



*The leadership of university academics in research - Case studies of hospitality management.*

BALL, Stephen D.

Available from the Sheffield Hallam University Research Archive (SHURA) at:

<http://shura.shu.ac.uk/19308/>

## A Sheffield Hallam University thesis

This thesis is protected by copyright which belongs to the author.

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the author.

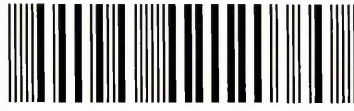
When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given.

Please visit <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/19308/> and <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/information.html> for further details about copyright and re-use permissions.

Sheffield S1 1WB

24935

101 768 454 5



T

**Fines are charged at 50p per hour**

25 JUL 2007 SPL

ProQuest Number: 10694189

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10694189

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code  
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.  
789 East Eisenhower Parkway  
P.O. Box 1346  
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

**The Leadership of University Academics in  
Research - Case Studies of Hospitality  
Management**

**Stephen Douglas Ball**

*A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment  
of the requirements of Sheffield Hallam University  
for the Doctorate of Education*

**April 2004**



## ABSTRACT

The concept of leadership has become of considerable importance in the development of policy and practice in educational settings (Bennett, Crawford and Cartwright, 2003). For universities leadership is a key issue and, at a time of major change, is increasingly regarded as beneficial to improved performance across all activities. Research by academics is one area where discussions are often couched in terms of leadership. This study investigated research undertaken by university academics and took the leadership of research as its theme.

The aim of this research was to develop a deeper understanding of the role of leadership as it relates to research by university academics. To this end a critical review of the literature was undertaken to examine the university context and concepts and theories of research and leadership. Through two case studies a particular focus was given to the leadership of hospitality university academics in research.

More specifically the objectives of the study were:

- To examine the university and hospitality management education contexts and the concepts of research and leadership.
- To conceptualise and theorise leadership for university research.
- To investigate leadership in hospitality management research at the subject group level and to explore the leadership activities of recognised research leaders.
- To evaluate perceived factors which influence research leadership.
- To field test the relevance of research leadership to the conduct of research.

The primary research employed a qualitative research design and a case study strategy was adopted. Twenty semi structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with a range of academics from heads of school to lecturers in a pre-1992 and a post-1992 university. The findings derived from interview transcripts, the review of documentary materials and the analysis of reflective notes.

Detailed insights and examples of academic leadership in universities were revealed and new ways of thinking about research leadership developed. A view of research leadership emerged which included that research leadership is important; the context of leadership is crucial; leadership is both formal and informal and varies according to social systems; that it is dispersed; that self-leadership exists; that it is complex and possesses many relationship patterns and that it is concerned with the leadership of people and the leadership of the subject. One of the main conclusions is that the presence of formal research leaders in universities does not mean that the leadership of academics in research will occur. Furthermore, any leadership of university academics in research is often accidental. This implies that a planned approach to the leadership of academics in research requires attention being afforded to the role and practices of the formal research leader.

# CONTENTS

<b>ABSTRACT</b>	(i)
<b>LIST OF CONTENTS</b>	(ii)
<b>LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES</b>	(vi)
<b>LIST OF APPENDICES</b>	(viii)
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b>	(ix)
<b>DECLARATION</b>	(xi)
<b>1. INTRODUCTION</b>	1
1.1 Introduction to the theme of the research	1
1.2 The background and focus of the research	2
1.3 The rationale for the research	6
1.4 The contribution to knowledge	7
1.5 The research aim and objectives	7
1.6 Approach to, and structure of, the dissertation	8
<b>PART I</b>	
<b>2. THE UNIVERSITY CONTEXT FOR RESEARCH</b>	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Universities within the UK	10
2.3 Change in the UK university system	12
2.4 Hospitality management education in UK universities	17
2.5 Conclusion	18
<b>3. ACADEMIC RESEARCH</b>	20
3.1 Introduction	20
3.2 The nature of research	21
3.3 Research and context	23
3.4 Academic research and scholarship	24
3.5 The research-teaching interrelationship	25
3.6 Academic researchers and subject-based research structures	26
3.7 The development of hospitality management research in UK universities	27
3.8 Conclusion	28
<b>4. LEADERSHIP IN UNIVERSITIES: A CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL EXPLORATION</b>	29
4.1 Introduction	29
4.2 Defining leadership	30
4.3 Leaders and the leadership relationship	31
4.4 Theories and models of leadership	33
4.5 Leadership and management	36
4.6 Leadership in universities	37
4.7 Research leadership within universities	39
4.8 Limitations to research leadership	43
4.9 Conclusion	44

## **PART II**

<b>5. THE PRIMARY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES, DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND EXECUTION</b>	<b>46</b>
5.1 Introduction	46
5.2 Objectives of primary research	46
5.3 The primary research approach – justification for the selection of a qualitative research design	47
5.3.1 The selection of a case study strategy	49
5.3.2 The organisations selected for case studies	50
5.3.3 The determination of target respondent numbers and the selection of respondents	50
5.4 Data collection methods	51
5.4.1 Interview schedule	54
5.4.1.1 Pilot work	56
5.4.1.2 Interview administration	56
5.4.1.3 Researching ones' peers and access and ethical considerations	56
5.4.1.4 The research participants and the participation rate	60
5.4.2 Documentation	61
5.4.3 The credibility of the research findings	61
5.5 The analysis of the collected qualitative interview data	62
5.6 Summary	67
 <b>6. THE REPORTING AND PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS – LETHBURY, THE PRE-1992 UNIVERSITY</b>	 <b>69</b>
6.1 Introduction	69
6.2 University background	70
6.3 Profiles of the respondents	70
6.4 Research	70
6.4.1 Conceptions of the nature of research	70
6.4.2 Types of research	73
6.4.3 Research, scholarship and consultancy	74
6.4.4 The nature of hospitality management research	75
6.4.5 The level of importance attached to research	77
6.4.6 Time spent researching	80
6.4.7 Factors influencing the conduct of research	81
6.5 Research Leaders	83
6.5.1 Conceptions and perceptions of research leaders	83
6.5.2 The nature of the job of a research leader	86
6.5.3 Effective and non-effective research leaders	87
6.6 Research leadership	89
6.6.1 Research leadership relationships and the participants involved	89
6.6.2 Defining research leadership	95
6.6.3 The feasibility and need for research leadership	96
6.6.4 Approach to research leadership	97
6.6.5 Good and poor research leadership	98



