instance, ethologist and zoologist Desmond Morris (1967) published *The Naked Ape: a Zoologist's study of the Human as an revolutionised animal* which highlighted man's animalistic characteristics and our similarities to the apes. His sequel (Morris, 1969) took this further by examining the behaviour of humans in large complex societies, and pointed to the similarities of their behaviour to that of animals in captivity. Wilson (2012, p. x) argued that human nature is:

> … composed of complex biases of passion and learning propensities often loosely referred to as instincts. These instincts were created over millions of years, when human beings were Palaeolithic hunter-gatherers. As a consequence they still bear the archaic imprint of our species biological heritage.

Wilson (1998) claimed that the time had come for all the sciences to work together to understand human nature better, introducing the first scientific arguments against the 'blank slate' concept of human nature. With the advent of human sociobiology, anthropologists drew on social and biological sciences to explain 'natural man' by studying contemporary 'traditional' societies as representatives of ancient hunter gather societies, but in the 1990s anthropologists found a new 'surrogate' for natural man – the chimpanzee (Marks, 2002). Primatologists and comparative psychologists believe that it is useful to look to the apes for clues about how and why human beings behave the way they do (Pierce & White, 1999). Whilst some scholars and writers describe more violent tendencies and the dark side of human nature (Wrangham & Peterson, 1996), others provide a more balanced perspective of the nature of the apes in attempting to understand human nature (DeWaal, 2006, 2010, 2001; DeWaal et al., 2009; Goodall, 1988). De Waal (2010), for instance, claims that empathy is as important as selfishness as human characteristics. This approach is reflected in the work of Barash

(2002) who suggests that because we share a common ancestor with chimpanzees and bonobos ,it is useful to look at the behaviour of the apes in understanding human behaviour. The behaviour of each of these species is very different: while chimpanzees are known for their violent tendencies, bonobos are characterised as making love, not war (Barash, 2013). Research shows that the differences in behaviour between bonobos and chimpanzees may lie in the developmental delay of social behaviour and cognition, and further study in this regard could offer insights about the evolution of humans (Wobber, Wrangham, & Hare, 2010). Unlike our closest living relative, the chimpanzee, Diamond (1991, p. 2) proposes that humans 'underwent some small changes with big consequences rather quickly and recently in our evolutionary history', and that it is important to understand ourselves so that we can better understand the way we behave.

A central tenet of evolutionary psychology is that a universal human nature exists (Barash, 2002; Barkow et al., 1995; Buss, 2009, 2012; Cartwright, 2000; Confer et al., 2010; Pinker, 1997, 2002, 2012; Tybur & Griskevicius, 2013; Wright, 1996, 2010). This means that the numerous psychological mechanisms that have developed in each person across the planet are the result of natural selection over millions of years in response to challenges faced by our hunter-gatherer ancestors. In this way evolution preserves those genes that improve inclusive fitness. Each human being is born with functionally specific mental architecture that is complex and designed to address adaptive problems, and these psychological mechanisms are considered by evolutionary psychologists to represent the core of human nature. This is in contrast to other theories of personality which hypothesise, for instance, that motives for sex and aggression (Freud) or self-actualisation (Maslow) are the central features (Buss, 1995a).

It is the similarities rather than the differences across the globe that are of interest to evolutionary psychologists, and they contend that there are recurring patterns of behaviour present across all societies (Wright, 2010). Those in this field hold that behaviours or traits that occur universally in all cultures, such as smiling, are good candidates for evolutionary adaptations as they are likely to have a genetic component – making them a part of human nature. In his book *Human Universals*, Donald Brown (1991) defines human universals as comprising 'those features of culture, society, language, behaviour, and psyche for which there are no known exception', providing a list of 67 items.

There are likely to be thousands of information processing mechanisms in the human head, each of them specific to an adaptive problem. Evolutionary psychologists seek to explain these mechanisms by looking at the adaptive problem, which in turn sheds light on human behaviour. From an evolutionary psychology point of view, a review of the literature about human nature shows an abundance of work that has been carried out (especially since the late 1980s) on understanding sexual behaviour and co-operation in particular, but also on understanding our moral sense – indeed as noted by Markóczy and Goldberg (1998, p. 389) 'EP is mostly, but not entirely, about social and

sexual psychology'. This is perhaps unsurprising considering that we differ from most other species in the extent of our dependence on cooperation (Silk, 2007).

Wright (1996) explains how evolutionary psychology goes a long way to explaining human nature. For instance, he suggests that there are good explanations for the stereotypical dynamics of the 'three big S's': sex, siblings, and society. Wright (2010) also points to the invisible aspects of human nature, the parts that are taken for granted within ourselves and the individual differences that we learn as we grow up. Another aspect that appears to have been hidden through natural selection is introspection: our conscious selves remain separate from our unconscious selves. This unconsciousness of ourselves can deceive us about the high level of complexity that is involved in the way that our mind is designed (Cosmides & Tooby, 1997). In fact, Cosmides and Tooby argue that we take the way our minds work for granted, and that we need to do what William James suggested: to make the 'natural seem strange'.

Understanding adaptive problems means looking at those problems governed by our limbic system- which Hantula (Kock et al., 2008, p. 136) calls 'the famous four f's (fighting, fleeing, feeding, and fornicating)'. In looking at adaptive problems and the psychological solutions that have evolved to solve them, Buss (2012) lists survival, mating (selecting, attracting and keeping one's choice of mate), kinship and children, and then broader social issues (aggression, co-operation, conflict between the sexes and social status). Other texts highlight these same issues but also include perception and language, environmental aesthetics (Wright, 2010), reciprocity and exploitation, foraging strategies and spatial cognition (Daly & Wilson, 1999). Dunbar (2011b) is known for having formulated 'Dunbar's number', a measurement of the number of people an individual can have stable relationships with from a cognitive perspective. Amongst several others, Dunbar has also published on social relationships, the evolution of language, and the role that gossip plays in strengthening social relationships (Dunbar, 2011a). Overall, the chief areas of research within evolutionary psychology can be categorised as adaptive problems arising from the theory of evolution: survival, mating, parenting, family and kinship, interactions with non-kin, and cultural evolution. Each of these categories is depicted in ***Table 1***, with the main areas of research within evolutionary psychology listed.

### 1.4 Criticism yet application in many disciplines

Despite mounting scientific evidence in support of this paradigm, over the past two decades there has been a great deal of resistance to the evolutionary psychology theoretical framework, especially those who oppose the claims of this radical body of knowledge from a scientific point of view (Buller, 2005; Gould, 1991; Gould & Lewontin, 1979; Lewontin, 2001; Lewontin, Rose, & Kamin, 1984; Rose & Rose, 2010). Several are concerned with the far-reaching political and social implications such as claims of superiority regarding race or gender which might be embraced because of this theory (Hull,

2013; Stewart-Williams & Thomas, 2013), whilst some suggest that criticism is merely based on ideological differences (Nicholson & White, 2006).

| Main area of research | Sub-categories |
|---|---|
| Survival | Foraging strategies<br>Spatial cognition<br>Perception<br>Language<br>Environmental aesthetics |
| Reproduction | Selecting, attracting and keeping a mate |
| Kinship and family | Children and parenting |
| Social issues | Interactions with non-kin<br>Aggression and warfare<br>Co-operation<br>Reciprocity<br>Exploitation<br>Conflict between the sexes<br>Social status<br>Size of community and Dunbar's number<br>Gossip<br>Cultural evolution |

Source: Various

**Table 1: Evolutionary psychology's main areas of research: adaptive problems arising from the theory of evolution**

Furthermore, there are acknowledged constraints within the discipline: certain empirical occurrences are unable to be explained (such as suicide and homosexuality), there is a paucity of detailed information about past adaptive pressures, and there is inadequate justification for cultural and individual differences (Confer et al., 2010). It has been argued that the logic of evolutionary psychology theory has been easily misunderstood (Dunbar, 2008), although this has become less common with clarification (Confer et al., 2010; Dunbar, 2008). Notwithstanding this criticism, publications from various disciplines (Beckstrom, 1993; Crawford & Krebs, 2008; Crawford & Krebs, 2013; Crawford & Salmon, 2004; Griskevicius, Cantu, & Van Vugt, 2012; Roberts, 2012; Roberts, Van Vugt, & Dunbar, 2012; Van Vugt, 2008) offer detailed explanations of how evolutionary psychology can provide insight into the way that humans behave, and how this knowledge can be used to achieve broad social goals – or even social change. Looking at examples of social issues, for instance, it can be applied to the individual (Burgess, 2005), the family (Cox, 2010; Gurven, 2010), the relationship between step-parents and children (Daly & Wilson, 1985, 1998) and mate preferences (Roberts, 2010). There is also work on the application at a broader societal level, examples of which include environmental problems like transportation, water conservation, recycling and charity support and community cohesion (Buunk & Van Vugt, 2008; Van Vugt, Snyder, Tyler, & Biel, 2000), evolutionary medicine and pregnancy (Roberts, 2012; Roberts et al., 2012); education (Bjorklund & Bering, 2002; Geary, 2012), and the justice system (Petersen, Sellb, Tooby, & Cosmides, 2012).

# Appendix G: Australian Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme (5 Days)

This outline provides the basic details of the Hardwired Humans Zoo programme when it is run over five days.

## Day 1

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials |
|---|---|---|
| Welcome and introductions | Business context<br>Icebreaker | |
| Human instincts | The 9 instincts of humans | Laminate |
| Chimpanzee instincts | Patterns of social species in Nature | Guest speaker or video<br>Visit the apes (if at a zoo) |
| Seeing the patterns | How are we similar, different and what organisation behaviours now make more sense | Pages 12–13 of Human Instincts section |
| Organisation design | Using natural principles to design for function<br>The 6 design principles | Example organisations page 7 or Organisation Design section<br>Playing cards for design<br>Page 11 of Org Design section – a quiz on your organisation |
| Leadership of Humans | Fresh insight into leadership roles<br>From the 9 instincts what is the special role of leaders<br>Leaders as enablers | Harvard Business Review article<br>Page 1 of Leadership of Humans section |
| Persuasion and influence | Speed in which people classify<br>First 7 words | Scenarios<br>Page 4 of Persuasion and Influence section |
| Performance feedback | A better way by knowing about instincts | Role plays<br>Page 7 of Performance Feedback section |

# Day 2

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials |
|---|---|---|
| Check-in | Reflections overnight<br>The gossip test | |
| Observing instincts | Being familiar with spotting the instincts | Newspaper clippings |
| Performance feedback | Continuing<br>Personal reflection | Role plays<br>Page 5 of Performance Management section – the Rigo (silverback) scale |
| Gossip, cliques and team dynamics | Role of gossip and grooming<br>Understanding team dynamics<br>Role of leader | Page 9 of Gossip and Grooming section<br>Page 5 of Gossip section |
| Empathy and individuals | Humans with sense of self and how we read other people<br>Managers lead at the team level and down to the individual level<br>Importance of 1:1 reviews | Page 2 of Empathy for Individual section<br>Page 4–5 of Empathy section |
| Change management | Conventional wisdom is wrong – that “people resist change”<br>We would always have expected our leaders to lead us in response to changes in our external environment | Worksheet Page 2 of Change Management section<br>Example scenarios for applying human instincts to lead change well |
| Leadership | Cycle back to fresh insight into role of leaders<br>What attributes cause others to follow a leader<br>The paradox of leading non-family (from the savannah) | Page 2–3 of Leadership of Humans section |
| Learnings and reflections | What did we learn?<br>How do you plan to apply? | Playing pieces for syndicates<br>Prime participants for sharing examples next time |

# Day 3

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials |
|---|---|---|
| Sharing examples | Each person shares by way of example how they have applied the knowledge since last time – applied learning and sharing from others | |
| Performance management | The dilemma if we don't manage performance well<br>Performance conversations<br>Reducing emotion | Harvard Business Review case |
| Goal setting | Conversations that have positive emotion | |
| Leadership scenarios | Challenging situations – using human instincts to manage well | Scenarios or ones tailored to organisation |
| Management systems | Making sense of why we invented certain systems (e.g. Appraisals), why they tend not to work and how to use them effectively | Page 1 of Management Systems section |
| Active Constructive Responding | What does a leader do when things go well – only one response adds to a quality relationship | Page 9 of Empathy for Individuals section |
| First 7 Words | Refresh on the subject and apply to workplace scenarios | Page 5 of Persuasion and Influence section |

# Day 4

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials |
|---|---|---|
| Sharing examples | Each person shares by way of example how they have applied the knowledge since last time – applied learning and sharing from others | |
| Engagement review | Share findings from a review of team's engagement (conducted since day 3 for each leader) | |
| Leadership narrative | What stories do people tell about you as a leader<br>What leader have you worked for who led well – what stories were told | *Page 12–13 of Gossip and Grooming section*<br><br>*Page 2 of Gossip and Grooming section* |
| Reasons for gossip | The 4 reasons why people gossip<br>What should leaders do | Gossip memo and mobile phone cards |
| Gossip and team dynamics | Understanding team dynamics from gossip<br>What may and caused and what should the leader do | Scenario<br><br>Page 10 of Gossip and Grooming section |
| Power | Dominance and submission in groups<br>Leader using power well | *Page 6–7 of Leadership of Humans section* |
| Leadership scenarios | Challenging situations – using human instincts to manage well | Scenarios or ones tailored to organisation |
| Positivity ratio | The conditions under which humans flourish | *Page 7–8 of Empathy for Individuals section* |
| Recognising instincts | How to use instincts to recognise what's going on<br>What should the leader do | Barclays case as pre-reading |

# Day 5

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials |
|---|---|---|
| Change management | Applying what we have learned<br>Using instincts to lead change harmoniously<br>Consolidating the knowledge and use of the 9 instincts | Savannah simulation game (4 hours) |
| Change scenarios | Taking the learnings from the savannah simulation<br>Apply to scenarios of the organisation | Scenarios |
| Graduation | Members of the executive join the group<br>Group shares what they have learned and how they have applied<br>Share shift in leadership profile if a leadership profile was used | Page 12–13 of Gossip and Grooming section<br>Page 2 of Gossip and Grooming section |

# Appendix H: Australian Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme (2 Days)[11]

This is the detailed 2-day Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme, which as several common features throughout including:

- Fast pace to keep focus and encourage engagement
- U-shape seating encourages face-to-face communication with 12-14 participants, no one is on the outside
- Small syndicate groups of not more than 3–4 to optimise participation
- Zoo location is used for various reasons – helps to unpack the primate metaphor and to illustrate the zoological perspective of humans, the unusual location reinforces the learning because it is interesting, involves a sense of humour and has a positive emotional connotation linked to happy childhood visits

| Content | Method | Pedagogical rationale |
|---|---|---|
| **PRE-TRAINING** | | |
| **Challenges relevant to the organisation**<br>**Two underlying concepts: human instincts and the reason for the zoo** | Needs analysis undertaken in person with HR representative | • Analysis of organisational needs ensures relevance of training content<br>• Brief introduction to two key underlying concepts of the programme |
| **What is important and of value to the individual** | 20-minute telephone conversation to each participant | • Influence the participant's "first impressions"<br>• Establish personal connection<br>• Tailor facilitation to needs of individuals |
| **DAY ONE** | | |
| **Icebreaker** | Small groups, each person shares something about themselves that no-one else would know | • Gives something to talk about in breaks |
| **The nine human instincts as a 'people framework'** | Presentation using stories and pictures | • Stories and pictures offer memorable accounts of each instinct<br>• Resonates as it is familiar and meaningful<br>• Interesting as unusual yet offers a new 'lens' to |

[11] Over time Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans has shifted the format of this programme from 2-days to include follow-up days in a 3-, 4- or 5-day format, so that learning can be reinforced primarily through the sharing of examples of application.