6.6.6	Influence of context on research and research leadership	98
6.7	Summary	100
<b>7.</b>	<b>THE REPORTING AND PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS – STURRIDGE, THE POST-1992 UNIVERSITY</b>	<b>102</b>
7.1	Introduction	102
7.2	University background	102
7.3	Profiles of the respondents	102
7.4	Research	103
7.4.1	Conceptions of the nature of research	103
7.4.2	Types of research	105
7.4.3	Research, scholarship and consultancy	106
7.4.4	The nature of hospitality management research	107
7.4.5	The level of importance attached to research	107
7.4.6	Time spent researching	112
7.4.7	Factors influencing the conduct of research	113
7.5	Research leaders	116
7.5.1	Conceptions and perceptions of research leaders	116
7.5.2	The nature of the job of a research leader	118
7.5.3	Effective and non-effective research leaders	119
7.6	Research leadership	123
7.6.1	Research leadership relationships and the participants involved	123
7.6.2	Defining research leadership	126
7.6.3	The feasibility and need for research leadership	128
7.6.4	Approach to research leadership	130
7.6.5	Good and poor research leadership	130
7.6.6	Influence of context on research and research leadership	131
7.7	Summary	133
<b>8.</b>	<b>THE ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS</b>	<b>135</b>
8.1	Introduction	135
8.2	Conceptions of research	136
8.3	Conceptions and distinctiveness of hospitality management research	138
8.4	The importance attached to research	138
8.5	Research leaders	139
8.6	Research leadership	142
8.7	Summary and conclusions	146
<b>PART III</b>		
<b>9.</b>	<b>CONCLUSIONS AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE</b>	<b>148</b>
9.1	Introduction	148
9.2	Conclusions	149

9.3 Implications for professional practice	158
9.4 Reflections upon the primary research design and the methods employed	161
9.5 Recommendations for further research	162

<b>REFERENCES</b>	164
-------------------	-----

<b>APPENDICES</b>	174
-------------------	-----

# LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure 2.1	Four university models and their features	16
Figure 4.1	The traditional and alternate views of leadership	36
Figure 4.2	University cultures and leadership for academic research at subject group level	39
Figure 4.3	Examples of ways leaders can promote research via transformational and transactional leadership	42
Table 5.1	Strengths of techniques used to gather qualitative data	52
Table 5.2	Weaknesses of techniques used to gather qualitative data	53
Table 5.3	The profiles of the respondents	60
Figure 5.2	The initial template for the analysis of the qualitative data	64
Figure 5.3	Hierarchy of stages and processes of qualitative analysis	66
Table 5.4	A summary of selected features of the design and methods of the research study about academic research leadership in universities	68
Figure 6.1	A pen portrait of the respondents at the University of Lethbury	71
Figure 6.2	Barriers to increased personal research	81
Figure 6.3	Professor Reiner Fir's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury	91
Figure 6.4	Professor Andrea Cherry's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury	91
Figure 6.5	Professor Paul Hughes's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury	92
Figure 6.6	Keith Redwood's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury	92
Figure 6.7	Alec Beech's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury	93
Figure 6.8	Frank Oak's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury	93
Figure 7.1	A pen portrait of the respondents at the University of Sturridge	103
Figure 7.2	Suggested reasons for research being important in Sturridge	108
Figure 7.3	Peter Iron's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury	124
Figure 8.1	Analysis of universities and their contexts	147

Figure 8.2	Analysis of hospitality management research leaders in the two universities	147
Figure 9.1	The view of research leadership	158

# LIST OF APPENDICES

<b>Appendix 1</b> The UK institutional members of the Council for Hospitality Management Education	174
<b>Appendix 2</b> Letter sent to head of department at the University of Sturridge in July/August 2002	175
<b>Appendix 3</b> Example letter sent to identified potential respondent at the University of Lethbury in August 2002	177
<b>Appendix 4</b> Information sheet related to interviews on the leadership of university academics in research – a case study of hospitality management	178
<b>Appendix 5</b> Interview schedule on the leadership of university academics in research – a case study of hospitality management	180
<b>Appendix 6</b> Interview evaluation script	188
<b>Appendix 7</b> Interview timetable	189
<b>Appendix 8</b> Personal publications, conferences and seminar presentations arising from the pursuit of this dissertation topic.	190
<b>Appendix 9</b> Units of study within the Sheffield Hallam University Doctorate in Education (Ed.D) programme 2000-2004.	191

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of the four year part-time Doctorate of Education (Ed.D), including this dissertation, has required the support, help, advice and patience of many people. I would like to sincerely thank all those who played a part in the process.

In particular, I wish to express my gratitude to my supervisors, Professors Tim Simkins and Sue Clegg of Sheffield Hallam University for their invaluable assistance. They provided me with a wealth of their expertise and also painstakingly and diligently reviewed my dissertation ideas and drafts. I would also like to give credit to those tutors in the School of Education who contributed to the development of both my research knowledge and my embryonic thoughts about my dissertation. To John Coldron, Liz Barrett, John Williams and Robin Smith many thanks.

Grateful acknowledgement is given to the two heads of schools in the researched universities for making their organisations accessible and for giving me permission to approach their academic staff. I am particularly indebted to all those academics in the two universities who voluntarily gave of their time to participate in this study. I gained so much from the interviews with them. For me these were an especially enjoyable and enriching aspect of my research: listening and learning from professional colleagues.

There are many others who deserve my thanks. Amongst these are Elizabeth Rick, the ex-Director of the School of Sport and Leisure Management, who approved my application to pursue the Ed.D and who provided the necessary financial support. I would also like to thank my many peer students on the Ed.D course who provided support and critical feedback on some of my ideas and work. Special praise goes to my close doctoral learning group who also happen to be very close friends. These are Kevin Nield, Sue Horner and Peter Spencer. I have the highest admiration for these people and wish them every success with their own Ed.D's. A sincere thank you also goes to Judy Mitchell and Joan Butt from Sheffield Hallam University for assisting with my transcriptions and enhancing the presentation of my work.

Finally, a very special tribute goes firstly to my two sons James and Edward and also to Rob, who have all been a continual inspiration to me, and secondly to my wonderful partner, Maxine Butler, for her unending support, motivation and remarkable tolerance throughout the completion of this research. This dissertation is dedicated to them. I now

promise to tidy away my papers and books in the study and get on with the rest of my life.

I can only hope that this dissertation partially justifies the support all the above people have given me. Whilst I have made every effort to acknowledge sources, to locate and correct errors and to ensure accuracy throughout the thesis, I apologise to any concerned if recognition has inadvertently not been recorded and if there are any remaining deficiencies or inaccuracies in the text. I take full responsibility for any errors or omissions. In conclusion I would like to say that in my case to produce the first dissertation (B.Sc) was a novelty, to produce the second (Advanced Postgraduate Diploma) was a requirement, to produce the third (M.Phil) was satisfying, to produce this Ed.D was punishing but enjoyable and to produce a fifth (Ph.D?) would be indulgent and unforgiving. But who knows?

# DECLARATION

Whilst registered as a candidate for the degree for which submission is hereby made I have not been a registered candidate for another award of any other degree awarding body. No material contained within this dissertation has been used in any other submission for any other academic award.

Stephen Douglas Ball

April 2004



# CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Introduction to the theme of the research

During the last decade the concept of leadership has become of major importance in work involved with the development of policy and practice in educational settings (Bennett, Crawford and Cartwright, 2003). This importance pervades educational systems and organisations and has come to prominence against an increasingly pressurised and changing environment. Universities have not been exempt from such pressures and changes. In the UK the requirements of employers for capable graduates, the policies of the government, the level and basis of funding and alterations in socio-cultural values have all contributed to the demands exerted on universities. Financial pressures have been, and remain, particularly acute. Resources are constrained and student intakes have increased. Efficiency drives have been commonplace while the quest for improved effectiveness in teaching, business development and research continues. It is therefore perhaps not surprising that the ways in which universities might improve performance across all their activities has increasingly been viewed in terms of leadership. Research is one key area where discussions are increasingly being couched in terms of leadership.

The development of the linkage between research in a discipline and teaching and student learning in universities has also gathered momentum in recent years. This has particularly been the case in the UK as the higher education community has considered the Government's proposals for university research funding and as the presence of research in all universities has been questioned in the white paper on higher education published in January 2003. Currently in most UK universities research is a key and well established activity and is recognised as of high importance at both institutional and departmental levels (Lucas, 2001).

'In most countries, research and/or scholarship are accepted as being necessary university functions on the liberal grounds of fostering the spirit of free enquiry, and on the practical grounds that research helps to keep staff up to date or on the frontiers of new knowledge, which, in turn, ensures the intellectual standards of teaching and self-renewal of staff.' (Sanyal, 1995 p.218)

However despite this importance, as Lucas (2001) points out, 'research on research' is only really starting to emerge. Brew's (2001) work is evidence of such emerging work. This dissertation is further evidence. It will investigate research undertaken by

university academics and will, crucially, take the leadership of university research as its theme.

## **1.2 The background and focus of the research**

Research and universities appear so inseparable that they have become almost synonymous. Indeed the traditional, internationally recognised concept of a university is one that incorporates the pursuit of research within its boundaries and which is based on the doctrine of the inseparability of teaching and research. Whether all universities, or even any, should engage in research has and remains an issue with, as Barnett (1990) details, proponents on either side of the debate. For some time questions have been presented about whether research in the UK should be confined to a restricted number of 'research universities', selected research departments or outstanding individuals (Ball, 1992). This debate has continued with the New Labour Government indicating that universities need not do research (Clare, 2003). Nevertheless university research in the UK is still currently ubiquitous with universities pursuing research for a variety of external and/or internal reasons. Research is undertaken to generate and enhance knowledge, to solve practical problems in industry and society and to further economic, technological, scientific and social development. Research also offers benefits to universities themselves. For instance, it may enable them to raise funds and to enhance the image, reputation and development of institutions, staff and students. University research is also argued to be important for the improvement of the quality of teaching - the academic who is at the cutting edge of his/her subject is claimed to be the one best qualified to teach. At university level the benefits of the research activities of staff can be analysed as products of the process of accumulating what Bourdieu (1986) calls forms of scientific (or research) capital which include symbolic capital (*e.g.* publications), social capital (*e.g.* international links and renown) and material capital (*e.g.* research funding).

The importance of research to universities means that it normally forms part of their objectives and in some cases is of vital strategic importance. In Sheffield Hallam University, for example, the Vice Chancellor's In-Brief document (Issue 10 – January 2002) clearly highlights research and business development as key strategic priorities for the university:

'Research and business development has to be the main route to income generation, diversification and increased financial autonomy; capability must be developed and net income from research and consultancy should be doubled over the next five years.'

The 1996 Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) was considered by many universities to have the potential to provide income from research. However despite improved performance in the 2001 RAE insufficient funding has been provided by Government (Goddard, 2002). This has provoked much fury within Universities UK and has created a problem for many universities in their pursuit of income generation and other desiderata. Over reliance on the RAE in the future would appear to be short sighted and universities must seek ways of broadening their income sources and must think beyond the RAE in future research planning and activity.

Significant resources, and many people, tend to be involved in university research with some institutions/departments being more research oriented than others. Furthermore academics are defined as research active or non-active for the purposes of the RAE. Those that are non-active are frequently encouraged to become more research active.

University education in the UK, and it is suspected elsewhere, is in almost a continual state of flux. Two particular, and often conflicting, ongoing pressures have been at work. The first has been the need to maximise the contribution of university education to society, industry and the economy at large, especially more recently through increasing the student participation levels, while the second has been to control public expenditure. Such pressures and other events and changes (see section 2.3) occurring in universities have increasingly focussed attention upon the importance of leadership. Leadership in university research is no exception. Amongst those emphasising issues related to research leadership are Middlehurst (1993), Slowey (1995), Bell and Harrison (1998) and Ramsden (1998). Middlehurst (1993), for example, argues for effective leadership and says on the back cover that:

'At a time of change in higher education, the quality of university leadership is an issue of key importance. Whether heading a research team, planning curriculum innovations, managing a department or running an institution, effective leadership is required.'

The achievement of university research objectives, as with any other business or work objectives, will be facilitated by having a vision and a strategy which in turn suggests that leadership is needed. A vision and strategy may not be essential however. In the

past traditional universities did not always have these and yet research objectives involving some form of leadership were pursued.

Leadership is closely associated with change and leaders are often viewed as being necessary for responses to change in the environment and agents of change amongst colleagues or subordinates. Kotter (1990), for example, argues that leadership is concerned with 'constructive or adaptive change'. In terms of academic research this might involve giving a group of people a clear vision and a clear sense of direction, trying to take them forward, as a collective and as individuals, in that direction and by initiating appropriate actions. In other words engaging people in the research agenda and stimulating or enthusing them are key components. In Bass's (1985) terms this is called transformational leadership and can be associated with inspirational leadership.

Bell and Harrison (1998, p.131) allude to the regular RAEs as a key pressure for management in research in higher education (HE) and state that:

'Research Assessment Exercises forced universities to formalize their research structures, to define more precisely what their research targets were, to identify who was research active, who was not.... It made it necessary for research to be managed.'

The need for leadership is also implied in this statement. The initiation of structures and clarification of roles are features of what Burns (1978) called 'transactional leadership'. Other components include: the achievement of actual or promised rewards dependent on reaching certain performance levels; and management by exception where action is taken by the leader when progress or action is not as planned. In the past these components have been less relevant to academic research than to activities in commercial organisations but this may not be so in the future.

Leading academic research is challenging given that the researchers are also frequently teachers. Research and teaching are usually considered complementary in a university's *raison d'être* but they may be in conflict as time spent on one may be at the expense of the other. Furthermore it is often the case that those who do more teaching may be jealous of those who are more involved in research. This could be because the 'teacher' perceives the 'researcher' as having higher status, better conditions of employment or improved promotion prospects. Role related factors causing tension in research have been identified by Bell (1977) and Punch (1998).