| Content | Method | Pedagogical rationale |
|---|---|---|
| | Stone-age man metaphor<br><br>Each participant given an A4 laminate of all nine human instincts<br>Binders with reading material<br><br>Small groups coming up with ideas about how the human species would be described in a zoo enclosure – and report back to plenary | understand people<br>• Relevant as is practically useful<br>• Metaphor unpacks the evolutionary psychology idea of human behaviour being hardwired<br><br>• Only given out half-way through Day 1 to minimise distraction and keep fast pace<br>• Creates insight regarding the idea of human instincts as the report back to plenary almost always matches up to the nine human instincts |
| **Chimpanzee instincts**<br><br>Chimpanzee characteristics and behaviour of particular individuals<br><br>Jane Goodall's life and scientific work with chimpanzees and aims of her Institute | Held at zoo location<br><br>Primate and zoo metaphor used<br><br>Presentation by primate zookeeper using stories about particular chimpanzees<br><br>Talk by Jane Goodall Foundation representative<br>Observation of primates in Zoo enclosure | • Interesting as it is unusual<br>• Beautiful surroundings to stimulate aesthetic sense<br>• Offers an 'open space' to think new things<br>• Offers connection to nature/primates<br>• Unpacking of primate metaphor shows that human behaviour is similar to that of primates<br>• Creates insight based on the patterns in Nature for social species<br>• Unpacking of zoo metaphor enables a zoological view of humans<br>• Practical hands-on experience with primates offers credibility and interest<br>• Personalisation of primate individual stories engages<br>• Offers scientific support for the ideas in the programme regarding human instincts, chimpanzee instincts and evolutionary psychology<br>• Gives opportunity for physical reminder of primate similarity to humans |

| Content | Method | Pedagogical rationale |
|---|---|---|
| **Seeing the patterns**[12] – understanding human nature by comparing chimp and human behaviour and the organisational behaviour that now makes sense | Small groups of three to discuss similarities and differences – shared in plenary | • Questions for syndicate work revealed before chimp talk so people are informed as to what to listen for<br>• Brainstorm syndicates to gather insight and reflection<br>• Syndicates team of 3–4 people only per human gossip group so everyone can have their say |
| **Organisational design** – 6 principles[13] for organisational design based on natural concepts | Stories<br>Syndicate groups of four asked to look at three specific organisational design examples – asked to redesign using human instinct principles using cards representing different components of the design<br>Plenary debrief<br>Quiz assessing the design of own organisation[14]<br>Review of an example in plenary | • Offer memorable examples of human instincts in practice<br>• Moving on from concept to practice<br>• Application of theory to a key design decision<br>• Hands-on for involvement and puzzles to be solved (as what the executive did in real life will be revealed) |
| **Leadership and management**<br><br>How do people make sense of events at work and what do leaders need to do to create positive motivation and high output | Syndicate teams of 4 looked at three obligations of 3 human instincts as regards leadership<br>Findings shared in plenary so all 9 instincts were covered | |
| | Discussion of pre-reading: *HBR* Inner Work Life article[15] | • Article aligns closely with human instincts and gets participants reflecting – seeing the interplay of emotions and impressions on motivation and performance<br>• Seeking to make concrete the way leaders can use |

[12] Knowing the patters of a social species helps make better sense of people's behaviour including our own.
[13] 1) family-size teams of around 7, 2) line of sight of the leader – around 7 reporting to leader, 3) leader most powerful but otherwise power evenly distributed, 4) gain a sense of belonging in clans of up to 150, 5) avoid matrix reporting, 6) preference for geographical reporting as we are a face-reading species.
[14] This is a brief quiz in the Hardwired Humans manual that assesses your organisation according to 8 factors: family-sized teams, clarity of belonging, line of sight, power distributed, clans, matrix, geographic and control.
[15] The reference for this article is Amabile, T.M. and Kramer, S.J. (2007). Inner work life: understanding the subtext of business performance, *Harvard Business Review*, 85(5).

| Content | Method | Pedagogical rationale |
|---|---|---|
| | | the 9 instincts to inform their leadership activities |
| **Persuasion and influence**[16]<br>First seven words concept<br>Elements of the first seven words | Stories and pictures used to explain concept<br>Example of famous politician – story and picture<br>Individual exercise to use first 7 words to persuade airline staff member to change flight<br>Working in pairs to apply the first seven words in a number of workplace situations<br>De-brief – participants asked to give one word which captured their key learning | • Makes participants remember<br>• Memorable concept<br>• Built from a non-work exercise to work-related exercises<br>• First exercise done individually so all participants have to apply themselves<br>• Next exercises done in pairs – for discussion and efficiency and variation |
| **DAY TWO** | | |
| **Learnings from the day** | Key reflections discussed in plenary, participants asked what their main take-away was | • Participants realise that they see themselves and others differently<br>• Helps managers to make good choices<br>• Can help to separate fads from enduring practices at work |
| **Giving negative feedback** | Use A4 laminate to identify what instincts make it difficult for leaders to give negative feedback<br>Role play in pairs – manager and staff member<br>Debrief<br>Role-play run again switching roles<br>Debrief | • A subject that most managers find challenging<br>• Brief discussion on the laminate to explain the challenge<br>• Role play allows practice in a safe environment<br>• Role play in pairs at same time (not on show) so also safe |

[16] Participants are provided with 7 principles that apply when choosing the first 7 words: 1) specific, 2) plain language, 3) truthful, 4) single concept, 5) emotional, 6) no jargon, 7) the narrative which provides a theme for ongoing discussion.

| Content | Method | Pedagogical rationale |
|---|---|---|
| Primate three-step disciplinary process | Story about a particular primate | • First role play without concepts developed so learning enhanced in the debrief prior to second role play with more knowledge |
| **Gossip, cliques and team dynamics** | Discussion of various vocal capabilities – social chit-chat<br>Groups of three discuss the impact of an email from the CEO regarding a restructure and how gossip was expected to unfold<br>Use of mock mobile phone with possible messages that would be sent – groups asked to identify 4 reasons why gossip would be occurring<br>Example given of 'gossip map'[17] – a circle representing the team where lines are drawn to each person in the team<br>Each individual draws on gossip map<br>Gossip test exercise which involves determining what one wants people to talk about afterwards[18] | • Memo on a restructure that most people recognise<br>• Immediate appreciation of why people would gossip and the reasons for doing so<br>• Mobile phones add humour and reality<br>• Making sense of the informal way in which teams work<br>• Early in the exercise people become aware that soon they will be drawing their team's gossip map – so suddenly exercise becomes real<br>• For each individual this shows which of their relationships within a team are strong and which are not |
| **Change management** | Discussion about why change is not resisted, but loss aversion[19] is hardwired<br>Working in teams discussing various scenarios of real situations | • The framework becomes a predictable model of people's behaviour<br>• Actual examples of leaders who have used human instincts to manage change so the actual outcome |

[17] This involves drawing the 'grooming' dynamics of your team. A large circle is drawn with small circles on the outside representing each person in the team including yourself as the leader. Lines are drawn connecting up each person to the other, representing the strength of the relationship between the team members. Those with a thick line represent a particularly strong relationship, a thin line a reasonably strong relationship, and no line represents 'no real connection'.

[18] In this exercise participants capture their reflections on what they want people to say about various leadership activities and how close the desired state is to the current reality.

[19] The most important human instinct to help understand change is 'loss aversion'. This is because when humans first hear about change they feel compelled to make sense of the change, and how it might affect them, and thus classify the change into 'gain' or 'loss'. If they are unsure of what might happen, they tend to default to 'loss'. The evolutionary psychology rationale is that we are wired to protect ourselves against danger.

| Content | Method | Pedagogical rationale |
|---|---|---|
| | | can be shared |
| **Empathy**<br>Importance of managers knowing and connecting at an individual level | Identifies the key subjects (usually 5-6 subjects) that someone needs to know about someone else to know them well (their identity)<br><br>Plenary discussion about effectiveness of regular catch-ups | • Challenges some managers' worldview that they don't need to know people personally<br>• Covers a specific leadership activity – in how leaders decide to use their time |
| **Management systems** | Plenary discussion of performance appraisals as an example, and the instincts that resulted in conventional performance systems<br>Plenary discussion of a preferred design based on human nature | • Makes sense of a common frustration in organisational life (the performance appraisal system) |
| **Learnings from the past two days** | Learning quiz – each of three groups making up 3 questions about the content of the programme<br>Each person sharing one key take-away and an action they planned to take to apply the learnings | • High action – people go through the manual to develop their questions. More active than just going through to reflect<br>• Fun activity – always plenty of laughs<br>• The top 10 points of learning come through in the questions and answers |

# Appendix I: Human instincts A4 laminate provided to Hardwired Humans Zoo programme participants

This is the A4 laminate given during the Zoo programme by O'Keeffe to all participants so that they are able to take it back to the workplace to remind them of the learning.

Hardwired Humans
Designing people strategies based on human instincts

## Hardwired Human Instincts

| THINKING AND FEELING - How Humans Think and Feel | |
|---|---|
| Emotions Before Reason | Humans trust their emotional instincts above all else and use emotions as their first screen for all information received. We hear negative news first and loudest. |
| First Impressions to Classify | Humans quickly classify people, situations and experiences into categories (good or bad, in or out) based on first impressions and "gut-feelings", rather than engage in time-consuming analysis. |
| Loss Aversion | Humans seek to avoid loss and risky situations but fight frantically when feeling threatened. We explore and are curious about the world around us when we feel safe. |
| Confidence Before Realism | Humans radiate confidence to move forward in the world, often denying what is realistic. We allow confidence to conquer realism to get what we want. |
| Gossip | Humans are hardwired to seek and share information. We share information with others we like and use it to build alliances. We love to tell and hear stories. |
| Empathy and Mind Reading | Humans utilise empathy and mind reading to build relationships, be friendly and gather information. |
| Contest and Display | Humans seek to impress others and to demonstrate their worth as a means to gain advantages. We spend inordinate amounts of time and energy making ourselves look good in various ways. |
| **SOCIAL LIVING - How Humans Live** | |
| Social Belonging | Humans desire strong bonds within family-sized groups of around 7 people and gain a sense of belonging in clans of up to 150. |
| Hierarchy and Status | Humans seek superiority or security in hierarchical systems. We seek status symbols, recognition and elevation within the hierarchy. |

**Source**: Nigel Nicholson, **Managing The Human Animal,** Texere Publishing, UK, 2000 and Nigel Nicholson, 'How Hardwired is Human Behaviour?' in **Harvard Business Review**, July 1998

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# Appendix J: Hardwired Humans Life Styles Inventory™ (LSI)[20]

This is a short case-study that shows the impact of the Hardwired Humans Programme on one of its clients, Metro Trains, through the use of a leadership measuring tool, the LSI.
See overleaf for the 3 page report.

[20] See http://www.human-synergistics.com.au/Files/Case%20Studies/Case%20Study%20-%20Metro%20Trains%20-%20October%202014.pdf and http://www.human-synergistics.com.au/Solutions/DevelopingIndividuals/LifeStylesInventoryIndividual.aspx.

# Appendix K: Australian Hardwired Humans Zoo Programme: Participant Observation (23-24 July 2013)

This is a description of a two-day Hardwired Humans Zoo programme in July 2013. It was open to the public, thus a number of organisations and representatives attended. It also includes a brief overview of what is entailed in the 3rd, 4th and 5th days of training, although this was not part of this programme.

In July 2013 Hardwired Humans hosted a two-day public training session at Taronga Zoo. There were 12 people attending including myself. Three of the participants were from a large organisation that is a long-standing client, two leaders from a New Zealand agri-chemical business, an owner of an Albury manufacturing business, an owner of a Sydney insurance business, a leader of an IT business and three leaders of separate small consulting firms. The main training room was arranged in a U-shape so that the facilitator, O'Keeffe, could stand facing the participants with the large screen and white-boards behind him.

The view from the balcony leading off from this room was eye-catching; a glorious panoramic vision of Sydney Harbour. This room was part of the Taronga Zoo Function Centre, located on the top edge of the zoo. Outside of the main training room was a larger room, also with the harbour view, and it was used to provide refreshments and meals, and as a place in which syndicate groups could work.

O'Keeffe held the view that participants should not have too much to read in the training room itself as this can become a distraction and slows the pace, and giving out the workshop binder before the first key brainstorming exercise would diminish the value of that exercise and the insight of self-discovery. For this reason he only gave out the Hardwired Humans workshop binder entitled 'Human Instincts at Work – designing people strategies based on human instincts' half way through Day One. O'Keeffe kicked off the programme by referring to it as a 'people framework' talking about the outcome involved: a 'practical dimension so that human nature makes so much more sense'. The learning objectives were listed as follows:

- Why people behave as they do at work;
- Apply the insight to practical topics;
- Enhance your personal effectiveness; and
- Carry a framework for quick, effective people decisions.

The programme outline for the two days that was provided, with O'Keeffe presenting all sections other than the one on chimpanzee instincts - which was presented by the Jane Goodall Institute representative and the primate zookeeper.

*Day One*

In the first 15 minutes of the programme, O'Keeffe welcomed the group, providing the rationale for the programme and how it fitted with business context. As part of the welcome he explained that 'people' are the reason organisation life is so complex, and that this is the factor that most affected organisational performance. He explained further that it is useful to have a framework of human behaviour in order to understand better why people behave as they do and to make more informed leadership choices. After providing the programme outline, O'Keeffe asked each participant to introduce themselves. He requested that each gave their name, role, and an interest they had that people who knew them well would know about them. He did this so that they shared some information about themselves, rather than merely absorbing, and he felt that it also drew on one of the human instincts, i.e. 'Empathy and mind reading'. This activity worked well as an ice-breaker, and provided a topic of conversation during breaks later on in the programme.

In this first half an hour spent on the 'Welcome and Introduction' section, O'Keeffe first made use of story and pictures – he showed a picture of a baby and explained that when a baby human comes into the world it has a package of natural behaviours that makes it human. He then talked about common frustrations for leaders and that these frustrations can only be explained by human nature. He shared the key concept that through the long journey of human history we have only recently moved into offices and factories through the Industrial Revolution – in the Western world – around 250 years ago. He showed a series of pictures of life as a tribal person and a modern organisational person. He introduced the concept of humans as a social species and the comparison to chimpanzees as the next most similar species. He completed this section by requesting the participants to form groups of three and consider *Homo sapiens* on display in the zoo; what would be the behaviour on a poster alongside the exhibit? Their ideas about what the natural behaviours were then shared with the wider group and recorded on a white board. O'Keeffe observed to the group, 'You have pretty much identified the framework!' This was an important activity that encouraged buy-in to the idea of human instincts.

He then distributed a laminate of the nine instincts, giving credit to Nigel Nicholson, 'The framework we use comes from Professor Nigel Nicholson of the London Business School. Professor Nicholson identifies nine instincts that make us human. The sheet is laminated so you can use it for the rest of your careers!'

O'Keeffe led into the hour-section presenting on the nine hardwired human instincts with a personal journey story about how he discovered and used the value of human instincts. He then provided a snapshot of the nine instincts 'to give participants a working knowledge'. He presented on each instinct, and in each case drew on story and pictures to illustrate his explanations: in some cases he used as many as five pictures. After explaining the 9 instincts he encouraged personal insight with

the aim of making the link from the explanation of instincts so participants personalised the meaning and the relevance. In order to do this he requested each participant to select an instinct that resonated most strongly for them, and why it resonated.

The next two hours were spent listening to a presentation about chimpanzee behaviour and observing the chimpanzees in their enclosure. The presentation about the chimpanzees was introduced by the Jane Goodall Institute representative giving a slideshow and talk about Jane Goodall and her early life and work. The primate zookeeper also used a slideshow and talk to discuss chimpanzees and their environment using many stories about the individual chimps that the group was about to see at the exhibit. This was then followed by a visit to the chimpanzee exhibit.

After the lunch break the group was given a half-hour opportunity to crystallise their learnings of human nature through a comparison with chimpanzees. Participants were again split into groups of three to discuss and document the similarities and differences between chimpanzees and humans and also the organisational behaviour that now made sense. The insight was shared with each syndicate group sharing their discoveries. This was followed by the Jane Goodall Institute representative giving a 15-minute presentation about the purpose and work of the Institute, including the 'Roots and Shoots' programme which is aimed at bringing together youth from preschool to university age to work on environmental, conservation and humanitarian issues.

From here O'Keeffe moved the programme from concept to practice. He explained that the concept and framework invariably just makes sense to people, and from the first brainstorm participants felt as if they always knew it to be the case. It was then possible to move to application.

The first application was to organisational design, and this was done over a 45-minute period. O'Keeffe again used the power of story to illustrate his point. After sharing six principles for organisation design based on natural concepts, participants were split up into syndicate groups of four and requested to answer organisational design issues in three specific examples that were provided. The groups were provided playing cards that had the job roles that were the subject of the organisational design challenges and asked to redesign the organisation (usually the top team) using the six human instincts design principles. After a plenary de-brief on each scenario, the participants are provided with a quiz to allow them to assess the design of their own organisation. The design of one of the participant's organisation, the manufacturing company, was reviewed in the plenary session.

After a 15-minute afternoon break, the last section of the day was about persuasion and influence, with O'Keeffe again drawing on two stories to explain the concept in more depth. In this 50-minute session, he introduced the concept of the first seven words (and how people make up their minds about a subject – meeting someone the first time, listening to an idea, walking into a hotel – within

two seconds). To illustrate a 'benchmark example' of the first seven words he showed a picture of Tony Abbott and explained a situation where the then new Australian Federal Opposition leader used the first seven words to persuade the majority of the Australian electorate to his view of carbon emissions trading. To give participants practice in the use of first seven words he challenged participants to complete an individual exercise. The elements involved in 'the first seven words' concept were given: specific, plain language, truthful, single concept, emotional, no jargon and the narrative. In this example, participants were asked to imagine that they needed to change a flight because they wanted to get home early. What would their first seven words be on approaching the airline staff member? The group then worked in pairs to apply the first seven words to a number of workplace situations. For the last session of the day a 15-minute de-brief took place which participants being asked to give one word which captured their key learning.