The focus of this research then is the leadership of university academics in research.

Hospitality management degree courses were first introduced in UK universities in the mid 1960s and since then have increased in number (Litteljohn and Morrison, 1997).

This growth has resulted in an increased interest in, and pursuit of, research in hospitality management in universities. As a consequence, as in other disciplines, research leadership has become an important issue. The intention in this research is to consider the leadership of hospitality management academics in research within the university context. Case studies will be undertaken upon the leadership of research undertaken by hospitality management academic staff and in particular, but not exclusively, on the leadership role and practices of officially recognized hospitality management research leaders. In addition the wider concept of research leadership relating to research undertaken by hospitality management academic staff will be examined. It may be that in addition to the appointed research leader there are others within hospitality management who have emerged and legitimately reached a position through previous endeavours and who are allowed or encouraged to undertake activities associated with research leadership. In other words, with reference to Linton's (1936) classification of roles, 'ascribed' and 'achieved' roles related to research leadership will be considered. Consideration will also be given to individuals who have assumed and fulfil leadership activities without official approval.

Given that hospitality management is normally taught and researched at a subject group or department level the research leadership pitch of this study will be towards 'middle management' level rather than 'senior/top management' level. Leadership is no longer the exclusive responsibility of the most senior members of the organisation and leadership responsibility for research is increasingly identifiable at lower levels.

Typically hospitality management research is officially and 'strategically' led by people called research professor, reader or simply hospitality management research leader. The specific responsibilities, key tasks and objectives of such people tend to be generally vague or where they are better defined idiosyncratic to particular institutions. Analysis of position/job advertisements and descriptions supports this view as does anecdotal and experiential evidence. Of course though just because something is contained in a job description does not mean that it is done. Any vagueness in job descriptions is not necessarily a weakness as it enables those who lead research to determine their own direction and modus operandi, to innovate and specialise and to be entrepreneurial in their roles.

### 1.3 The rationale for the research

This research is being undertaken for a number of reasons. Firstly, understanding of university research leadership, generally, is almost entirely limited to the knowledge and experiences of those who are officially appointed to research leader positions. Little is known about the existence and nature of unofficial leadership and yet this could be an important element of leadership in certain contexts. Furthermore, despite its importance, that written on leadership in university research is scant.

In contrast to the increasing amount of literature upon hospitality management research methods and applications, (for example, Johns and Lee-Ross, 1998 and Brotherton, 1999a), that devoted to the management and leadership of research in the field is seriously lacking. The lack of research and publication on this topic is far from commensurate with the increasing importance of hospitality research to both the general research community and to the hospitality industry.

A second reason for this research is to bring to the fore what the researcher believes is an important topic around which there are an array of issues. These can be articulated through a range of questions. Can and should academic staff be led in research? If so, what is the nature of this leadership and what do leaders do? To what extent are the existing concepts of leadership appropriate for the research activities of academic staff in the hospitality management field in universities? What are the influences upon the leadership of hospitality management research? Where does hospitality management research leadership reside? This dissertation seeks to answer these questions.

Thirdly, this research aims to provide a basis for future empirical work. By bringing this topic to the attention of other researchers it is hoped that research leadership will be recognised as a worthy topic for further investigation; especially for research in the 'real world'.

Finally, my roles as Reader in Hospitality Management at Sheffield Hallam University, as a Visiting Fellow to two other universities and as a member of the Council for Hospitality Management Education (CHME) Research Group have stimulated my interest in this topic. Evidence of the relevance of the research topic exists in my own university school where there has recently been a debate about the nature of research leadership and what particular research leaders do in the context of the construction of a new research strategy.

The decision to focus upon the leadership of hospitality management academic staff has been taken because such staff are considered central to the development of new hospitality management knowledge and to the achievement of the benefits of university research claimed to exist by Sanyal (1995), Ball (2001) and others. It could be argued that the future status, direction and amount of hospitality management research lies especially with hospitality management academic staff and with effective research leadership.

#### **1.4 The contribution to knowledge**

This research is expected to contribute to the knowledge about academic research and the leadership of academic research in universities. The research is focused and unique and is considered of particular relevance to hospitality management education given the rich and deep investigation of two hospitality management cases. Increasingly, it can be argued that effective leadership requires that related decisions and actions should be based upon empirical evidence. However empirical leadership studies in universities, especially of relevance to research and hospitality management education are rare. This research will reduce this scarcity.

Furthermore the use of methods to collect and analyse data from academic peers, an infrequently targeted group, in other institutions is of value to those academic researchers who, like myself, might be considering investigating phenomena with which they are personally involved in their own day to day lives. While the research spotlights hospitality management research the insights from the case studies will be of benefit to similar research associated with other disciplines and subject areas.

#### **1.5 The research aim and objectives**

The **aim** of this study is to develop a deeper understanding of the role of leadership as it relates to research by university academics.

More specifically the **objectives** of the study are:

- To examine the university and hospitality management education contexts and the concepts of research and leadership.
- To conceptualise and theorise leadership for university research.
- To investigate leadership in hospitality management research at the subject group level and to explore the leadership activities of recognised research leaders.
- To evaluate perceived factors which influence research leadership.
- To field test the relevance of research leadership to the conduct of research.

## **1.6 Approach to, and structure of, the dissertation**

To achieve these objectives the approach taken will comprise of three parts:-

### **Part I**

This will consist of a critical review of the literature to examine the university context and concepts and theories of research and leadership. Research into leadership in higher education has been minimal but that which has been undertaken will be reviewed.

Consideration will be given to how the leadership role, conceptually and theoretically, relates to research by academics in universities. The literature will be reviewed in chapters 2, 3, and 4. This review will provide a backdrop to the study, analyse the theories and concepts of relevance to the study, review previous work in the area and provide a framework for the primary research. Chapters 2 and 4 will also provide contextual insights by analysing the university and hospitality management education contexts.

### **Part II**

This stage concentrates upon primary research and in particular; its objectives, design, methodology, execution and the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings. The research design will be qualitative in essence and will follow the case study research strategy. In accord with Marshall and Rossman (1999), themes, categories and patterns are expected to emerge related to the nature of hospitality management research and to the role of leadership in hospitality management research at the subject group level in universities.

### **Part III**

This will draw upon the case study work and will reflect upon existing concepts and theories about research and leadership. It will make conclusions related to each of the objectives of the study. Wider implications of the research to professional practice will be presented and, finally, suggestions for further research in the field of research leadership in universities will be made and reflections upon the research experience provided.

Theories of leadership have been related to the individual leader. Within these theories, which include trait approaches, the 'essence' of the individual leader is critical (Grint, 1999). In other popular theories context becomes more important than the individual. These include the situational approaches. While in the contingency approach both



context and the individual leader are critical. The approach adopted herein will include an examination of context as it is considered to have an influence on the interactions between academics in the performance of their job and upon the process of research leadership. According to Kakabadse and Kakabadse (1999 p.7) 'the power of context is substantial' upon leadership. A similar view of the role of context was taken in a study from Virginia Tech (1991) which considered that leadership should not be taken as a set of traits but firmly within its context in higher education. The next chapter will therefore examine the university context for research.

## **Part I**

### **CHAPTER 2 THE UNIVERSITY CONTEXT FOR RESEARCH**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Any examination of leadership requires a discussion of the context in which it takes place as leadership is contextual (Green, 1988). However context has not always previously been considered. Argyris (1979 p.61), for example, suggests that past leadership studies have been general and that 'leadership research lacked utility and application in specific action contexts'. The need to consider context is a view shared by others. Kakabadse and Kakabadse (1999) state that leadership today is influenced by the impact of the prevailing circumstances both within the organisation and within other organisations. In this study of leadership and hospitality management research in universities, a consideration of both the university context and the hospitality management education and research context is required. To begin with the university context will be discussed and a number of pertinent questions addressed. These include: Is it correct to talk about universities as if they are all the same or are there different types of university? If there are different types how can they be categorised? What are the academic values and culture/s within universities as these may act upon leadership? And given, as previously mentioned, that leadership is often associated with change (Kotter, 1990; Middlehurst, 1993), what changes have occurred in universities? In attempting to answer these questions an understanding of the nature of the organisations in which research leaders work will be gained and some of the factors impinging upon their leadership activities will be identified. Given that the primary research herein focuses upon hospitality management research in universities the hospitality management education context will also be briefly explored towards the end of this chapter.

#### **2.2 Universities within the UK**

A clear and single definition of a university has proved elusive ever since Newman's analysis in *The Idea of a University* (Newman, 1852). Nevertheless attempts have been made. For instance, Dopson and McNay (1996 p.16) in asking what is a university state that the debate has been 'long standing and extensive'. They then refer to the Oxford English Dictionary definition which says that a university is an

'educational institution designed for instruction and examination, or both, of students in all or many of the important branches of learning, conferring degrees in various facilities and often embodying colleges and similar institutions.'

In contrast Crystal (2003 p.1532) defines a university as

'an institution of higher education which offers study at degree level. Courses may be taken leading to bachelor, master or doctoral level. Both academic and vocational courses are followed .... Research is given a high priority.'

These definitions give the impression that universities are homogeneous. However there is no single criterion of what counts as a university and this definition conceals the fact each UK university is different. Differences in their missions, goals, strategies, scope, target markets, operating structures, courses, staff, students etc. make them so. Brennan (1999 p.7) in analysing these differences claims that 'the increasing diversity of universities is undeniable'. D'Andrea and Gosling, (2002 p.169) discuss the differences between HE institutions in the UK and state that the HE sector:

'... is characterised by considerable diversity of mission, type and size of institution, level of specialism, wealth and status. .... In the most general terms the purpose of higher education may be defined as ... a) the teaching of undergraduates and postgraduates; b) carrying out research and scholarship to advance knowledge and its application ...; and c) providing a range of services to industry and the wider society....'

Hence the university system is pluralistic. However this diversity does not extend to a chaotic situation where universities are completely different and totally free to pursue what they want to do. Common elements do exist in universities even if in different degrees in different universities. Some universities emphasise scholarship and research *i.e.* the so called research-led universities whereas others, especially many of the 'new universities', that were until 1992 the 'polytechnics', emphasise their role as teaching institutions (D'Andrea and Gosling, 2002). Sutherland (1994) has equated the common elements to three key concepts - education, research and standards. Furthermore any freedom universities do have is kept in check by the highly managed higher education system in the UK (Scott, 2001).

Despite the immense variety in the university system numerous general categorisations of UK universities have been constructed for analytical purposes, lobbying, policy making etc. Holt et al (1999) and D'Andrea and Gosling (2002) provide such analyses. Universities have been allocated to categories according to various criteria including their origin, age, structure, location and main function of universities. The result is that

some universities are members of more than one of these groups. The particular classes of relevance in this research are the 'old' universities *i.e.* the pre-1992 institutions and the 'new' post-1992 universities, *i.e.* the former polytechnics. This division arose from one of the biggest upheavals of UK higher education, the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act, which created and added 33 former polytechnics to the 'old' universities. This was significant as the polytechnics which had an impressive record in attracting students from lower socio-economic backgrounds and in vocational education, such as hospitality management education, were to obtain university status.

The Government's White Paper *The Future of Higher Education* published in January 2003, driven largely by economic changes, proposes a radical agenda to restructure UK Higher Education by creating three types or tiers of institution classified (and funded) according to different missions:

- Research led universities comprising a small group of elite and research intensive universities which are potentially 'world class',
- Teaching intensive universities which focus on teaching, including a set of new teaching only institutions,
- A group of universities with pockets of academic research excellence which concentrate on knowledge transfer activities.

The notion of having universities tiered according to a hierarchy based on teaching and research is one that has been proposed previously (Sutherland, 1994).

In conclusion while UK universities are heterogeneous some commonality exists among all universities and particular criteria have been used to identify groups of universities. To date perhaps the most commonly employed categorisation of universities has been that which distinguishes the pre-1992 and post-1992 universities. The fear now is that the government's higher education strategy will fracture the university system and make the gap wider between the pre-1992 and post-1992 universities, if not resulting in the links between them, being severed completely (Davis, 2003). The primary research work in this dissertation draws upon one university from each of these two categories on the assumption that they have different perspectives on research and that research leadership in these different contexts differs.

## **2.3 Change in the UK university system**

Universities, and higher education more generally, in the UK and throughout the world have been subject to continuous and significant pressures over the past 25 years. These

pressures and consequent profound changes have been analysed and discussed by many authors (Cameron and Tschirhart, 1992; Slowey, 1995; Henkel, 2001, Knight and Trowler, 2001). Indeed nearly ten years ago I commented on some of the pressures then with respect to changes in teaching and learning practice and stated that:

'Over the last decade a range of pressures and demands have been exerted on higher education in the British university system. These demands coupled with the sudden expansion of the university system following the removal of the binary divide have had a tremendous impact on both educators and the system more generally and have resulted in many pronounced, important and widespread changes. Many of the long term consequences of these pressures and changes are as yet unclear.' (Ball, 1995 p. 18).