*Day Two*

The second day of the programme began with a 15-minute check-in on key reflections of the participants overnight – a key take-away from Day One and key thoughts pondered overnight. There were two main responses: 'seeing people differently', and 'seeing ourselves differently'. O'Keeffe explained that the value of human instincts is not just in knowing about them, but in helping leaders make good choices. He further noted that in observing a common behaviour of humans then there is most likely a human-instincts explanation of that behaviour. He also explained that we can separate fads from enduring practices – for instance, hot-desking is not likely to be sustainable as it defies a sense of belonging that is part of human nature.

The first teaching segment of the day was focused on leadership and management. Over the next hour three syndicate teams of four people each were formed to consider the implications of the nine instincts as regards leadership. Each syndicate took three of the nine instincts and answered the question: 'Now that we know we are leading a species with these instincts, what are at least three obligations of each instinct for the role of leaders?' The findings of each syndicate were shared with the broader group so the group had the benefit of hearing about the obligations of leaders arising from all nine instincts. The Inner Work Life article from the Harvard Business Review was discussed next for half an hour, with a particular focus on the way people make sense of events at work and the one thing that leaders most need to do to create positive motivation and high output. O'Keeffe explained that the article was not written from the perspective of human instincts but it aligned closely: 'That is an absolute favourite paper - it just matches that flow of how people process events and what managers most need to do. It is an elegant finding and it is very well received. This article is set as pre-reading, which I think is a good thing, it gets them thinking and reflecting.' (O'Keeffe, 2014)

The next practical application was in the area of giving negative feedback – a common challenge for leaders. O'Keeffe began the 45-minute session by asking participants to look at the laminate and

identify what instincts explain why most leaders find it hard to give negative feedback. Most of the instincts were identified. O'Keeffe led from the discussion to a practical role-play by observing that given the insight into human nature we can learn a better way than conventional practice in giving feedback. Half of the group stayed in the room and the other half of the group was invited to leave the room. The group remaining in the room were to be 'managers' in the scenario that was now distributed in print and they would soon meet in pairs with the 'staff member' outside. The role-play was run and debriefed. O'Keeffe facilitated learnings around the role of emotion and impressions to classify. He linked to the concept of the first seven words from the day before. He also counselled leaders to avoid the conventional practice of 'the feedback sandwich', which is contrary to how humans actually process things. After the discussion a second role-play was run with participants switching roles. A further debrief on the second scenario was run and general concepts were discussed. O'Keeffe also related a story of a group of leaders visiting the gorillas at Melbourne Zoo. They asked the keeper about what the silverback gorilla, Rigo, did when two 'team members' are misbehaving. The keeper replied that Rigo followed a three-step disciplinary process (which is uncannily similar to the good practice of human workplaces where the steps of discipline are of an escalating nature with the purpose of seeking to avoid the ultimate sanction).

Before the lunch-break, the discussion turned to gossip, cliques and team dynamics. Over this 45-minute session O'Keeffe explained various ways in which we use our vocal capability. One key dimension is that every social species grooms, and humans do so in the form of social 'chit chat'. An 'in-box' exercise was run where participants formed into small syndicates and received an email from their CEO announcing the formation of a task force to investigate a restructure. The group was asked to consider their reactions and to imagine the way gossip would unfold in their organisation upon the receipt of such a communication. Partway through the exercise O'Keeffe distributed a mock mobile phone with an SMS message. Five phones were distributed in turn. The phone messages represented the common messages that would likely be sent in such a situation of uncertainty. The syndicate teams were asked to identify at least four reasons why gossip would be occurring in the scenario. He discussed the various elements involved in this section and finished off the section by telling a story.

After lunch O'Keeffe presented the idea of the 'gossip map', which involves drawing a circle, and representing all the people in a team on the edge of the circle to analyse the nature of relationships on a team. In a half-hour session lines were then drawn between the people that talk to each other, with the network of lines showing the strength of relationship amongst the team. The group first makes sense of the example displayed by O'Keeffe and then was asked to draw a gossip map of their own team. A discussion and stories ensued.

After lunch, the next section hour-and-a-half session looked at change management. In the plenary group O'Keeffe explained that conventional thinking about change says that 'people resist change'.

But he elaborated by explaining that that cannot be true, otherwise humans would still be living in caves. He claimed that the better explanation, and indeed one that was influential in his own early experience managing significant organisation change, was that the instinct of loss aversion most explains people's response to change. He suggested that when people hear about a change they have a need to make sense or classify it. If at that moment of seeking to classify they do not yet know the impact for them, then they will tend to assume the worst and hence classify as 'loss'. This understanding of human nature created opportunities for leaders to manage change with more finesse. Participants were requested to work in teams considering different scenarios. The scenarios were of real situations where leaders applied human instincts to manage change effectively and better than what they normally would.

Another half-hour segment was facilitated regarding empathy for individuals – that leaders are not just managing teams, they need to understand and relate to individuals. O'Keeffe encouraged leaders to consider the importance of a manager knowing and connecting to people at an individual level. He also explained the importance of having scheduled regular catch-ups.

After this O'Keeffe talked about management systems in the plenary group. In the 45-minute session he took performance appraisals as an example. The group discussed the instincts that explain why one could have predicted that humans would have invented conventional (ratings) performance systems. And how instincts also explain why most organisations are frustrated with their system and that HR is invariably redesigning their system 'just one more time'. The group discussed a preferred design based on human nature.

The final 45-minute section was on the learnings of the two days. This was done by way of a half-hour learning quiz. Three groups were formed and each group developed three questions on the content of the programme. Once the groups had developed their questions the game was run where teams asked the next team their questions and points were gained for correctly answering the question. For the last 15 minutes of the day each participant was invited to share one key take-away from the human instincts programme and an action that they planned to take to apply the learnings.

**Please Note: Days 3-5 of 5 Day Programme**

The three days shown below were not part of the programme I attended, but are used in addition to the two days described in the 5 day programme. As this programme was not delivered during the period of the empirical research for the PhD, it was not possible to observe them. The following description is compiled from documentary material and interview data from Andrew O'Keeffe and the Hardwired Humans interviews.

Whilst the first two days are held at the zoo, the other three are sometimes held at other venues or at the organisation's offices. On Day Five some of the senior executives are invited for graduation, and it is easier for them to attend if it is at a location close to the organisation.

On Day Three, which is typically held four months after the delivery of Days One and Two, the first activity is for each participant to share an example of how they have applied human instincts learning to the workplace. This is followed by a section on performance reviews, wherein a 16-page (half of which are exhibits) Harvard case study is used: *Rob Parson at Morgan Stanley (A).* In this story one of the main characters has received a negative performance review but is a star performer in terms of the bottom line. O'Keeffe uses this case in the following way: participants would have pre-read the case so he kicks off with a 45-minute plenary discussion of who the main characters are and what the chief challenges are in an attempt to draw out perspectives on the case. He then tells the plenary that the main challenge in the case was dealt with in a certain way and asks participants to role-play the two main characters. The role plays are run in pairs as O'Keeffe sees this as a 'safe' method where everyone is not 'on display'. This is followed by a de-brief so that participants can take the learnings of what it means for them as leaders.

O'Keeffe then holds a session on goal setting, and runs a number of leadership scenarios, some of which are specifically tailored to the organisation. These scenarios look at challenging situations, with the aim of showing how human instincts can be used to manage the situation constructively. These role-plays of leadership scenarios run on Day Three and Four are based on real-life situations. In the case of several of his clients O'Keeffe also makes use of a leadership assessment tool, the LSI from Human Synergistics, and in this case a large mat is placed on the floor that shows the different management styles. As the scenario plays out, one of the participants stands at the relevant marking on the mat which shows that he is trying to manage in 'constructive' mode. The other participants are observers, and at different times O'Keeffe will invite people to 'tag' a player on the mat and continue the role play. As explained by O'Keeffe, the question is 'Did the manager stay in constructive mode, at what point did the manager maybe flip to being passive, what was the signal which we picked up…and so we ask the 'manager' if they would like to do it again watching out for that. This is really good and I notice that between Days Three and Four the difference is really significant. On Day Four they are managing those scenarios so much better and more confidently.' (O'Keeffe, 2014)

On Day Three, three more sessions are run after the leadership scenarios: management systems, active constructive responding, and the idea of the 'first seven words'. On Day Four, which is held four months after Day Three, the day kicks off with sharing examples of how the learning has been applied in the workplace once again. This is followed by an engagement review where findings from a review of each team's engagement - conducted since Day Three for each leader - is shared. The next

session focuses on leadership narrative in which case participants are asked to share what stories they think people tell about them as a leader. In this instance they are also asked about the leaders they have worked for that led well, and what stories were told about these leaders. The next two sessions are about gossip (why people gossip and what leaders should do about it, and understanding team dynamics in relation to gossip and how this can be managed). Power is then discussed, especially in relation to the idea of dominance and submission in groups and the idea that power can be used positively. The next session involves running leadership scenarios – as in Day Three – and the last two sessions look at the positivity ratio (the conditions under which humans flourish) and recognising instincts. In the latter instance the focus is on how to use instincts to recognise what is going on in the organisation, and what leaders can do about it – a case study written by O'Keeffe is used to illustrate the point here.

On Day Five – held four months after Day Four – half of the day involves running the Savannah Game, applying what has already been learned. After this a couple of hours are spent on running change management scenarios. After afternoon tea there is a graduation ceremony and drinks, and senior executives from the organisation attend this part of the day. The graduation is based around participants sharing what they have learned in the programme.

# Appendix L: Andrew O'Keeffe: Career Background

This provides a brief overview of Andrew O'Keeffe's career background, compiled through interaction with him in personal interviews in 2013-14.

Andrew O'Keeffe claims he is one of those lucky people who chose the right career for himself, and is thankful to his insightful father for guiding him. O'Keeffe spent his youth in Broken Hill, New South Wales where his father worked as head of engineering on one of the major mines in the area. The area had a particularly strong union presence and O'Keeffe's father had always been involved in the union movement – initially as a union member and representative and then later as a member of management involved in negotiating the three-yearly industrial agreements. Towards the end of his high school period, the young O'Keeffe had trouble deciding what to study at university. His father, rather than making any suggestion, guided him in the form of a question, 'Of all the work issues that I talk about at home, what do you like most listening to?' That was an easy choice: 'Industrial relations!' As he points out, 'I loved the behavioural, the people dimension, and the resolution of people's points of view and the strategies associated with that' (O'Keeffe, 2011). His father's point was that if you choose an area of work that you enjoy you will always be curious to find out more. They found a course at The University of Sydney within the faculty of Economics where he could study industrial relations.

After completing his studies and a brief role as a management trainee for the retailer Waltons, he took up a position as industrial relations officer in Australian Mines and Metals Association, an employer association in the metalliferous mining industry. O'Keeffe learned early on in his life that he found industrial relations (IR) to be fascinating, not least because of the 'behavioural, people dimension, and the resolution of people's points of view and the strategies associated with that'. He was enthused by the work and for seven years worked in the NSW and Victorian offices of the group and then moved back to Sydney as the NSW State Manager. Wanting to have experience working within an organisation, he joined manufacturing company, James N. Kirby, at their western Sydney manufacturing site. After three years he then joined IBM where he worked in various HR roles for almost 10 years. Later he worked briefly for Optus and then five years as HR director for engineering consulting firm, Sinclair Knight Merz (SKM). He then worked for two years with the international HR consulting firm, Hewitt Associates, before starting his own business.

By the time he was working in IBM O'Keeffe had learned two valuable career lessons. In the first place, he began to see patterns that were common across industries. He notes, 'You'd start to hear things around the executive table in one organisation that you had heard before in a prior organisation! That was curious. It also stuck me that most others were unaware of the patterns.' (O'Keeffe, 2011) The second lesson, which he extracted out of the IBM experience in particular, was

the emphasis that was placed on an enhanced relationship between managers and their direct reports. The organisation took considerable care in selecting and appointing managers and prior to taking up these positions new managers were provided with extensive training to equip them to be effective in their leadership roles. Various systems such as career development, performance, recognition and pay systems were in place to help these managers, and it was HR's role to support managers rather than to intervene in the relationship. 'Morale' or engagement surveys were run regularly so that if managers received poor feedback there was a mechanism to deal with it: the manager would sit with his/her manager and work out how to lead the team differently.

> What everyone also knew was if you got a bad result next time you're probably going to be moved out of management and back to a contributor role. The organisation was in effect saying to those managers that we are not prepared to have our people work in an environment of low morale (O'Keeffe, 2011).

After ten years in IR within the mining and manufacturing industries, he worked in human resources at IBM, relishing an organisational culture that valued and supported leadership development. He explained his insights about this experience as follows:

> You start looking for why is this organisation operating so effectively? And the thing that stood out, which was a key learning in terms of my career, was that the whole focus of IBM's HR strategy was to enhance the relationship between managers and their direct reports. For instance, IBM took a lot of care in who was appointed to a manager role, and each person was given a lot of training just prior to being put in a management role. There was regular training, and good tools were given to them such as career development. So the managers could guide their people, performance systems, pay systems, recognition systems, all built around enhancing the relationship. And the role of HR was behind the manager supporting them, not intervening in the relationship. And then one of the things that IBM did every year or so was to run an employee survey, now they'd be known as engagement surveys. And this was a really serious system of closing the loop, that if a manager had a poor result, that is the morale of their team was not very high, then that was attended to by that manager's manager sitting with them, so it wasn't HR intervening. The manager had to sit with them because their manager's manager was holding them to account to sit down with the person and to have a chat about their results and what would need to change about the way that manager was leading so that they didn't get a similar bad result next time. And what everyone also knew was if you got a bad result next time then you're probably going to be moved out of management, and culturally everybody could point to at least one other person in the business who somewhere along the line had been moved out of management because they weren't attending to the people dimension.

So he had seen through the IBM experience that the investment in people leadership was powerful because managers realised it was a key part of their job. He knew that one of the main reasons it was so successful was that it involved considerable effort and long-term investment, and historically was a part of culture that valued it. He noted that:

> There were 10-15 years of leadership investment, so not every organisation is going to sign up for that. I think, based on human nature, fashionable, easy solutions are more attractive. So you're in a role as CEO or HR director or LND manager, you've got to do something, what do you do? Do you sign up for the really big hard generational shifts?

There was one leader at IBM who stood out for O'Keeffe, and working for him had taught him about what good leadership meant. It was from him that he learned about the value of 'one-on-ones' and believing in a team's ability to be able to do what needed to be done.

Whilst working at IBM, O'Keeffe was appointed the head of HR for a significant change management initiative. An outsourcing joint venture was formed between IBM, Lend Lease and Telstra, which meant forming a new company and managing the transition of hundreds of people from each of the three organisations plus transitions of staff from clients when outsourcing deals were won. He describes this experience as follows: 'I was observing that irrespective of the organisation people were going through the changes in a very similar way. Initially I would have thought there would be differences between an IBM group and a Telstra group, and then a Victorian public service group. But no, the responses were the same. The questions were the same. If the response to change could not be explained at the organisational level, then there must be something deeper. I wasn't finding any model that could satisfactorily explain what I was observing. Initially I was wondering if the answer was at the country-culture level; we were dealing with Australians. But the experience was really sowing the seed for the realisation of the value of human instincts'. And he then goes on to say, 'No framework to that time satisfied what I was observing until I read the article by Nigel Nicholson in the Harvard Business Review' (O'Keeffe, 2011).

Working as the HR director of SKM was a particularly fertile ground for him to try out the human instincts approach as it was a private Australian firm. It was not a subsidiary as many organisations are in Australia so he and the leadership team had control over its core HR practices. The HR practices at SKM were also at an elementary stage of development in need for design. He also credits the executive leadership team with good instincts about people solutions:

> It became a really good laboratory in a way. The time was one of practical application, of seeing what worked and what didn't, and of reflecting and wondering.

During the seven years at SKM and then Hewitt Associates Andrew wrote his first book and was invited to speak at HR conferences. His preferred subject to speak about was human instincts. He says,

> That's the subject I thought would be of most interest to the audience. Well, seasoned HR professionals responded to it the same way I had. I could see in their eyes, as soon as I started with the key proposition that we have only recently, with the Industrial Revolution, changed our habitat and moved into offices and factories, that the light went on as to the significance of that concept. At breaks people wold come up to me and want to know more. I was gaining so much energy out of the subject and out of sharing it I decided, with the support of my wife, that I would follow this energy source and make it my area of focus. I had confidence that others saw the same value as I had.

Summarising how he got the point where he could see the value of human instincts, he had the following to say,

So I got onto the right career path initially based on Dad's question. I loved industrial relations and HR. The IBM experience identified the criticality of the relationship managers have with their people. And working in a range of industries allowed the observations that the people-challenges and inhibitors of organisation performance are common. And it was after that twenty years of thinking and discovery and curiosity that there was this foundation for the human instincts model (O'Keeffe, 2011).

# Appendix M: Andrew O'Keeffe: Personal Evaluation of Dialogic Process and Insights

This appendix includes the response from Andrew O'Keeffe when I asked him for an account of the insights he gained from our interaction, as received in July 2015.

Hi Tamzyn

These are the 5 things that I have most gained from your research. Most are needing more reflection at my end to take advantage of the concepts and thinking:

1. The history of Evolutionary Psychology and leadership – I became so much more aware of the history and development of evolutionary psychology as a leadership construct.
2. Your design principles framework/model – the 7 design principles capture the elements of design for this and other leadership programs.
3. Your design principles assessment – the assessment by myself and our discussions comparing my assessment and your assessment were very constructive conversations.
4. Making the program more challenging to people at a personal level – I have tended not to prompt people to delve deeply into their own lives and the connection of the program for them at a deeper level. I can see a need to do more of that.
5. More focus of the program on the reality of the participants' world – based on some of the early feedback from the interviews you did I can see the need to ensure I make the program fit the participants' situation so that it is highly relevant to everyone.

Regards

Andrew

# Appendix N: Andrew O'Keeffe: Evaluation of Pedagogical Content and Methods (Personal Interview, 22 August 2014)

This appendix includes a description of the pedagogical content and method Andrew O'Keeffe considers most effective in his Hardwired Humans Zoo programme.

From a content perspective, O'Keeffe felt that all of the aspects listed ***Table 1*** are important, and necessary to include in his programme. He knew that some of them had stood out for participants though, as key 'takeaways', and in fact he talked of 'the big four' which included 'the first seven words', organisational design, the concept of gossip and grooming, and using the framework to understand change management. As we interacted, I tried to get beneath the reasons for why he felt the human instincts material resonated so much with people (as triangulated by my own observation as participant, feedback from participants in the empirical critique of the programme, and O'Keeffe's insights), and offered this explanation:

> Well I think it is the realisation that there is that similarity [to another big-brained social species] i.e. the recognition of these patterns, that there is a 'Wow that is not very different to us'. There is that spark of insight where it is 'Wow that does explain a lot'. And it does match their reality: that they can see huffing and puffing in the workplace, they can see status and hierarchy, and emotion, and loss aversion, so it really resonates.

He saw the main content of his programme as 'bringing into consciousness and using the basic nature of the species', and in order to do this he drew heavily on the insights of Professor Nigel Nicholson. In this respect he explained the criticality of the idea that it is only recently in the history of mankind that the Western World has moved into offices and factories. This meant that man's basic nature would not have changed in such a short period of time, which he explained as being 'no time at all to alter what it means to be human'. O'Keeffe brought other content into the programme anchored in these basic ideas, such as their implications for how leaders handled challenges common in organisations - such as organisational design, organisational change, gossip, persuasion and influence. He saw the application of this content helping participants on his programme being enabled to perform at higher levels, through developing a range of skills such as influencing and persuading, change management, team dynamics, motivating and engaging staff and communication.

Overall, O'Keeffe felt that the content – the human instincts knowledge – enabled people to see a framework that explained so much about how they observe human behaviour in the workplace. His feeling was that when he talked about the importance of family it resonated deeply – and the way he described family was as lifetime relationships with our immediate relatives that translates as a model into the workplace, an 'as-if' family in the workplace. It also resonated because of the happy memories triggered by visits to the Zoo as a child, and which caused instant interest, curiosity and pleasure. To O'Keeffe, getting close to nature seemed to be something that we like doing universally,

and for this reason it resonated to hear about and observe chimpanzees and other apes. The fact that the content was science-based was a further reason it resonated with participants on his Zoo programme, and O'Keeffe often cited neuroscience based research about the speed within which humans make judgements, i.e. within the first couple of seconds.

O'Keeffe did not feel that his method had changed much over time, and that instead it was the quality of the activities and materials that had changed as more thought had been put into them. As we talked it became clear to both of us that O'Keeffe used various psychological anchors to reinforce learning from the programme in the future. These would include some of the content or method components of his programme such as wildlife, Flight Centre[21], and the Zoo – exposure to any of these in the future would remind participants of their learning. He expanded as follows:

> So for example, I'm thinking because we talked about wildlife then I would think it would be hard to separate any student participant who's sometime in the future watching television and a wildlife documentary comes on: they've got to go back to that learning. Another example is whenever they walk past a Flight Centre store in the future, which is every other day probably. Because they're so ubiquitous, you can't help but look in. And it's almost like… bloody O'Keefe, you know, it's like he's planted something, it's like a bad song that you can't get out of your head.

The Zoo as the venue for the programme played a central role as it made the teaching 'really sticky'. It was the ideal setting to create awareness of the history of humans and ancestral influences, and then about primatology and social behaviour patterns. O'Keeffe explained, too, that he had been influenced by a Maori woman who had talked to him about the 'wonderfully stimulating physical environment of nature'.

> It's really a key part of the proposition that we can understand ourselves as a big brained species that lives in large complex multi-male, multi-female, multi-generational groups, because all those elements are unusual in nature. So we can understand ourselves as a species by turning the spotlight on another, and hence the chimps, and it is remarkable that coming to the Zoo, hearing about the species and jaw dropping in response to the stories about the chimps, visiting the chimps and seeing it all on display. And people saying, "I never realised, I've come by here many times," or whatever, "I'll never come to the zoo quite the same again, I didn't know all that was going on." I'm sure what happens after that is any time they hear of a zoo mentioned then it anchors back to the programme, anytime they're watching a wildlife documentary on tellie it's anchored back to the programme and it reminds them of something, and when they're sitting around the executive meeting rooms having a meeting their mind is going back based on the observations of the behaviours they're observing.

As I had thought, the sticky or memorable concepts had been intentionally used by O'Keeffe to help participants remember what they had learned. This included concepts such as 'the first seven words' and 'alpha male', but it also included stories and experiences observing animals. Again, each of these was used as psychological anchors to the learning in the programme.

[21] Flight Centre was talked about in the programme as an example of an organisation that had successfully employed human instincts principles.

| Method | Content |
|---|---|
| 1. *Experience and personality of instructor*<br>2. *Class set-up – u-shape and family size groups*<br>3. Different speakers<br>4. Fast pace<br>5. *Active participation*<br>6. *Variety of teaching methods*<br>7. *Sticky concepts*<br>8. *Stories*<br>9. *Zoo location illustrates zoological perspective of humans, unusual, humorous, offers open space to think new things, emotional connection of childhood memories*<br>10. Discussion<br>11. Connection with nature and sustainability<br>12. Networking between learners<br>13. Learning from each other's experience<br>14. Connection to goals of organisation<br>15. Support from top leaders<br>16. Relevance made clear before and after<br>17. Buy-in beforehand – 20-minute phone call beforehand and syndicate group description of humans at the zoo<br>18. Introduction which makes it personal<br>19. *Use of human instincts principles in teaching approach*<br>20. *Evolutionary psychology metaphor of hardwired behaviour - human instincts*<br>21. *Pictures*<br>22. *Primate metaphor*<br>23. *Discussion and observing primates in zoo enclosure*<br>24. Stories and pictures of specific primate individuals<br>25. Scientific work of Dr Jane Goodall – life and JGI Institute<br>26. Humour in learning from the apes and being at the zoo<br>27. *Practical application*<br>28. Illustration of practical solutions<br>29. *Relevant real life scenarios specific to organisation*<br>30. Debriefing<br>31. Gossip map<br>32. First seven words<br>33. *Groupwork – pairs, or groups of 3 or 4*<br>34. *Role plays*<br>35. Case studies – Harvard and own<br>36. Sharing of stories as a leader<br>37. Quiz<br>38. Sharing of key take-aways<br>39. Sharing of what has been learned<br>40. A4 laminate or 9 instincts<br>41. Regular newsletters<br>42. *Spacing the programme over time**<br>43. *Sharing by example of application of learning**<br>44. LSI and LSI mat*<br>45. *Savannah game** | 1. *Human instincts concept – link to evolutionary psychology*<br>2. *Chimpanzee behaviour*<br>3. *Similarities and differences between chimps and humans*<br>4. *Applications of the learning to various aspects of managing in organisations such as performance management, organisational design etc.*<br>5. *Resonating and meaningful as explains who we are as humans*<br>6. *Unusual yet familiar – makes sense because it applies*<br>7. *Gives framework for understanding self and others*<br>8. *Provides people focused solutions in a practical way*<br>9. *First seven words*<br>10. *Gossip map*<br>11. *Alpha male behaviour*<br>12. *Change management tool* |

Note: those methods marked with an * are only used in the programme if there are spaced out sessions (if it goes past two days)

**Table 1: Content and teaching methods used in the Zoo programme**

In looking at his method of taking participants down to the chimp enclosure in the Zoo to observe them, it had struck me when I attended the programme that this was invaluable in that it was 'unstaged' behaviour, sure to offer authentic insight into group behaviour of a species so similar to humans. I also felt that it offered a way for participants to view behaviour of particular chimpanzee individuals, especially the alpha male, and learn about their own behaviour and that of other leaders in a non-confrontational way. However, after explaining these two insights to O'Keeffe, he stated

that this had not been his intention (although it could be informative to think of it in that way). Instead, he aimed for this method to provide insight through stories by the chimp-keeper about individual chimpanzees which were 'undeniable in terms of evidence'. He felt that they were believable and revealing stories, making them 'sticky', and showing that 'Wow, that's just like us'.

O'Keeffe also emphasised the fundamental importance of appealing to emotion through various methods such as story and activities. This was especially the case in terms of making an impactful start by working on first impressions. He noted that he would often draw on both content and method in unpacking certain concepts in the teaching process. We discussed the list, and looked at metaphor, which I had noted, feeling strongly that this was an effective method that he intended to use. O'Keeffe had previously been non-committal about whether he drew on metaphor, noting instead that the way that he taught was beyond the use of metaphor. As I explained my concept of metaphor[22], however, he agreed that he did use it to teach if it was framed in this manner, and to good effect by drawing on the behavioural similarities between two big-brained social species (chimpanzees and humans) or the similarities between humans at different points in time (ancient Stone Age man and modern man).

O'Keeffe also believed in running various activities, by which he meant doing practical exercises usually in groups or pairs, and sometimes individually. In this instance the participants would work on applying what they had learned from a specific body of 'human instincts' knowledge relevant to leadership such as 'gossip' or 'change management' – so it was explanation leading into activity. Practical application as a teaching method was important to O'Keeffe in that it offered the opportunity to apply theory and concepts. He consciously did not spend much time on the theory and concepts as he felt they were easy to learn, and ensured that at least 80% of the programme was practical by nature.

As we ran through the list, and I questioned him about using 'humour', which had stood out for me in the empirical work and in my observation of and participation in the programme, he was adamant that it was not one of the methods he wanted to use intentionally. In previous meetings about possible design principles, he had not been keen to even consider this method, but I had not wanted to take it out as an option as I felt it was an important reinforcing mechanism. He noted:

> Well, I'm not doing it, if humour means it's funny and it makes people laugh, I'm not doing it for that. If it happens to have that, then that is different. You convinced me of the word humour before, and you wouldn't allow me to delete it, where if humour means stimulating and memorable, and it is light, certainly it's light.

[22] Metaphor is a mental/linguistic technique that helps us understand a complex concept by relating it to our more concrete, observable experiences; by comparing two discrete ideas, we expose similarities and can infer logical relationships.' (http://sourcepov.com/2011/08/31/metaphor/) (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

In discussing the use of stories as a teaching method with O'Keeffe I noted several reasons why I thought he might use them. He responded that it involved a few levels of learning: it made the learning more interesting, and he had found that 'people's attention is easier to grab by way of example'. It also facilitated remembering what had been learned, and made the learning concrete in the sense of participants connecting to their own experience or need.

> It makes it concrete and translatable to them. And this isn't me making it up, it's the learning by way of story, isn't it, it's the learning method, which is when people take out of the story the bit that resonates with them and what they need.

This method was used to good effect in the beginning of his Zoo programme, when he explained the nine human instincts. These stories were most often in the form of events from the news that people remember and they can relate to in their leadership capacity. It was also important to him to weave in stories of practical experience, and key throughout the programme was that participants felt that they were given the choice to take on the learning. O'Keeffe explained his approach as follows:

> Certainly the undertone of my method is to allow people the space of choosing to accept and use the knowledge. So not telling and not forcing it down their throats.

One of the examples O'Keeffe mentioned more than once over the period of our discussions was that he believed in leaders holding regular individual one-on-one sessions with their team members, at least fortnightly. He felt that rather than telling participants to do so at the beginning of the programme, that it was more effective when leaders shared their experience of doing so – by way of example – later on in the programme.

I wondered if he used pictures for the same reasons that he used stories, and he replied that he did but that it offered visual stimulation and colour, and it was 'not just boring Power Point'. The next method we discussed was active participation, which I had sensed he felt very strongly about. Indeed, he explained that 80% of the programme was active and that it was critical to have minimal talking by himself or other speakers and that this was quickly followed by action. He wanted participants to be comfortable from the start, and mentally and physically involved. For this reason he always took time at the beginning of the programme to orientate participants about the structure of the programme, the logistics and safety aspects. As icebreaker he also got everyone to introduce themselves, to explain who they were, where they worked, and to tell something about themselves that only someone who knew them well would know. He did this because it enabled participants to share about themselves in an engaging manner, and helped them later on in breaks to network. Most importantly it ensured each person was involved, and he intentionally employed various other methods (such as group work and role play) to ensure that this continued throughout. His only concern for this deliberate active and fast pace approach was that this did not allow sufficient time for reflection, and he acknowledged that he was hoping to gain some insight from our work together:

> The trade-off there is that I don't make time for that personal reflection, taking notes, what does this mean to me…and I'm interested in your advice, comments, observations as, y'know, I don't know whether I leave enough time for that.

Relevant real-life examples were important to O'Keeffe as he felt that it matched the reality of the participants. They did not necessarily have to be examples within the specific organisation that the participant worked. Spacing the programme was a further key method employed by O'Keeffe, and he increasingly recognised the value of this because of the reinforcement of the learning that it offered. He had seen that it enabled people to 'live the learning', and it was on their minds because they knew they needed to come back and explain how they applied it. This enabled them to consolidate, learn through trial and error, and then come back and test a few things, and perhaps most importantly noted O'Keeffe:

> They can shift their point of view because then they're learning from what others have tried and know has worked.

Linked to this was sharing by way of example (this was only offered in the 5-day programme spaced over time), which O'Keeffe saw as the most powerful teaching method. It stood out for him, but he did not think it necessarily stood out for participants in the same way as they were being exposed to a whole range of new information about the nine human instincts and chimpanzees. This method was used in the instance that he was able to space out the programme, and of the four Australian organisations that had been surveyed regarding his Zoo programme, Metro Trains had been the greatest beneficiary of this method as they had introduced a series of programmes in which participants had exposure to O'Keeffe four times over a one-year period. In this instance, O'Keeffe would ask each participant on follow-up days to relay by way of example how they had applied their learnings. He would give them an example of what he meant so that they were prepared for this, and were more likely to be consciously looking for ways to apply it in the four month period that followed. The other participants could then learn from those examples, and O'Keeffe felt it was important in that it offered a way to learn from each other. He had learned the value of this method when listening to Dr Jane Goodall giving presentations because he realised that she shared her story by way of example extremely effectively.

As I had anticipated and observed, it was important to O'Keeffe that he used human instincts principles in the way that he taught. He used them right at the start ('first impressions to classify') through story and emotion, and by making personal contact with participants before the programme started. He was very aware not to give too much away about the programme at this time, as he knew that it was possible then to 'lose them and never recover them' if they, for example, read Nigel Nicholson's Harvard Business School article and failed to connect with it. O'Keeffe was also highly conscious of using the 'gossip test' in how he was teaching ('gossip'), realising that the first group would rapidly spread the word about the programme, and for this reason was careful about who was

invited onto the first programme within an organisation. Human instincts were also applied in the use of group work: it was always in threes or fours and never in groups of five, fitting the gossip and grooming dynamic and ratio of one speaker to three listeners. The theory behind this was that if the group was bigger than that, people did not get enough time to have their say and disengaged from the group. O'Keeffe also ensured that participants felt safe yet stimulated whilst on the programme ('loss aversion'), were involved in small group sizes and got to know each other relatively well and feel connected over a five-day programme ('social belonging'). He also ensured participants understood his dominance as facilitator and gave considerable thought to how he seated participants so that his power status was heightened i.e. not at either end of the U-shaped table or in the middle at the back ('contest and display', 'social hierarchy'). O'Keeffe explained that he was very conscious of the individual variance in the room, as 'different people operate differently, they interact differently, they learn differently'. He felt that connecting with each person and being respectful of individuals was very important in one's teaching method ('empathy and mind reading').

# Appendix O: Neo-Harvard Case Study Method: Initial Prototype Proposal

This appendix offers a description of our dialogue about a neo-Harvard case study method prototype. As such, it includes initial suggestions for a prototype from O'Keeffe and I.