The forces of change at that time were associated with a range of factors including the complex, dynamic nature of industry and its requirements from higher education, the policies of the government, the level and basis of funding and changes in socio-cultural values (Stoney and Shaw, 1994) or to be more succinct to two conflicting pressures: the maximisation of the contribution of higher education to society and the economy, and the control of public expenditure (Philips, 1994). These changes have been claimed to have realised '..... a more profound re-orientation than any other system in industrial societies' (Trow, 1994). Nearly ten years on and these stimulants of change can be regarded as more than just a coincidence and are indicative of movement towards a postindustrial economy and society. Knight and Trowler (2001) summarised the postindustrial forces of change impacting upon leadership in higher education as:

- the increasing globalisation of higher education
- the development of characteristics within higher education associated with a quasi market
- the increasing development of a mass system of higher education throughout the world
- the expansion in student numbers has not been matched by the public funding of higher education in real terms
- growing state concern with 'quality' in higher education as gross state expenditure on higher education increased
- the increasing vocational orientation of higher education
- growing incursion of industry into state-university relations

Many of the consequences of the pressures referred to by Ball (1995) have now become apparent. Resources in universities have become scarce; student intakes have diversified

and generally expanded although enrolments for some courses have fluctuated widely; academic staff productivity has increased tremendously; teaching and learning practices have markedly altered; research and the quality of research have come more and more under the spotlight, institutions have become more competitive and their roles and organisational structures have been reformed (Holmes, 2001) and as Rustin claims the prospects of the rationalisation of the total number of higher education institutions have increased (Rustin cited in Jary and Parker, 1998). King (2004 p.20) argues that the response of universities to the twin pressures of conducting research and the falling student-staff ratio has been less teaching. He says that:

'Pressure to be research-active combined with the pressure that arises from a doubling of student numbers results in a powerful downward pressure on the time and energy universities can devote to teaching. There is no alternative.'

Many of the origins of the above changes can be traced back to 1992 when the binary divide between Universities and Polytechnics was removed. The polytechnics and higher education colleges were given their independence from local authority control in the UK. At this time higher education institutions were given more autonomy. Simultaneously other external changes to the higher education environment related to audit and control, such as teaching quality assessment and the research assessment exercise, brought new pressures. These were accompanied by the introduction of tuition fees for students, which resulted in students becoming more customer focussed. The consequence of these changes has had a fundamental effect in the way on which both pre-1992 and post-1992 universities are managed (Ball and Horner, 2003). Decreasing levels of resource coupled with rising student numbers has meant that academics have been forced to contemplate and frequently adjust their principles and practices related to teaching, student assessment, research and administration while universities are having to 'develop more creative, adaptable and efficient means of organising academic work' (Dill and Sporn, 1995).

These changes appear to have been accompanied by a fundamental shift in the culture of educational institutions to a more "managerialist" order (Clarke and Newman, 1997; Simkins, 1999). In universities there are perceptions that this has resulted in the old collegial models withering away (Deem *et al*, 2001). The growth of important middle management functions with substantial authority and responsibility has grown along with tighter management controls that are open to external verification and checking. Managerialist approaches have been implemented which pervade universities and all

functions. Alongside this managerialist movement new leadership approaches and leadership styles have been required to provide direction for staff and to cope with the many changes. These have been needed from top to bottom within universities and across all activities and have been such that no longer is leadership the exclusive responsibility of senior managers (Bennett, Crawford and Cartwright, 2003).

Academic staff in universities have particularly been affected by changes within the university system. They are 'expected to work longer, on a greater variety of tasks with fewer resources' (Knight and Trowler, 2001). The core activities of teaching and research are increasingly being added to by non-core activities such as the pursuit of non HEFCE income through consultancy, marketing, the development of overseas markets, continuous professional development and industry sponsorship. In short what Knight and Trowler (2001) call the 'intensification and degradation of academic work' has been complemented by the pressure for academics to be fund raisers.

Clearly, due to the definitional complexities explored above, it would be impossible to consider the actual contextual circumstances within every university. However an alternative approach adopted here is to conceptualise types of universities and to then consider their implications upon research leadership. Various typologies exist with reference to the UK scene such as that which relates to age *i.e.* 'old' and 'new' universities and that based on function *i.e.* 'research' and 'teaching' universities. One typology which is particularly useful here is that of Ramsden (1998) who, drawing on McNay's work (1995), identifies models of university cultures to examine change in universities. From this work four ideal and 'pure' university types can be identified; collegium, bureaucracy, enterprise and corporate (see Figure 1). However in reality, as McNay (1995) records, all the universities he studied possessed elements of each type. In general though changes appeared to be occurring with movement in universities between the models. Similar changes were noted by Ramsden (1998). To summarise both McNay (1995) and Ramsden (1998) the general patterns of change consist of a movement from the collegium and bureaucratic cultures towards the corporate and enterprise cultures. Ramsden (1998) provides some evidence to support this movement.

The characteristics of academics and academic groups are also relevant as they are fundamental parts of the academic leadership process. This view is consistent with the general definition of leadership provided in chapter 4. The values, attitudes, responsibilities, achievements and behaviour of academics will influence the nature of research leadership and impact upon the actions and effectiveness of research leaders.

**Figure 2.1 Four university models and their features**

<b>Collegium</b>	Focus on freedom to pursue university and personal goals. Standards internally set. Evaluation by peer review. Decision making is consensual. Dominant unit is discipline based.
<b>Bureaucracy</b>	Focus on regulation, consistency and rules. Standards are externally related. Evaluation based on procedures audits. Decision making is rule based.
<b>Enterprise</b>	Focus on competence. Orientated to outside world. Decision making is flexible. Leadership is devolved. Dominant unit is small project team.
<b>Corporate</b>	Focus is on loyalty to the organisation. Commanding and charismatic management style. Competitive ethos. Decision making is political and tactical. Standards relate to plans and goals. Evaluation is based on performance indicators and benchmarking.

Source: Ramsden, 1998

The traditional collegial model has been adopted by most universities and despite criticisms (Bush, 1997) and the threat from the increased emphasis on competition (Middlehurst and Elton, 1992) it still remains albeit in varying degrees between universities and perhaps, as Middlehurst (1993) argues, is more symbolic than real. The influence of this model upon academics is profound. It underpins the work, *i.e.* teaching, research and administration (Johnston, 1996) of academics and influences their behaviour. The model is associated with shared ideals, democracy, consensus decision-making, academic freedom and autonomy. This freedom and autonomy is associated with individual achievement. Academic staff strive for such achievement and honour and admire it (Ramsden, 1998) whether it be related to teaching, research or publication. Individualism and independence characterise much of an academic's work and may pose a challenge to leaders who wish to set their own direction to reach particular ends. On the other hand democracy and consensus decision-making may also frustrate leaders and slow down progress. Ramsden (1998) provides evidence to indicate that co-operation and teamwork, involving a high degree of communication and support, appear to facilitate better teaching and research. Again Middlehurst (1993) suggests that such academic group activity, or 'collegial behaviour between academics' as she calls it, has been weakened by the pressures of competition during the 1980s and 1990s. It is possible to identify many variants in the collegial model. These contextual types of university will be revisited later within this dissertation.



## **2.4 Hospitality management education in UK universities**

The hospitality industry is a large, rapidly growing, economically and socially significant industry which is served by a small but distinctive part of higher education in the UK devoted to hospitality management (Higher Education Funding Council for England, 1998).