*Practitioner's View of the Programme*

## MBA Programme Outline

### Day 1

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials |
|---|---|---|
| Welcome and introductions | Business context<br>Icebreaker | |
| Human instincts | The 9 instincts of humans | Laminate |
| Chimpanzee instincts | Patterns of social species in Nature | Guest speaker JGI and keeper |
| Seeing the patterns | How are we similar, different and what organisation behaviours now make more sense | Pages 12-13 of Human Instincts section |
| Organisation design | Using natural principles to design for function<br>The 6 design principles | Example organisations page 7 or Organisation Design section<br>Playing cards for design<br>Page 11 of Org Design section – a quiz on your organisation |
| Leadership of Humans | Fresh insight into leadership roles<br>From the 9 instincts what is the special role of leaders?<br>Leaders as enablers | Harvard Business article<br>Page 1 of Leadership of Humans section (Inner Work Life) |
| Persuasion and influence | Speed in which people classify<br>First 7 words | Scenarios<br>Page 4 of Persuasion and Influence section |

## Day 2 - Morning

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials |
|---|---|---|
| Check-in | Reflections overnight<br>The gossip test | |
| Gossip, cliques and team dynamics | Role of gossip and grooming<br>Understanding team dynamics – your own gossip map<br>% time grooming<br>Grooming rituals<br>Gossip and rumour – mobile phone cards | Page 9 of Gossip and Grooming section<br>Page 5 of Gossip section |
| Change management | Conventional wisdom is wrong – that "people resist change"<br>We would always have expected our leaders to lead us in response to changes in our external environment | Worksheet Page 2 of Change Management section<br>Example scenarios for applying human instincts to lead change well |

*Academic's View of the programme*

Before running through my view of the programme, we discussed a few overall issues which I deemed important to the programme. I suggested that in the new prototype, in line with design principle 1, we use round tables with family size groups of either four or 6-7 people per table. Because we expected to have 40 MBA students attending the programme, this meant 10 or at least 7 tables. I was concerned that the larger group would feel less personalised, but O'Keeffe felt it best to have fewer tables, suggesting tables of 8 that could be split up into smaller groups of four or less to engage in activities.

I then suggested that the physical location be characterised by a festive theme with visual and audio cues, and relevant physical and sensory props around reflecting the metaphors of zoo, chimps, and evolutionary psychology. As part of this idea, I suggested using bunches of bananas on the tables, lots of plants, drum beats, and perhaps even actors dressed up to represent life on the Savannah Plains. I also suggested the idea of appealing to the different senses according to learning styles, as I believed that the more senses one appealed to, the more likely it was for learning to be remembered. I had recently done a learning styles quiz online (www.learning-styles-online.com), and felt it could personalise the learning by providing insight into one's own learning style. O'Keeffe liked the idea of the festive theme, as long as costs would be covered, and he was open to the learning styles quiz, but felt it needed to have a definite outcome for learners or a link to the content of the programme.

I also wondered if it would be a good idea of contextualise the learning by emphasising to learners that the programme was about opening up their minds to new ways of thinking and being constructive and collaborative rather than competitive. O'Keeffe did not believe in setting ground rules as he felt it was patronising as well as suggestive, and that instead it was important to facilitate as the programme progressed. Because I was concerned about a potential 'free rider problem' I suggested that in each group each person plays a different role each time they work together (scribe, presenter, chairperson, devil's advocate, time-keeper, initiator of discussions). At the end of the programme, I wondered if each person in the group could be rated by the group in terms of their contribution to group work – although I did have reservations that it might be too controlling. Although O'Keeffe liked the first idea – of playing different roles – as he felt that it would prevent dominant personalities from always playing centre-stage, he did was vehemently opposed to the idea of rating each other in terms of contribution – in fact he describe this as 'dynamite' as it now emphasised competition when we had agreed we wanted to highlight collaboration. He did not feel that it was motivating; he felt that as soon as one placed emphasis on those outcomes it blocked their learning, and emphasis would be placed on their rating instead of on absorbing the intangible aspects of the human instincts learning. All of this could be addressed, he felt, by placing learners in 'sensible' sized groups of four or less where he had found that no-one held back and all were interested in participating.

Another idea I had was to introduce a reflective journal, possibly an e-journal, but more likely to be a physical copy. I showed him some examples of journals or other materials that I had found which reflected the fun and creative flavour of the tools that I had in mind, wherein certain sections would provide further information about human instincts, evolutionary psychology, and pose specific insightful questions to be answered about oneself as leader. It would also add more variety, and different stimuli especially in terms of images and ideas, and there should be open spaces for personal reflection. In this way, it could cover aspects of the 'lens' used in the programme, encourage self-awareness and personal development, and insight into one's role as a leader in business. In order to encourage use of this journal throughout the learning process, I suggested that creative materials – including coloured writing materials and magazines – be placed on the tables, and that at certain points the learners would be prompted to use them in a brief exercise that related to the course material. The thinking behind this was that the non-intellectual as well as the intellectual parts of learners would be stimulated and they would get to keep a physical communication device within which they could be self-reflective both during and after the programme. O'Keeffe liked the idea, feeling that it could work well in terms of implementing more self-awareness within the programme (design principle 3).

We began to run through the programme I had put together, looking at the pre-programme phase that I had suggested. Because I was aware that O'Keeffe already knew his programme worked well 'as-is', I had wanted to use this first part to bring in more opportunities for learning, but also to help in terms of contextualising the learner prior to the start of the programme. I knew O'Keeffe would want to use the opportunity to capitalise on 'first impressions to classify', and that it would be a useful way to contact the 40 participants (rather than have to phone each of them) in finding out what they expected about the programme and to give them an idea of how the learning would help them in their role as leader. I suggested inviting each of them to a pre-prepared online 'wiki' or website, asking them to give an idea of what they expected on the programme, and provide an idea of their main challenges they experienced in their position as organisational leader. This online communication, which I saw as a way of staying in touch with participants both during and after the programme, could also involve several other objectives.

For one, the website could be used as a conduit for assignments to be handed in and marks to be awarded, and secondly, for sharing information between learners in an online learning community. Thirdly, it could also be used as a catchment for further resources to be drawn on if interested, such as about the theory of evolutionary psychology in particular. In the fourth place, the idea of online quiz regarding learning style could also be executed through such a mechanism, as I felt that this could not only provide insight for the learners themselves, but for the deliverer of the programme. Finally, prior to the programme starting learners could be requested to pre-prepare a two-page story of their most challenging experience as a leader. Included should be four sections: current role and industry (2) the challenge and your assumptions about the experience (assumptions about your role and responsibilities, how the organisation works and about the behaviour of people) (3) the perspectives of others around you and at different levels in the organisation (4) your solution. I felt that it could add further interest if they included a multi-media aspect to illustrate their experience, making it as real as possible. This aim of developing this story would be for learners to gain insight into their assumptions about themselves as leaders, and what they believed about work and the organisation. This would be useful if they could explain the context within which they worked in some detail, and how they solved it, so that it would also be useful for others to learn from. I believed that it would be most useful if these stories could be shared in groups of four, and feedback could be collected about other ways to solve the challenges at hand. In this way, experiences would be shared, and collaboration would occur in this process. O'Keeffe felt that this could be a very powerful learning experience, making minor suggestions to change the approach, which are described in ***Chapter 10*** in the operationalisation of design principle 3.

I had suggested that the first day of the programme stay much the same as the existing Zoo programme other than a few exceptions. For one, I recommended a 'human' zoo display – along the

lines of what O'Keeffe referred to the in existing programme when he asked participants to imagine it – with a real person inside (a live human actor). This would be a humorous yet meaningful addition and an interesting surprise, using a prop to make it look like a Zoo display, and located in the Zoo conference room where the training takes place. O'Keeffe liked this idea and was keen for us to make it part of the new programme.

We then talked about finding a way to make the human instincts easier to remember. O'Keeffe had been puzzling over this issue for some time now, exploring the possibility of grouping them into three categories, but had not yet found an answer. I suggested that it might be useful to characterise each instinct with visual, audio and tactile components – largely in thinking again about different learning styles. We both agreed that a simple logo would perhaps be most useful as it would be both impactful and meaningful. I also suggested that a physical object that represents each instinct might be a good idea, and similarly a musical identity be formed for each, but we did not reach agreement on these last two ideas. We also discussed another idea I had, to get actors to act out a challenge that was faced in evolutionary times that was linked to each instinct, using the power of story and humour so each would be better understood and remembered. Although O'Keeffe liked the idea at first, he was concerned that it would take up too much time.

In the section on the similarities to chimpanzees, I again suggested making use of actors to illustrate the learning. In this instance, reflecting feedback on the empirical survey of the Zoo programme, I felt it would be useful to use videos of chimpanzee behaviour to ask actors to copy where it was relevant to corporate situations as a leader. In the instance that this was done, the actors could be filmed so that this could be used again in future as needed. After some discussion, O'Keeffe felt that this would be a useful addition, and he identified four specific behaviours that would be useful to capture in this way, each of which are described in ***Chapter 10*** in the operationalisation of design principle 3.

I had also recognised that the MBA students were likely to want more emphasis on theory in this programme, so suggested to O'Keeffe that a short discussion about the discipline of evolutionary psychology and its main assumptions would be useful so that learners would understand where the human instincts had come from. Additionally a multimedia presentation of life on the Savannah Plains in stone-age times might be useful to illustrate the kinds of challenges that are assumed to have arisen. In this way, I explained, I felt that students could better understand the 'lens' of evolutionary psychology in understanding human behaviour, and it could draw them in further, especially if the scientific evidence in support of it was emphasised. This could be further enhanced with references to web links and recent findings, and these could also be placed on the online website that we had talked about earlier. O'Keeffe liked the idea of creating web resources, and he agreed that a presentation about evolutionary psychology theory would be useful.

I felt that the rest of the first day could be spent on the application of human instincts, starting with the use of newspaper articles as before, but placing more emphasis on using the experiences that people had had of their own as I felt they would be more powerful. At the same time, I felt it important to stick with the things that worked well, like use of the gossip map. I explained that I felt more could be made of an organisation O'Keeffe only briefly referred to in the existing programme – Flight Centre. Because this is an organisation that everyone knows, and is present in so many locations, I thought it would be powerful to use this as an example showing organisational design implications and providing evidence that the approach worked – perhaps with a video of the CEO talking about why he had drawn on human instincts. O'Keeffe did not want to change the format involved in presenting the nine instincts much, and he felt that drawing on own experiences in this regard would take too long and was too soon to be able to apply in this way.

Yet another idea was to bring one of the other human nature themes identified by Nicholson, that of 'us and them', to illustrate competitive versus collaborative behaviour and explain the dysfunctionality of silos within organisations. It seemed to me such an important theme within business that leaders needed to address, and the concept of 'us and them' could well illustrate design principle 4, but O'Keeffe felt that this was already addressed under the human instinct 'belonging'.

Looking at the second day, I thought it would be useful to look at three of the design principles that had not been well addressed previously i.e. design principles 2, 3, and 4. However, I emphasised that in each case, these should be directly linked to the existing content of the programme. For instance in the case of self-awareness, where I had recommended drawing on the pre-prepared stories of own challenges, after the story had been discussed there could be suggestions made regarding alternative ways to resolve the issue by drawing on human instincts knowledge. I wondered too, if there was an exercise that could help to show insight into how balanced each learner was, asking the following questions: 'How much attention do you give to each part of yourself? (physical, emotional, mental, spiritual)' O'Keeffe liked the first idea, but preferred it to fit more closely with the existing structure of the programme.

There were a few suggestions regarding design principle 4 regarding collaboration. In this instance, I felt that drawing on a metaphor of an orchestra could be useful to show how each person's voice is important. This would emphasise that the output of the group is superior to the output of the individual. I also suggested using a challenging but very real example faced by leaders today, such as performance managing a difficult person. In this case I recommended each person find a solution on their own, after which five of them are randomly picked to share their solutions which reveals different perspectives. After this, the same five people are put in a group and asked to come up with a solution together, by discussing it in front of the rest of the learners. This would show how there

are many different individual solutions (no one right answer) but the power of working together in a group helps to come up with a superior solution. A further activity regarding this design principle was for learners, in groups of four, to compile a short video clip to be presented at work that shows the power of collaboration amidst diversity. O'Keeffe did not agree with any of these approaches in these formats, but later on pulling in some of the ideas in other ways, as can be seen in ***Chapter 10*** where the design principles are operationalised.

As regards design principle 2, I was unsure as to how much O'Keeffe wanted to bring in to the new programme. The existing programme only briefly touched on it through the involvement of the Jane Goodall Institute and Jane Goodall's work in terms of the need for wildlife preservation. I made three suggestions to gauge O'Keeffe's interest (1) show a powerful video displaying the challenges involved in a sustainable planet, and how each organisation operates as a cell in responding to the challenges. How does knowledge of human instincts help to determine how to respond to this problem? What other perspectives can help to respond to this problem? (2) show a video of a leader that is only interested in profit maximisation and video of leader that looks at the needs of various stakeholders, and (3) in small groups determine at least three innovative changes that can be made in your job as a manager that can help to reduce the destructive impact we are having on the planet: what is the biggest sustainability challenge in your organisation? O'Keeffe preferred to weave many of the elements into the programme rather than take any of these approaches.

The final part of the new programme I suggested looked at post-programme opportunities. Again, I felt that it would be useful to connect and share in an organised online web solution such as a wiki where there could be collaboration and resource collection. In this forum, it would be useful to ask learners to reflect on their learning in terms of particular components (such as collaboration) directly after the programme, but with the insight of human instincts in particular. This communication mechanism could also be used to capture the story of application three weeks after the programme so that all students could share and provide feedback. O'Keeffe liked these approaches, but felt that the time period after the programme should be extended to at least 6 weeks.

**Academic's Initial Programme**

| SUBJECT | ACTIVITY | DESIGN PRINCIPLE | INSTINCT USED IN LEARNING PROCESS | TIME |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| PRE-PROGRAMME | | | | |
| Invitation to pre-prepared online website created for this programme | • Request participants to register and give an idea of what they expect from the programme<br>• Main challenges in manager position<br>• Online quiz to determine your learning style eg www.learning-styles-online.com. | 1 and 3 | First impressions to classify | |
| Pre-prepared story of self as leader | Prior to the programme, participants hand in a pre-prepared two-page story of their most challenging experience as a leader. Include a section on (1) your role and industry (2) the challenge and your assumptions about the experience (assumptions about your role and responsibilities, how the organisation works and about the behaviour of people) (3) the perspectives of others around you and at different levels in the organisation (4) your solution. Include a multi-media aspect to illustrate your personal experience, making it as real as possible – take short videos, use the web, organisational material, social networking sites. Be as creative is possible. Each of these stories is to be discussed in the groups at each table – what can be learned from each story about the challenges involved in being a leader. | 3 and 4 | Confidence before realism; Loss aversion; Emotions before reason; Contest and display | |
| DAY ONE | | | | |
| Ice-breaker | Small groups, each person shares something about themselves that no-one else would know | 1 | First impressions to classify | 10 mins |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Human zoo display | • Zoo display of *homo sapiens* with real person (actor) inside: make it humorous yet meaningful. This display would not actually be in the zoo but in the zoo conference centre where the training takes place.<br>• Small groups discuss what characteristics humans have. | 2 and 5 | First impressions to classify; Social belonging | 20 mins |
| The 9 human instincts | • Use of a method to remember all the instincts (three different groups)<br>• Visual for each instinct (like a logo) – simple yet impactful and meaningful. And something to touch that represents each.<br>• Also enact each challenge (via actors!) faced in evolutionary times that resulted in the existence of each instinct, using the power of story humour. | 2, 5 and 7 | Gossip | 60 mins |
| Similarities to chimpanzees | • Visit the chimps<br>• Talk by the chimp handler<br>• Talk by Jane Goodall Institute<br>• Metaphors<br>• Human actors acting out human instincts live and chimp video clips | 2 and 5 | Hierarchy and status; Social belonging | 120 mins |
| Short discussion about the theory and main assumptions of evolutionary psychology | • Multi-media presentation of life on the savannah plains and the challenges that were faced<br>• Scientific evidence in support of it and website links, including neuroscience<br>• Links to various multi-media websites | 2 | | 20 mins |
| **LUNCH** | | | | |
| Application of human instincts in the | In each case use the newspaper articles to demonstrate as in previous programmes. Then for each instinct, encourage | 2, 4, 5 and 6 | Them and us; various other instincts depending on | (total of 210 mins) |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| workplace | collaboration by drawing on experience amongst participants (ask them in their small groups to come up with an example from their workplace where they can see this instinct being applied). The best one from each group is presented to the plenary.<br>Additional activities are included in some of the instincts listed below. | | examples | |
| 1. Loss aversion | Use example of performance management – feedback sandwich | | | 15 mins |
| 2. Hierarchy and status | | | | 15 mins |
| 3. First impressions to classify | Role plays – first seven words | 7 | | 30 mins |
| 4. Gossip | Gossip map exercise | 7 | | 30 mins |
| 5. Empathy and mind reading | | | | 15 mins |
| 6. Belonging | Use example of Flight Centre to show org design applications | | | 15 mins |
| 7. Emotions before reason | Story<br>Role plays | | | 30 mins |
| 8. Contest and display | | | | 15 mins |
| 9. Confidence before realism | | | | 15 mins |
| 10. Us and them | Examples of silos and how to overcome | 7 | Belonging; | 30 mins |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Examples of diversity and its importance<br>Responsibility of self in community | | Them and us | |
| Debrief on the days learning | | 7 | | 15 mins |
| DAY TWO | | | | |
| Looking at assumptions of self and others (also looks at diversity) | • Use the case study of self that has been pre-prepared. Share in small groups. Focus on the assumptions that each person has in terms of approaching the challenge that has been faced. The group is asked what insights they can offer about how this challenge was approached. Would this have been done differently with the insights of the human instincts framework? The learnings from this exercise are then presented by each group to the plenary.<br>• Exercise determining balance of different aspects of self. How much attention do you give to each part of yourself? (physical, emotional, mental, spiritual) | 3, 4 and 6 | Confidence before realism; Loss aversion; Emotions before reason; Contest and display | 70 mins (seven people x 10 minutes each);<br>35 mins (seven groups x 5 minutes each)<br><br>30 mins |
| Collaboration and how diversity plays an important part | • Perhaps use the metaphor of an orchestra to show that each person's 'voice' is important in terms of the end result. It has been shown that the output of the group is always superior to that of the individual. Also look at individual learning styles to show diversity.<br>• Use a challenging but very real example such as performance managing a difficult team member to ask each person to come up with a solution. Then ask five different people how they would go about dealing with the challenge – shows varying perspectives and then put the five into a group at a table to talk in front of the others to see what solution they come up with together. | 4, 5 and 6 | Empathy and mind reading; Social belonging; Them and us; Hierarchy and status | 30 mins<br><br>15 mins<br><br>15 mins (plan)<br>45 mins (video) |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | • Video clip of how working together with different kinds of people is better than working with the same kind of people or alone.<br>• In small groups of 4, design a short 5-minute video clip to be shown at work that encourages collaboration, and draws on the power of diversity. What is the best way to do this? Use your imagination…can use the human instincts framework, zoo animals, music, each other's real experience. | | | |
| Responsibility of self in community | • Powerful video displaying the challenges involved in a sustainable planet, and how each organisation operates as a cell in responding to the challenges. How does knowledge of human instincts help to determine how to respond to this problem? What other perspectives can help to respond to this problem? Look at<br>• Video of a leader that is only interested in profit maximisation and video of leader that looks at the needs of various stakeholders.<br>• In small groups determine at least three innovative changes that can be made in your job as a manager that can help to reduce the destructive impact we are having on the planet. What is the biggest sustainability challenge in your organisation? | 2, 6 | Social belonging; Emotions before reason; Confidence before realism | 60 mins |
| Debrief on the days learning | | 7 | | 15 mins |
| Key learnings and insights | Each participant shares what the most important thing was that they learned from this programme | 7 | | 20 mins |

| POST PROGRAMME | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Key 'takeaways' about (1) self at work and at home (2) collaboration and diversity (3) responsibility to the community (3) people management | Directly after the programme each participant posts their reflections at an online website. | 2, 3, 4 and 7 | | |
| Story of application of human instincts framework in the workplace | Participants post a story online three weeks after the programme about how they have applied the human instincts framework to a challenge they have faced at work. These are posted on a blog that all students have access to so that they can be shared. Feedback is welcomed on these applications. | 2, 6 and 7 | | |

# Appendix P: Design research and prototyping, and rationale for use of organising principle for prototype model

There are two sections in this appendix, with the first one providing background on the prototyping process typical of design research, and which was employed in the dialogue with the practitioner in the formulation of the design principles for the neo-Harvard case study method model and prototype. The second section provides a rationale for employing human capabilities as the organising principle for the model.

## 1.1 Design research and its application to learning innovations

The origins of design research reveal the form it took when it began to be applied in the educational context in the early 1990s. It reveals the constructivist context-based prototyping process through which design principles are formulated, and which provide useful insight through situated educational research as one component of improving actual design. This informs the task of developing design principles for a neo-Harvard case study method approach to management learning and development, which took place through cyclical dialogical interaction with highly experienced management education practitioner O'Keeffe.

Although the roots of design research can be tracked to as early as the 1920s (Bayazit, 2004) it was in the 1960s that it emerged as a discipline in its own right (Kennedy-Clark, 2013). This was after the Second World War, and the design techniques and processes which had worked so well in manufacturing military equipment and aided in the development of many new inventions attracted the attention of designers. Technological development, however, required a new look at design methods and systems thinking was introduced, bringing in 'first generation design methods'. In the mid-1960s the work of Archer (1965) and others made ground-breaking progress by providing examples of design methods and scientific approaches to design, and the concept of design science was first brought to attention by Gregory (1966). Simon (1965) published *The Sciences of the Artificial* in which he recommended the application of the scientific approach to 'the sciences of the artificial' in other disciplines. By artificial he meant all made-made things and organisations, and it was during this period that approaches to design were increasingly adopted in the United States and Europe (Bayazit, 2004).

Whilst the early ideas implicit in design research were technical by nature, by the late 1960s there were calls for designers to begin the design process by analysing human behaviour, implying a shift away from the scientific method. This movement, as well as the existence of increasingly complex problems, propelled the shift into 'second generation design methods' in which a more democratic and participatory research methodology was used: it depended on the designer's awareness of user values, and encouraged professionals to work closely with researchers in solving problems. There were many developments in industry that impacted on design research, such as a closer relationship with information technology, and the 1980s and 90s there was surging interest in the field with many

academic departments in design being opened up by the US government so that research in design could be stimulated (Bayazit, 2004). It was during this time that Schön (1983) introduced a different perspective on the design process, inspired by the design process within the discipline of architecture: he saw design as a 'kind of making' (1983, p. 41) which involved synthesis, the creation of something new in the face of conflicts, unexpected variables and consequences. This was different to the goal of optimisation envisaged by Simon (1965), and in Schön's essentially constructivist approach he argues that the designer should approach a complex problem by constantly making changes in the design process by adopting a 'reflective conversation':

> [D]esigners **construct** and impose a coherence of their own. Subsequently they discover consequences and implications of their constructions – some unintended –which they appreciate and evaluate. Analysis and criticism play critical roles within their larger process. Their designing is a web of projected moves and discovered consequences and implications, sometimes leading to reconstruction of the initial coherence – a reflective conversation with the materials of a situation (Schön, 1983, p. 42).

Just one year prior to Schön's publication, the idea of 'design research' was coined by Brown (1992), introducing research methodologies in design into the educational context. Together with another publication by Collins (1992), these initiatives gave birth to a new research methodology in the learning sciences, and it has grown in importance in this field since then (Kennedy-Clark, 2013; Reeves, Herrington, & Oliver, 2005), especially in regard to the use of technology to the learning process (Kennedy-Clark, 2013). At the same time the concept of design began to encompass many meanings, following:

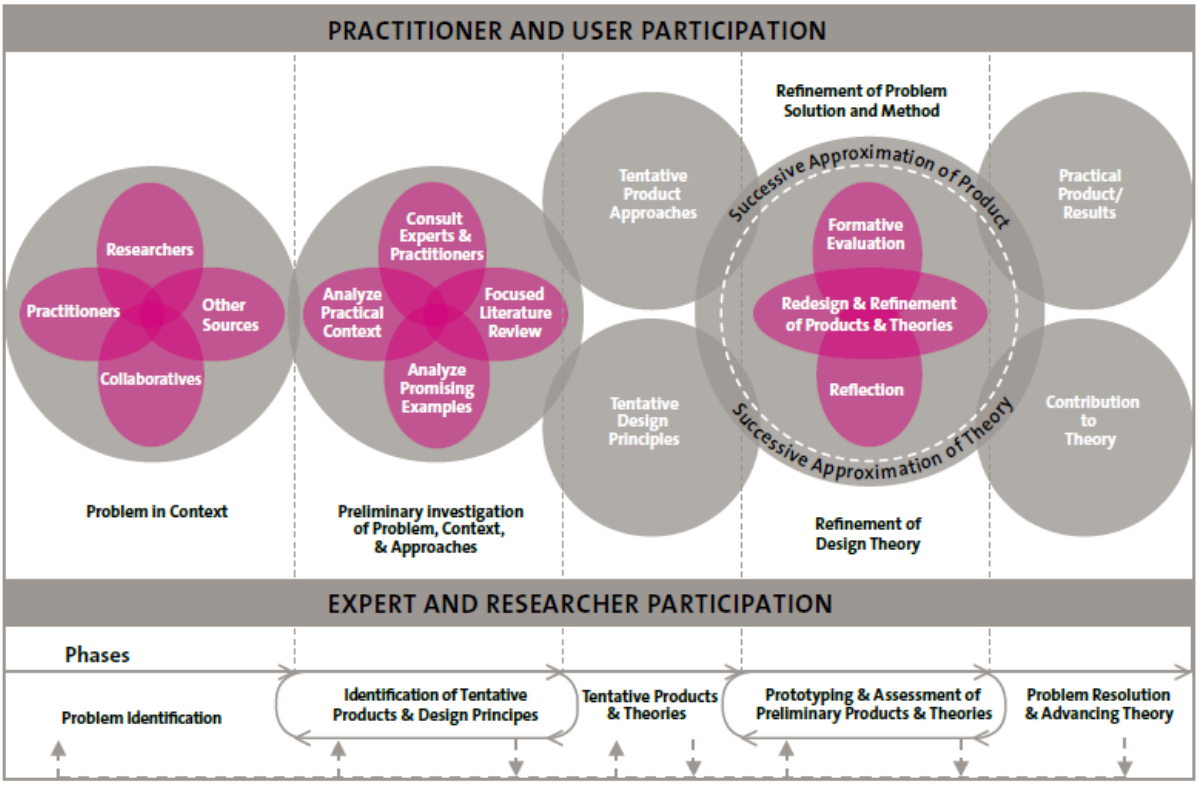
> … a trend of design thinking in the twentieth century, for we have seen design grow from a trade activity to a segmented profession to a field for technical research and to what now should be recognized as a new liberal art of technological culture (Buchanan, 1992, p. 5).

In the business and business education arena, the idea of incorporating design thinking began to be valued, as reflected in the work of various scholars (Brown, 2008, 2009; Gladwell, 2008; Kumar, 2012; Lockwood, 2010; Martin, 2007, 2009; Martin & Moldoveanu, 2008; Pink, 2006; Rowe, 1991).

In a research context, design is an approach valuing the creation of knowledge (Faste & Faste, 2012), and this discipline has eventuated in a 'family' of research methodologies – design research, design-based research, design experiments, development research, developmental research and formative research – that are slightly different in approach yet possess several common features: relevance, general applicability (through the development of theories, models and design principles), experimentation, and collaboration with experts in the field. Underlying design research methodologies is the aim to understand the intricacies of what makes a learning experience work in a process sense and in terms of what support is required, representing a shift away from

understanding in a quantitative sense 'towards research that has provided *an empirically grounded theory on how the intervention works* as its goal' (Gravemeijer & Cobb, 2006, p. 18).

Design research offers a perspective that aims to blend theory and practice in the search for details about educational innovations working in practice. In balancing the interpretivist and positivist paradigms, this method culminates in the identification of theories or models which represent the most essential components of the innovation (Brown, 1992; Collins, 1992; Collins, Joseph, & Bielaczyc, 2004). In this way, a summarised understanding of the 'how and why' of the intervention is presented, often in one or more 'design principles' (Plomp, 2013; Reeves et al., 2005; Van den Akker, 1999; Van den Akker, Gravemeijer, McKenney, & Nieveen, 2006). Wademan (2005) captures the process of how the holistic approach involving interventions culminates in the generation of design principles in, as presented in ***Figure 1***, with Reeve's (2000, 2006) more simplistic visualisation of the process being captured in ***Figure 2***.

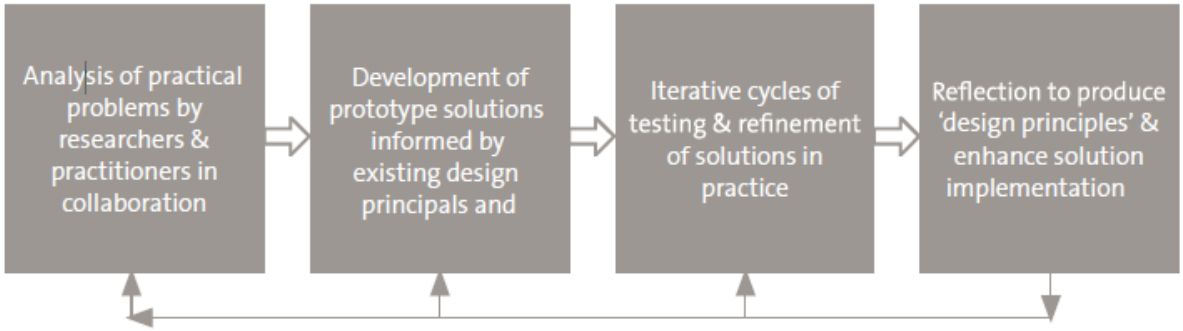



Source: Wademan's (2005) model in Plomp (2013, p. 21)

**Figure 1: Generic design research model**

In this approach, with its focus on real world problems, the goal is to improve the learning design rather than prove one approach as better than another. Depending on the goals of the research process, the output of the methodology should be adaptable to other contexts and, with an emphasis on sharing and disseminating research findings (Herrington, Herrington, & Mantei, 2009).

Furthermore, in proving that a particular design works in the local context, it should generate evidence-based claims that advance current theoretical knowledge (Barab & Squire, 2004).




Source: Reeves (2000, 2006)

**Figure 2: Refinement of problems, solutions, methods, and design principles**

Research methodologies employing the concept of design are different to conventional psychological research methods in several ways: context is the prime difference so that the realities of a naturalistic setting are revealed, and there are multiple dependent variables and social interaction – very different to what happens in a laboratory. Furthermore designs are changed multiple times as experimentation occurs, and instead of subjects, participants who are experts collaborate in the design and analysis phases. This kind of methodology does not test a hypothesis; instead it considers multiple aspects of the design, and aims at developing a model or theory that embodies the design in practice (Barab & Squire, 2004).

This method typically involves several iterations within a true-to-life environment (i.e. not in a laboratory) wherein the design is improved (Herrington et al., 2009). It takes place in several phases: preliminary research, development or prototyping, and assessment phases, with systematic reflection and documentation taking place throughout each phase in order to capture emergent theories and design principles (Plomp, 2013). In this way, it is not so much an approach, say Barab and Squire (2004), as it is a series of approaches intending to find out new ways of understanding learning and teaching in naturalistic settings. This cyclical continuous improvement process helps to ensure that the design of the educational innovation is strengthened through multiple experimentation, and in this process there is a strong emphasis on collaboration with other experts in working towards an evidence-based outcome (Barab & Squire, 2004).

This form of research is seen as a complex system from which certain properties may emerge as new and unexpected variables reveal themselves during the process, including those that may emanate from the researchers themselves (Brown, 1992). The nature of the context within which the methodology unfolds is a key concept of this method, explained by a key assumption of the learning sciences:

> … cognition is not a thing located within the individual thinker but is a process that is distributed across the knower, the environment in which knowing occurs, and the activity in which the learner participates. In other words, learning, cognition, knowing, and context are irreducibly co-constituted and cannot be treated as isolated entities or processes (Barab & Squire, 2004, p. 1).

A key challenge in this process-oriented interventionist method is reliability and validity, and Barab and Squire (2004) suggest that one of the ways of doing this is to describe the local context in detail so that the details of the variables and other environmental factors can be known to others. For this reason they recommend a narrative methodology as ideal because it enables the 'story' involved to be presented, including key turning points. The chief outcomes of the approach are findings that are generalisable to other situations yet take into account the role of social context, and a practical innovation useful to practitioners. Furthermore, through the generation of new models and theories it provides tangible products and programmes that can be used elsewhere and which inform and help to conceptualise learning, instruction, design processes, and educational reform. These methods also provide research results that have been validated through providing evidence of their use (Barab & Squire, 2004).

## 1.2 Organising principle for the design principles model

One of the publications which deeply influenced the philosophy behind this thesis is that of Palmer et al. (2010), and it struck a chord for me when they argue for the need to capture all dimensions of human experience and capability in the learning process in order to access our deepest potential:

> If it is to be true to the human being, education must reflect our nature in all its subtlety and complexity. Every human faculty must be taken seriously, including the intellect, the emotions, and our capacity for relational, contemplative, and bodily knowing. An integrative education is one that offers curricula and pedagogies that employ and deploy all these faculties, delights in their interactions, and is spacious enough to all for their creative conflict (Palmer et al., 2010, p. 152).