The subject of hospitality management has evolved most notably from hotel and catering management which in turn was preceded by hotelkeeping and catering courses. The first degrees in hotelkeeping and catering were developed in 1922 by Cornell University, USA (Fuller, 1983). Their emphasis was on the vocational and technical aspects of food and accommodation provision. Hospitality management is a relatively new subject in UK higher education. The first two degree courses were introduced at the Universities of Surrey in 1964 and Strathclyde in 1965 while six others were started in Polytechnics by 1977. By 1995/96 there were approximately 79 degree and diploma courses available in 27 higher and further education institutions (Littelljohn and Morrison, 1997). Appendix 1 shows a current list of the institutions offering hospitality management programmes who are members of the Council for Hospitality Management Education (CHME) which is a body which represents those UK universities and colleges offering courses in the management of hospitality businesses.

In league tables described as 'the most definitive available' (Clare, 2003a) only 'old' universities featured in the first two of five divisions and none of these provided hospitality management education. Of the 'old' universities which provide hospitality management education Surrey at 35<sup>th</sup> and Strathclyde at 36<sup>th</sup> were in the third of the five divisions. Oxford Brookes at 39<sup>th</sup> and Nottingham Trent at 49<sup>th</sup> were the first of the former polytechnics which offered hospitality management courses. The remainder of the former polytechnics which now offer hospitality management courses were divided between the two lower divisions. Thus there is not only a big difference between old universities and new universities generally in the rankings but, given that hospitality management education is mainly provided in the post-1992 universities, also between the old and new university hospitality suppliers.

Given the number of hospitality management courses and providers one might think that hospitality management has a clear and universally accepted meaning. However, this is not the case as recent academic debates illustrate (see Brotherton, 1999b,

Brotherton and Wood, 1999 and Taylor and Edgar, 1999). Taylor and Edgar (1999), for example, claim there is no 'clear articulation of what is meant by the term hospitality management'. Having said this The Higher Education Funding Council (1998 p.6) adopted the following definition of the academic subject for its review of hospitality management.

'Hospitality management is characterised by a core which addresses the management of food, beverages and/or accommodation in a service context.'

Hospitality management education has thus far been largely vocationally orientated (Airey and Tribe, 2000) and could be said to be a reflection of hospitality managers, their work and their industry. Vocationalism still underpins the majority of hospitality management courses today. This can be seen in the way that such courses stress the acquisition of hospitality technical knowledge, and the development of personal skills, such as communication and team working, which are vital in most hospitality industry contexts. Higher education providers recognise the needs of the hospitality industry, but have to balance these against the needs of the student. For these reasons traditionally hospitality management academic staff have tended to have a blend of hospitality industrial experience and academic qualifications and have had the dual challenge of addressing the graduate employee requirements of employers and the educational standards of universities. These coupled with the increasing interest in, pursuit of and pressure to undertake, hospitality management research have created dilemmas for hospitality management educators.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

Context is an important element in certain theories of leadership. The contention here is that context has been critical to leadership in universities and that it is likely to shape the leadership of university academics in research. However university contexts differ and therefore leadership is likely to be influenced by these differing circumstances. There are arguments suggesting that university contexts are dynamic (McNay, 1995 and Ramsden, 1998). If this is the case then leadership approaches may also need to adjust as context alters.

The changing environment, and if one agrees with McNay (1995) and Ramsden (1998) the changing contexts, of universities have brought many challenges to universities and as Knight and Trowler (2001) suggest have put the focus on leadership in universities as leadership is involved with change. The UK University sector is currently in the

limelight arguably more so than ever before with many issues being hotly debated. Amongst these the future pursuit and funding of research is central to most discussion. The traditional belief of many has been that university academics should do research and publish their findings and that is a large part of what they are paid for. However the time for academic staff to conduct research themselves has increasingly come under threat through rising student numbers and other demands. This has been the case in the hospitality management area of study as it has in other disciplinary areas. However in hospitality management education this compounds the particular pressures that academics working in this area have faced *i.e.* of serving both the hospitality industry and their own universities. So just as hospitality management education appears to have 'come of age' (Airey and Tribe, 2000) and research is maturing the pressures to reverse this are growing. Leadership in such circumstances appears crucial not least related to research. The next chapter proceeds to consider the nature, organisation and practice of research by academic staff in universities.

## CHAPTER 3 ACADEMIC RESEARCH

### 3.1 Introduction

Discovery and the creation of knowledge about our natural, social and economic environments have underscored modern societies and organisations. The development of societies and organisations has been based upon the need to know, explain and evaluate. Traditionally the locus for much of this discovery, creation, explanation and evaluation, which characterise research, has been the university and its academics. Research has been a fundamental element of the mission of universities. However in today's knowledge economy, and as a consequence of market forces, this research locus has moved beyond the university to other organisations and the broader marketplace. Simultaneously, the state as paymaster of higher education has displayed an increased interest and influence upon universities both through higher education policy and through intervention in the values within universities and in their internal regulation (Henkel, 2000). For academic research in universities this has meant that increasingly it is being viewed from a utility cost-benefit perspective rather than merely as discovery at any expense. These influences have placed research in UK universities at what at worst has generally been referred to as a crisis (Brew, 2001a) or at what certainly can be called a crucial point. As a result many challenging and, to some contentious, questions are being asked both outside and within universities. From an external perspective, particularly, these include: What is the role of research within UK universities? Should all universities be engaged in research? How should research be funded? And often connected to the issue of funding; how should it be assessed? At an institutional level questions are being asked about who should undertake the research, what kind of research should be done, how should research be pursued alongside other academic functions, and how should research be resourced, organised, managed and led.

This research on research and research leadership is timely in that it coincides with a national debate currently taking place about the future of Higher Education in the UK. The Government's White Paper, *The Future of Higher Education*, published on 22 January 2003 set out its proposals for the future including those related to research and knowledge transfer. Part of this debate relates to the role and funding of research.

This chapter through a review of the literature intends to explore certain key issues as they affect the leadership of research at a subject based level within universities. To

begin the focus will be upon the meaning of academic research within universities. In order to understand the nature of research the role of context upon research and the link between research and scholarship will be considered. The chapter will then proceed to examine subject group research structures; the fit between research, teaching and other academic functions; the involvement of academic staff in research and finally, given the focus of the primary research herein, upon the development of hospitality management research in UK universities.

In the literature there are few studies of research. One notable exception is Brew's work (2001a and 2001b). This makes an important contribution to our understanding of research and therefore will feature strongly in this chapter.

### **3.2 The nature of research**

Analysis of the large and ever growing stock of books with research in the title shows that they almost inevitably tend to be either of the research methods variety or research students' guides. Surprisingly very few of these discuss the nature of research either at all or in any depth. It is almost as if it is axiomatic that there is universal knowledge and agreement over the meaning of research!