Integrative education aims to address the whole human being – mind, heart and spirit – in order to access the deep potential within each person, and in this way act as a catalyst in making positive contributions to the future of the world. Integrative education has been an important objective in education for hundreds of years, such as in 12$^{th}$ century Europe when the intention was to create an individual whose varying dimensions of self were in harmony with each other (Palmer et al., 2010). Despite a lack of clarity about its nature, Palmer et al. suggest that interest in this form of education escalated in the 21$^{st}$ century, with the intention of healing the divide of 'the inner and outer':

> A truly integrative education engages students in the systematic exploration of the relationship between their studies of the "objective world" and the purpose, meaning, limits, and aspirations of their lives (Palmer et al., 2010, p. 10).

Some characteristics of this form of learning are the use of multiple perspectives and ways of knowing and being together, an exploration of the non-rational side of self, and 'weaving together the domains of self, culture and nurture' (Palmer et al., 2010, p. 10).

It thus aims to improve on the existing approach to education which primarily focuses on intellect, involving a separation of the varied dimensions of the whole person (Mills, 2002). Awbrey (2006) uses the image of a spiral to show how we have moved from unification to separation to reunification, mirroring human evolution. She submits that primitive societies held an integrated worldview which did not separate these different dimensions of self, and that this shifted into a worldview that valued spirit (religion) and then later to one which valued matter (science). She proposes that this separation has enabled a greater understanding of each particular sphere, providing the opportunity to now draw on this knowledge in creating a more informed integrative worldview that can lead to a more collaborative and sustainable society by drawing on the dimensions of ourselves – including cognitive, aesthetic, emotional, spiritual and kinesthetic.

This integrative approach to learning is reflected in holistic education. The particular term 'holism' first emerged when Smuts (1926)[23], defined it as is 'tendency in nature to form wholes that are greater than the sum of the parts through creative evolution'. In applying this concept to education the aim is for education to draw on the whole person in all human capacities in reaching the fullest possible development of potential (Forbes, 2003). It has emerged as an organised approach to teaching and learning since the late 1970s, with its philosophical roots emanating from the writings of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Jung, Maslow, and Rogers. The trend towards holism is reflected in a focus on moral development, spiritualism, and the integration of cognitive, social and psychological development that goes beyond the academic focus on skills acquisition (Mills, 2002). It aims to encourage a broader development of individuals and a focus on what is most important in life. The emphasis is on balance, inclusion and connection (Miller, 1998), and the interconnectedness of experience and reality, unlike traditional education that tends to be static and fragmented (Miller, 2011).

This trend towards holistic education is reflected in management education literature, which also calls for the development of the whole person in developing leaders (MacGregor & Semler, 2012; Quatro, Waldman, & Galvin, 2007; Shefy & Sadler-Smith, 2006; Sipos, Battisti, & Grimm, 2008; Waddock & Lozano, 2013). For instance, Quatro et al (2007) argue for the need to develop leaders that are able to operate in the analytical, conceptual, emotional, and spiritual spheres of leadership practice, as do MacGregor and Semler (2012) who propose that this is a necessary precursor to enable learning, reflection and change that will characterise the next generation of leaders.

[23] General Jan Smuts was a South African military leader, politician, and philosopher, and he was also the architect of the League of Nations and wrote the preamble to the United Nations Charter.

With these ideas in the back of my mind, and an awareness of the global needs regarding leadership development that had emerged in ***Chapter 4***, I began to explore the idea of representing the design principles in a model which involved drawing on more than intellectual capabilities, but also the human capabilities that ideally should be developed to benefit a future global community in solving complex challenges. As the practitioner and I engaged in dialogue we began to discuss possibilities for an organising principle for the model. Most pertinently, in our last meeting we had discussed the concept of 'discovery', and my imagination had been sparked by the deep resonance of this word for him. He emphasised that this was so much part of what it meant to be human, and I knew that it was a necessary quality in finding solutions to complex problems. I reflected on this over time, thinking about what was it that made people wish to discover, and gradually it became clear to me that it was because people were curious. So in order to engage in learning, it is essential to tap into the aspect of our being that is 'curiosity'. It was a characteristic drawn on in the learning experience in several learning theories (Bruner, 1961, 1996; Dewey, 1938; Jackson, 2009; Loewenstein, 1994; Piaget, 1951). This human characteristic was definitely one that was drawn on in learning through the use of the Harvard case study method, for instance, in terms of the use of narrative and the posing of a challenge. In fact, in any business school pedagogy, or any learning model or methodology in general, was curiosity not a fundamental human capability to be valued?

As I looked at the other design principles, I determined what human capabilities they tapped into, and began to search through existing learning theories to grasp an understanding of how each human capability was drawn upon. For instance, the 'sticky' component involved how much learning stayed in the learner's mind after the learning experience, which mean it tapped into *imagination* and this was evident in the learning theory literature (Dirkx, 1997, 2001; Egan, 1992). After this I began to get excited, thinking that perhaps I could look at all of the other design principles to see if it was possible to organise and classify each of them on a similar basis. By tapping into generally accepted views of human capabilities and learning, I carefully selected human capabilities that were drawn upon in descriptions of each principle. I worked through each one, and it seemed very possible to inform and organise them in this way. For instance, *emotion* was a common theme for O'Keeffe in terms of embedding it in the learning experience, and each of the delivery techniques he used strongly influenced emotion in a positive way, such as the use of small family-sized learning groups which made learners feel like they belonged. Furthermore, this resulted in deep and powerful learning, and there were several learning theories which involved drawing on emotion in the learning process (Dirkx, 2001; Goleman, 1998; Ingleton, 1999; Strebel & Keys, 2005; Sylwester, 1994).

To felt that in order to activate the design principle which involved learners seeing themselves as part of and understanding humanity it would be necessary to draw on moral intuition, which is a theme strongly represented in the management education literature (Ghoshal, 2005; Khurana, 2007;

Khurana & Nohria, 2008; Khurana, Nohria, & Penrice, 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). It was also represented in the learning theory literature, such as in the work of Brookfield (1998) and Kohlberg (1971; 1983). Other human capabilities that would be drawn on were also dominant themes in the management education literature, such as *self-awareness* (Argyris, 1982, 2002, 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis, & MacKee, 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2003; Mintzberg, 2004) and *collaboration* (Datar, Garvin, & Cullen, 2011; Mintzberg, 2004). There are several learning theories in which self-awareness (Bandura, 1999; Knowles, 1973; Maslow, 1943; Mezirow, 1993; Rogers, 1951) and collaboration (Bandura, 1971; Bruner, 1961, 1996; Deutsch, 1949; Dewey, 1938; Siemens, 2014; Vygotsky, 1978, 1980) play a key role. In attempting to explain reality during the learning experience, I felt that experience would be ideally tapped on the learning process. The role of *experience* featured strongly in the focus in experiential learning in management education literature (Kolb, 1984, 2014; Mintzberg, 2004), and was a key factor in the learning theories of several educational theorists (Dewey, 1938; Lewin, 1946; Maslow, 1943; Piaget, 1951).

In the case of each design principle, the human characteristic selected is not the only one that is drawn on in the learning process, but it is the most dominant. After I had worked through these views of human characteristics and the list of associated design principles, I revisited the theoretical evidence from the three earlier literature reviews on the Harvard case study method, MBA education in the past, and MBA education in the future. I also looked meticulously through the findings of the empirical Zoo survey and the dialogue with the practitioner, O'Keeffe. I was convinced that I was on the right path, and the capabilities I felt were dominantly tapped on by each prototype design principle are revealed in ***Table 1***. Although these human capabilities listed aim to represent those that are required to be drawn on and developed in this broader approach to management education, there is much work still to be done in order to refine them.

| *General human capability tapped on…* | | *Prototype design principle* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ***emotion*** | **LEARNING ENVIRONMENT** | **1** | **Learning should be enhanced through the physical and emotional setting and then by doing certain activities**<br>Emotion is tapped on in the learning process because methods are used – such as size of learning group or technology choice – that enables deep and powerful learning. |
| ***moral intuition*** | **HUMANITY AND ME** | **2** | **Learners should see themselves as being part of and understanding humanity**<br>Moral intuition is tapped on in the learning process because content is used – such as an understanding of purpose and belonging or human instincts – which results in a deeper understanding of humanity and the contemporary moral and ethical role business leaders play in the global community. |
| ***self-awareness*** | **SELF-AWARENESS** | **3** | **Learners should challenge their worldview in order to sense-make and make choices**<br>Self-awareness is tapped on in the learning process because content and method is used – such as drawing on mental models or reflection – which improve self-knowledge and understanding of worldviews in order to make better choices as a leader. |
| ***collaboration*** | **COLLABORATION** | **4** | **In the learning process it is important that learners embrace diversity and learn by sharing**<br>Collaboration is tapped on in the learning process because content and method are used – such as sharing by example or drawing on a global mindset – which enable working together towards a common goal, valuing diversity, and sharing experiences. |
| ***curiosity*** | **ENGAGEMENT** | **5** | **Inquiring immersion should be facilitated so that learners are moved to be involved in the learning process**<br>Curiosity is tapped on in the learning process because methods are used – such as the provision of a challenge or story – which foster engagement. |
| ***experience*** | **MATCHING REALITY** | **6** | **The content and learning process should explain reality to learners**<br>Experience is tapped on in the learning process because content and method are used – such as practical and useful examples that are immediately implementable – is used to help understand the reality of being a business leader. |
| ***imagination*** | **STICKY** | **7** | **Learners should be helped to remember with memorable and generative 'sticky' methods and content**<br>Imagination is tapped on in the learning experience because content and method is used – such as memorable concepts or applied examples – which help the learning to stay in the mind of the learner. |

**Table 1: Human capabilities primarily tapped on by each prototype design principle**

As can be seen, the design principles have as their organising principle the concept of certain general human capabilities: drawing on different aspects of the self that are integral to the learning process, and which also reflect the needs of the global community. Without necessarily intending to organise the principles in this way, it aligned well with evolutionary psychology. As will be seen in the next section, general human capabilities that have been identified here are reflected in the evolutionary psychology literature (Cosmides & Tooby, 1997, 2000, 2002) and discussions about a universal human nature. For instance, Brown (2004) identifies co-operative behaviour, reciprocity, empathy, and emotions as traits that are common across all cultures globally. In the case of evolutionary psychology theory, arguments in support of each principle relate to the idea that there are an

embedded set of human characteristics and capabilities which developed over millions of years in response to specific challenges in the ancestral environment[24]. The discipline of evolutionary psychology provides a perspective on how learning and behavioural change can draw on these embedded characteristics (Nicholson, 2000).

[24] To put this into the context of a timeline, as it is difficult to imagine a life different to what we experience today, humans have evolved over millions of years as hunter gatherers living 'a camping trip that lasted a lifetime' (Cosmides & Tooby, 2004, p. 96), and it is only in the last 10,000 years that this shifted into more organised forms of existence. The industrial age has only been around for the past 200 years, and thus challenges in the modern environment over this shorter time period have not had enough time to impact on changes to the psychological architecture of the brain. For this reason it is argued that there are mismatches in terms of what our ancestral stone-age man was exposed to, and what modern man has to deal with today, in turn often negating the adaptive use of some psychological mechanisms (for example, the adapted human psychological mechanism of taste for sugar, salt and fat has led to significant health problems across the world) (Confer et al., 2010a).

# Appendix Q: Neo-Harvard Case Study Method Prototype: Final Prototype for 2-Day MBA OB Session

These are the details of the neo-Harvard case study method pedagogical prototype for the MBA setting, based on the seven design principles which emerged from the research process. This programme is to be held at Taronga Zoo over a 2-day period, and further details are provided on the existing programme in ***Appendix H***.

## Pre-programme

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials | Teaching method | Design principle |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Invitation to online blog/website created for this programme* | • *Provides a medium through which to learn collaboratively*<br>• *Provides a way to communicate directly with students, enabling deeper levels of learning*<br>• *Gives insight into nature of student complement*<br>• *In line with human instincts framework 'first impressions' – shows there is interest in their particular challenges*<br>• *Provides insight to participants to themselves about the way they learn*<br>• *Introduce some of the underlying concepts* | *Posting of story of self as leader*<br><br>*Evolutionary psychology theory*<br><br>*Online learning quiz* | • *Online - request participants to register and give an idea of what they expect from the programme*<br>• *Report main challenges in manager position*<br>• *Online quiz to determine your learning style e.g. www.learning-styles-online.com – link to self-awareness.*<br>• *HBR Review article (Inner Work Life) posted as prior reading*<br>• *Facilitate conversation and learning after the posting of reflections at the end of the programme, and the posting of story of self as leader* | **1, 3** |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Pre-prepared 1-page story of self as leader* | • *Learning from each other*<br>• *Learning about self and ones set of assumptions*<br><br>*Each of these stories is to be discussed later on in small groups of 4 – what can be learned from each story about the challenges involved in being a leader?* | | *Prior to the programme, participants post a pre-prepared one-page story online of their biggest current challenge as a leader. Start the narrative with the following: 'Everything was going well until…..'*<br><br>*Write in the third person and include a section on (1) assumptions about your role and responsibilities, how the organisation works and the behaviour of people (2) the perspectives of others around you and at different levels in the organisation (3) what has been tried. If you would like to, include a multi-media aspect to illustrate your personal experience, making it as real as possible – take short videos, use the web, organisational material, social networking sites.*<br><br>**MARKS AWARDED ** | **1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6** |

## Day 1 (8:30-16:30)

| Subject | | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials | Teaching method | Design principle |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8:30 | Welcome and introductions | • Business context<br>• Icebreaker<br>• Gives something to talk about in breaks | | Small groups, each person shares something about themselves that no-one else would know | 1 |
| 9:00 | *Zoo display of homo sapiens* | • *To generate thinking about what makes us human*<br>• *Creates buy-in regarding the idea of human instincts as the report back to plenary almost always matches up to the nine human instincts* | | • *Replicating a zoo display but with focus on homo sapiens with real person/s (actor) inside: make it humorous yet meaningful. This display would be in the zoo conference centre where the training takes place.*<br>• *Small groups discuss human characteristics* | 1, 5, 7 |

| Subject | | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials | Teaching method | Design principle |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9:20 | The nine human instincts | • Resonates as it is familiar and meaningful<br>• Interesting as unusual yet offers a new 'lens' to understand people<br>• Relevant as is practically useful<br>• Stories and pictures offer memorable accounts of each instinct | • A4 Laminate<br>• ***Logos***<br>• Stories<br>• Pictures | • Presentation using stories and pictures<br>• ***Visual for each instinct (like a logo) – simple yet impactful and meaningful.*** | 1, 2, 5, 7 |
| 10:20 | MORNING TEA | | | | |
| 10:45 | ***Leader and chimp behaviour*** | • ***To show four specific corporate leadership behaviours:- hierarchy, dominance/submission, gossip, social belonging (eg silos)*** | | • ***Actors acting out human instincts live compared to chimp video clips for specific leadership behaviours*** | 1, 3, 5, 7 |
| 11:30 | Chimpanzee instincts | • Zoo location interesting as it is unusual<br>• Beautiful surroundings to stimulate aesthetic sense<br>• Offers an 'open space' to think new things<br>• Offers connection to nature/primates<br>• Unpacking of primate metaphor shows that human behaviour is similar to that of primates<br>• Unpacking of zoo metaphor enables a zoological view of humans<br>• Practical hands-on experience with primates offers credibility and interest<br>• Personalisation of primate individual stories engages<br>• Physical reminder of primate similarity to humans | Guest speaker JGI and keeper<br><br>Themes covered include chimpanzee behaviour | • Visit the chimps to observe their behaviour firsthand<br>• Presentation by the chimp keeper and JGI representative about chimp behaviour including several personalised stories about individual chimps<br>• Stories<br>• Metaphors | 1, 2, 5, 7 |
| 12:30 | Seeing the patterns | • How are we similar, different and what organisation behaviours now make more sense<br>• Participants see for themselves and learn from others | Material covered on the patterns between humans and chimps in the Hardwired Humans manual – included are exercises in seeing the similarities and | • Syndicate debrief | 1, 4, 5, 7 |

| Subject | | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials | Teaching method | Design principle |
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| | | | differences, and observations about what now makes sense about behaviour in the workplace | | |
| 13:15 | LUNCH | | | | |
| 13.45 | ***Theory and main assumptions of evolutionary psychology*** | ***Provides MBAs with the theory behind the framework - offers scientific support for the ideas in the programme regarding human instincts, chimpanzee instincts and evolutionary psychology*** | • ***Material provided about evolutionary psychology theory***<br>• ***Further material and web links provided on customised website***<br>• ***Audio-visual of Stone-Age challenges faced*** | • ***Brief plenary discussion***<br>• ***Scientific evidence in support of it and website links, including neuroscience***<br>• ***Links to various multi-media online websites*** | 1, 5 |
| 14:05 | Organisation design | • Using natural principles to design for function - 6 principles (see ***Appendix H*** for more detail)<br>• Offer memorable examples of human instincts in practice<br>• Moving on from concept to practice | • Example of organisations' structures in Hardwired Humans manual<br>• Playing cards for design<br>• A quiz on your organisation | • Stories<br>• Syndicate groups of four asked to look at three specific organisational design examples – asked to redesign using human instinct principles using 'playing cards' of different organisational design components that need to be moved around until the design makes sense<br>• Plenary debrief<br>• Quiz assessing the design of own organisation<br>• Review of an example in plenary | 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 |
| 15:05 | AFTERNOON TEA | | | | |
| 15:30 | Persuasion and influence | • Shows speed in which people classify<br>• First 7 words helps people to remember<br>• Themes are drawn out through the interactive | • Stories<br>• Pictures<br>• Scenarios | • Stories and pictures used to explain concept<br>• Example of famous politician – story and pictures<br>• Individual exercise to use first 7 words to | 1, 2, 5, 6, |

| Subject | | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials | Teaching method | Design principle |
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| | | group and individual work | • See ***Appendix H*** for the principles regarding the first 7 words | persuade airline staff member to change flight<br>• Working in pairs to apply the first seven words in a number of workplace situations | 7 |
| | | Overnight reading about the application of human instincts to a real situation | Thales case | Hand out short Thales case (in ***Appendix R***) where human instincts has been applied. This local Australian case example provides the opportunity to understand the different ways in which to apply the human instincts. | 1, 6 |
| **Day 2 (Morning 8:00-13:00)** | | | | | |
| 8:00 | Check-in | • Reflections overnight - the gossip test<br>• Participants realise that they see themselves and others differently<br>• Helps managers to make good choices<br>• Can help to separate fads from enduring practices at work | 'Gossip test' described in ***Appendix H*** | Plenary group discussion | 1, 2, 3 |
| 8:30 | Gossip, cliques and team dynamics | • Role of gossip and grooming<br>• Understanding team dynamics – your own gossip map<br>• Shows the impact of a restructure and what reactions there can be<br>• % time grooming<br>• Grooming rituals<br>• Sharing of experiences<br>• Participants get to understand how the development of personal relationships, such as regular one-on-ones, improves the quality of team dynamics | • Gossip Map example and exercise in Hardwired Humans manual<br>• Exercise in manual to determine % of time spent with each team member<br>• Gossip and rumour – mobile phone cards (see ***Appendix H*** for detail) | • ***In small groups of four:- (a) share a good experience of what you have done or observed (b) what do you currently do that does represent bonding (c) what could you start doing differently? Random pick of three examples for plenary discussion.***<br>• Groups of three discuss the impact of an email from the CEO regarding a restructure and how gossip was expected to unfold - use of mock mobile phone with possible messages that would be sent – groups asked to identify 4 reasons why gossip would be occurring<br>• Example given of 'gossip map' – a circle representing the team where lines are drawn to each person in the team | 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7 |

| Subject | | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials | Teaching method | Design principle |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | • Each individual draws own gossip map | |
| 10:00 | MORNING TEA | | | | |
| 10:20 | Change management | Conventional wisdom is wrong – that "people resist change"<br><br>We would always have expected our leaders to lead us in response to changes in our external environment<br><br>Loss aversion a key concept because it helps us understand change – when people first hear about change and are unsure of how to classify it, they default to 'loss' (see ***Appendix H***) | • Exercise in Hardwired Humans manual on perceptions of how to deal with various change scenarios<br>• Example scenarios for applying human instincts to lead change well | • Discussion about why change is not resisted, but loss aversion is hardwired<br>• Working in teams discussing various scenarios of real situations, ***including the Thales case study handed out at the end of the previous day*** | 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 |
| 11:50 | ***Story of self as leader – application*** | • ***The idea is to appreciate the power of collaboration, examine assumptions and share different perspectives of how to arrive at a leadership solution***<br>• ***To debrief and highlight the key learnings in the programme*** | HBR Inner Work life article<br>***A4 laminate***<br><br>***Each participant's story of self*** | • Begin the session by discussing the Inner Work Life HBR article which deals with seeing the interplay of emotions and impressions on motivation and performance (see ***Appendix H***)<br>• ***In groups of four discuss your pre-prepared story of self as leader. Once you have presented your challenge, turn your chair away from the group and listen quietly whilst they work towards a solution to your challenge. Afterwards three stories are randomly picked to discuss in the plenary.*** | 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 |
| ***Post-programme*** | | | | | |

| Subject | Reason | Section of Manual and Materials | Teaching method | Design principle |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Key 'takeaways' about (1) self at work and at home (2) the importance of relationships and their impact on collaboration and diversity management (3) the impact of choice as a leader in the organisation and the community (4) people management* | *To encourage insight about each of these aspects and how fresh insight from the human instincts framework has changed thinking* | *Feedback from participants regarding the learning*<br><br>*Feedback from others in response* | *Online - directly after the programme each participant posts their reflections at an online website*<br><br>**MARKS AWARDED ** | 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 |
| *Story of application of human instincts framework in the workplace* | • *To encourage application and reinforce the learning in this programme*<br>• *To share these findings and encourage interaction and discussion online* | *Each participant's story of self*<br><br>*Feedback from others in response* | *Online - participants post a story online six weeks after the programme about how they have applied the human instincts framework to a challenge they have faced at work. These are posted on a blog that all students have access to so that they can be shared. Feedback is welcomed on these applications.*<br>**MARKS AWARDED ** | 1, 6, 7 |

# Appendix R: Hardwired Humans MBA Prototype: The Case

This case is used in the MBA prototype programme in order to show how the human instincts can be applied.

## ‘The Island’, ‘The Palace’ or ‘The Dungeon’?

## Human Instincts Playing a Role in the Relocation of Thales Australia

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Wendy Stamp, newly appointed Project Manager – Site Transitions for Thales, smiled wryly to herself. It was 7am and she had left home only a block away from Garden Island, arriving at work to a deluge of emails. The first one she opened was from one of the top tier managers who was irate about the fact that once he moved away from the Island he would have to relinquish his office with its unbeatable water views. He wanted clarity immediately about what was happening! When and where would the relocation happen? After all, there had been months of uncertainty and gossip was rife about what might happen. She knew that once staff heard that a decision had been made about moving to a new building at Sydney Olympic Park and an existing site at Rydalmere, all hell would break loose.

Stamp was exceptionally organised, determined and used to getting things done quickly. She had recently been very successful in managing a smaller but complicated Thales relocation in Brisbane and was eager to get on with making this move happen, but her instincts told her that this time she would need to tread far more carefully. This was a much more complex move in that it impacted on almost 900 staff members many of whom were strongly attached to the Garden Island site, which had been there for the past fourteen years. She too loved the Island, and life was certainly ideal for her living so close by - she had a lot to lose when they relocated. She pondered the options in terms of how to manage the people dimensions of this move, and knew she urgently had to talk to Vice-President of HR Liz Bell and Gerald Richardson from the HR team. They had already decided to make use of the human instincts model and now they needed to strategise. Which of the human instincts resonated and how could they best be used to engage employees to gain acceptance of the change process at Thales Australia? They needed to decide on their strategy before working with the person primarily responsible for managing the move - Ashley Deacon, recently appointed Manager of the Thales Property team.

### *Thales on Garden Island*

Thales had leased their premises on Garden Island from the Commonwealth Government for seven years. The history of the organisation went back much further than that as it had previously been known as Australian Defence Industries (ADI), an organisation contracted to service the Royal Australian Navy and which had been on Garden Island for a further seven years. Besides being one of Australia’s Defence Force most trusted partners, Thales Australia was a leading international electronics and systems group serving the defence, aerospace and space, security, and transport markets globally. An important part of their business was based around ship maintenance and repair and for this reason their presence on Garden Island was strategically important. As part of the sale of ADI, the deal had been sweetened by offering more than favourable lease terms and a relatively large footprint on Garden Island until mid-2013. Thus from the very beginning, Thales knew that they would need to move off the site by that time.

Garden Island was located at the northern end of the inner city suburb of Potts Point in Sydney, one of the most densely populated areas in Australia. Thales employees felt very much at home on this historic and iconic naval site, and appreciated the beautiful water views and exciting naval and dockside action. The office buildings occupied by employees were old but the Island seemed to possess a life of its own, and was characterised by changeable weather and a host of enigmatic artefacts and historic sites. For instance, few outside of the site knew of the intricate web of

underground tunnels lying below Garden Island and extending out towards the City. Because of Thales's location directly adjacent to the naval base, security at the entrance was tight, and it was possible to walk freely between the Thales office buildings around the Island. Over the years Thales had introduced various privileges that made life very comfortable. There were on-site parking facilities at no cost to the individual and shuttles to the train stations and the city at the end of the day, but also at lunchtimes, addressing the shortfalls of the site in terms of its inconvenient location.

## *Relocating amidst Uncertainty and against Time*

Although in lease terms there had always been clarity about the timeframe within which Thales would need to vacate Garden Island, it was only in a year before the end of the lease that an official announcement was made about the sites that had been chosen for relocation purposes. This was partly because it was not an easy process to find a site that could accommodate such a large and diversified organisation, but it was also because Thales had been hoping to be able to renegotiate new lease terms with the Commonwealth Government. Before the official announcement there had been considerable speculation amongst employees about what would happen, and they were very uncomfortable. Multiple sites in the Sydney area had been considered, and Stamp was impatient for everyone to hear about them. She observed 'I think if we had been able to get some of that out sooner it would have reduced the sense of cloak and dagger decision-making which was people's experience of things.' In any event, Stamp felt that they were way behind where they needed to be in terms of the management of this change process.

## *Approach to the Relocation*

Since 2011 there had been a few attempts by HR to draw on Stamp's skill-set in the anticipated relocation process, but the Property team had preferred to wait until there was clarity about where the new sites would be located. They felt that the first thing that employees should hear was exactly where they were moving to, and so they focused on their negotiation process. In April 2012 Ashley Deacon was announced as the new Manager of Property, and became responsible for the Garden Island relocation initiative. He had limited experience in this kind of position, and found that he had to play 'catch-up' in rather a hurry: not only did he need to learn about the built process, he also needed to know about a variety of non-property issues that were critical to the project. He liked the idea of an Integrated Project Team (ITP) structure to help him in managing the relocation process. The ITP team was comprised of ten high level stakeholders who were key decision-makers representing each of the Thales business functions and business domains. It also included MovePlan, an external move and change management consultancy.

Once Stamp and HR became involved in the IPT it became more urgent for them to firm up their approach from a people perspective. They engaged Andrew O'Keeffe of Hardwired Humans as they believed the human instincts model would be extremely useful in the relocation process. They knew his approach of using knowledge of human instincts in managing change had been used in a number of other projects and was familiar to many staff members. With an earlier relocation of staff in Canberra in particular, Thales had successfully drawn on this framework as the method for managing the people aspects of the move. And Bell noted that: 'Managers always find human instincts easier than a lot of other HR speak - they can identify with it and it sort of amuses them too with the apes, so I think they tend to remember it better than some of the other approaches we would use.'

Stamp and Richardson were very happy to have O'Keeffe involved, and Richardson observed that: 'This is really when the kick-off was - once we had a conversation with Andrew everything sort of blossomed out from there. We started to put a structure and approach together from that point.' The approach was centred on Hardwired Humans' framework of nine human behaviours which provided a basis for predicting and planning for the human response. There were some key elements of the framework that could be used by project teams to create detailed plans for managing the people dimension of the move.

## *Main Challenges in Moving*

There were three different sites involved in the relocation. Of the 900 employees impacted by this relocation, just short of 300 would move to an entirely new site and building at Sydney Olympic Park, 270 to another existing Sydney site at Rydalmere, and around 180 would stay at Garden Island (there were also around 150 contractors on the Island). The challenges faced by those managing the relocation process were very different depending on the location of the new premises.

### *'What's happened to my office?' - Sydney Olympic Park*

Those that would be moving to Sydney Olympic Park would be faced with settling into an entirely new unfamiliar place that was located inland almost twenty kilometres west of Garden Island. The innovative five storey custom-designed building with brand new office furniture became known amongst Thales employees as 'The Palace' or 'The Ivory Tower'. In this building open plan offices would be constructed, and parking would be limited as the locale was built up and commercial. From a bricks and mortar point of view, the key challenge was to get the design constructed and the fit out on budget and to schedule. This site would be the new Corporate Thales Australia office, and for the first time all the business functions would be housed under the same roof. The issues of most concern in moving to this site were parking and the commute/travel, open plan offices, history and corporate identity. The issue that Stamp felt was most difficult to resolve, however, was the new office format of open plan offices.

Whilst at Garden Island employees had been housed in various buildings across the site, and many of them in their own offices, the move to Sydney Olympic Park was significant in that only open plan office space was available. The CEO himself also had an open plan arrangement, and each business function would be housed together in this format with a number of meeting rooms situated nearby. The decision was particularly concerning to those who had previously had their own office, and even more so those who had enjoyed scenic Sydney Harbour views from the comfort of their desks.

### *'We are being invaded!' - Rydalmere*

At Rydalmere it was quite a different story as this was already an existing Thales site, occupied by the very successful and highly technical Underwater Systems business domain. The site was 26 kilometres north-west of Garden Island, and 11 kilometres from Sydney Olympic Park. Underwater Systems had a long history having been there through various business ownership iterations, and over the years most Thales employees had been to the site at some time or other. The buildings were old but large, and the overall site was vast and underutilised. Previously it had housed up to 600 people and because the staff component had more than halved over the years, the 230 current employees enjoyed ample office space. Whilst Sydney Olympic Park was a corporate facility, Rydalmere was a technical facility and it was envisaged that it would become a new Technology and Innovation facility. Overall, the chief challenges here were parking and commute/travel, a perceived invasion, parity within and across sites, and the absence of a single dominant leader present on the site.

Because there were more people moving onto the site than those already on the site, Stamp felt this was the issue needing the most attention. A total of 270 employees from another three Thales business domains were envisaged to shift onto this site, and more at a later date. The concern was that Underwater Systems employees would feel swallowed up in the process. Not only did they all need to move out of their offices and be reshuffled around in a more condensed office format, they also had to share their parking with the new entrants. Until now Rydalmere had a very proud Underwater Systems identity, but with the merging of the other domains this would change. The challenge was to ensure that each business domain could find a way to retain their own sense of identity, and that those in the Underwater Systems business domain did not become overly defensive. At the same time a new common corporate identity would need to be forged and existing working relationships would need to change.

Linked to a sense of invasion was the issue of parity. Some sections of the old building were being refurbished and some were not. There were certain areas where employees would be able to have their own offices, whilst some were purely open plan. Furthermore, in some areas there would be brand new office furniture whilst in others old furniture from Garden Island was going to be refurbished.

Some office areas had windows, and some did not. In particular, there was one laboratory area that needed to be secure and was thus built in vault-like fashion without access to natural light. There was considerable resistance to the idea of working in this area as there had been nothing like this at Garden Island, and the area became known as 'The Dungeon'.

### *'But what about us?' - Garden Island*

Many of the employees who were to be left behind at Garden Island were blue collar workers who had worked at this site for most of their working lives. Although they remained on site after the relocation, all employees had to move office in that they were consolidated into only a few buildings. It had taken a long time to determine whether there would be a Thales presence on the island at all, and although this had been extended in the short term a definite future Thales footprint remained uncertain. The challenges on Garden Island included parity across sites, corporate identity and loss of status.

The perceived inequality between the three sites involved in the relocation became the most difficult challenge for management to resolve at Garden Island. There had been no significant changes made to the offices in at least ten years. Because a new lease agreement had been reached on no more than two more years on site, the Thales Property Group did not wish to overinvest in the buildings. Instead they planned on a 'deep clean paint' and light refurbishment of the buildings with open plan offices and some new kitchen areas. In fact, the office space had been improved substantially from what these workers had previously experienced. This was, however, very different to the brand new building and office equipment at Sydney Olympic Park, or the new additions at Rydalmere, and there was a perception that employees had lost out quite considerably which led to a feeling of resentment. Stamp summarised the feeling with a quote from an email she received 'But what about us? We've just been left behind and nobody's paying us any attention. Garden Island used to be the corporate centre of Thales in Australia and now we are just a small peripheral site.'

## *What Instincts were Key to this Relocation?*

Stamp and the HR team worked closely with O'Keeffe in determining which of the human instincts were key to managing this relocation from Garden Island. They knew that the human instincts could appear 'invisible', and their absence could result in the people aspects unravelling, so they wanted to be sure to identify the most appropriate ones. What could they be, and how could they best be used to engage employees to gain acceptance of the change process at Thales Australia?

- end of case -

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