The evidence is contrary. Hussey and Hussey (1997) state that there is no consensus in the literature on how it should be defined. Johns and Lee Ross (1998 p.3) refer to *The Oxford English Dictionary* to demonstrate this lack of a consensus by offering three basic definitions of research. It states that it is

(a) 'the act of searching, closely or carefully for or after a specified thing' or (b) 'an investigation directed to the discovery of some fact by careful study of a subject [*i.e.* a course of critical or scientific enquiry]' or (c) 'investigation, inquiry into things [or the] habitude of carrying out such investigation.'

Brew (2001a), in a notable exception to the current literature about research, confirms the diversity of definitions and understanding of research. A variety of different of definitions of research have been identified, including:-

Research is 'systematic, critical and self-critical enquiry which aims to contribute towards the advancement of knowledge and wisdom' (Bassey, 1999 p.38).

Research activity includes: 'academics who are curious to know why something is the way it is and who are, therefore, actively pursuing an answer to a question ... not just work which involves major advances' (Neumann, 1992 p.23).

Research is a systematic process of investigation, the general purpose of which is to contribute to the body of knowledge that shapes and guides academic and/or practice disciplines (Powers and Knapp, 1995).

Research is about advancing knowledge and understanding (Oliver, 1997).

Research is finding out something and making it public (Brew, 2001a).

Another observation, as Wood (1999) notes, is that much of the literature and discourse on research concentrates on simple bipolarities such as 'pure and applied', 'quantitative and qualitative', 'primary and secondary' and 'theoretical and empirical' research. Brew (2001b) also identifies from her studies four ways in which research is understood by senior Australian academic researchers in traditional areas. These ways vary according to whether the researchers have an external product orientation or an internal process orientation; and whether the researcher is present or absent from the focus of awareness.

Leading on from her consideration of definitions Brew (2001a) forthrightly concludes that research is obviously a complex phenomenon which is not one or a set of things and she says that some 'would argue that any attempt to discuss research in general is at worst impossible and at best foolhardy'. The lack of consensus about research and differences in definition and interpretation of research in universities has also been recognised by Ball (2001) who also offers reasons for these differences. He suggests that the different perspectives about university research can be explained through incongruencies related to a number of variables associated with the definer: their expectations of research, their discipline, their role, and their valuation of research. These incongruencies may shape the philosophy of researchers and influence views about the purpose, process and product of research and about such aspects as research leadership and management. The influence of discipline when thinking about research has been acknowledged by others. Brew (2001a) for instance claims that research has to be considered related to its disciplinary context while Verma and Mallick (1999) state, 'the concept of research does not have the same meaning in all academic disciplines because of the diverse natures of activity'. This research will go on to investigate research in hospitality management which has been debated elsewhere as to whether it is a scholarly discipline or 'an area of professional study' (Taylor and Edgar, 1996).

The important point here though is that, while endless definitions and interpretations of research do exist, any inconsistencies and diversities within a given space like a school, department or subject group within a university can only serve to confuse and retard

research endeavours within that space. From her research Brew (2001b p.282)

expressed this by saying

'When researchers with markedly different orientations met, it was found that they were unable to communicate effectively. They apparently shared the same language and endeavoured in meeting to find common ground, but essentially talked at cross purposes.'

The starting point for controlled and effective research in this space would seem to be a clear, unambiguous and consistent understanding of what research means to the academics and other people occupying that space even if it means the acceptance of a range of conceptions. Without this the management and leadership of research would at best be problematic and at worst impossible.

### **3.3 Research and context**

Brew (2001a) regards context, and not just disciplinary context, as important to any understanding of the nature of academic research. She conceives of a number of levels of context. The subject discipline, department or institution to which researchers are attached is one contextual level. Other levels relate to the physical situation where researchers work, the intellectual tradition which influences methods and the ways ideas, research teams, universities and so on are organised, and to broader social and political contexts of nations. Brew argues, with examples, that different contexts make competing demands and create tensions for research and demonstrate that research occupies contested space. These tensions reflect some of the questions raised in the introduction to this chapter and include tensions between research and teaching, tensions between who owns and creates knowledge, tensions about what counts as knowledge and tensions about funding. These tensions have created choices for those wanting knowledge and creating it (the researchers), and as Brew sees it, trouble for research. Brew is not the first to articulate issues confronting research. Previous reference to forms of tension in research have been mentioned elsewhere. Whiston (1992), for example, talked of problems, dilemmas or paradoxes confronting British Higher Education and its attendant research component centring upon amount (level of resource), quality and accountability considerations. The way forward for Brew essentially involves reflecting upon research in the local context and agreeing and establishing the nature of knowledge and the way research will be undertaken. Furthermore she argues that this reflection needs to consider the relationship of research to society throughout the process of research.

### 3.4 Academic research and scholarship

Discussion about whether and how research should be conducted in universities has frequently been bedeviled by a failure to differentiate the functions that research performs (Ziman, 1992). If differentiation has been achieved then for some it has been difficult to accept that these are legitimate functions with which all universities must engage. The functions include the creation of knowledge; the training of researchers for industrial and public service research; the development of independent and critical centres of expertise; and the enhancement of scholarship or keeping academics up-to-date with the subjects they are teaching. Ziman (1992) in calling for different support strategies refers to the first two of these as targeted functions, and the others as generic functions, of research. The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (1997) echoed these functions when concluding that there were four main roles and reasons for supporting research in higher education institutions.

An issue exists between the similarity of research and scholarship. A widely adopted typology of scholarships has been developed by Boyer (1990) who distinguished four forms, the scholarship of discovery, the scholarship of integration, the scholarship of service and the scholarship of teaching. The first of these especially would appear to overlap with research as the discovery of new knowledge. Allen (1988 p.108) says that, in principle, research and scholarship are clearly different: scholarship being concerned with 'the pursuit and mastery of existing knowledge, however obscure' while 'research is any form of investigation which leads to new knowledge'. However in practice these activities do overlap with for instance the articulation of existing knowledge producing new knowledge. Another issue may arise when new knowledge is thought to be new but does in fact, unbeknown to the researcher, already exist. In this case it would seem to be nonsensical to not call their work research even if it could be argued they should have known of the previous existence of this 'new' knowledge. Allen (1988) suggests that it might be helpful to associate scholarship with the advancement of learning and research with the advancement of knowledge. So the differentiation of learning and knowledge might enable research to be isolated and overcome any confusion which may exist over the similarity of research and scholarship. The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (1997) drawing upon the USA scene offers a distinction between what it terms 'corporate' research, and 'private' research which includes scholarship. The Committee associates the former type with 'research' universities and with the obtaining of major grants and contracts to support research while the latter is primarily



concerned with staff undertaking research to support teaching and is a function of 'teaching' universities. The Committee goes on to say that:

'.. teaching' institutions believe that it is important for their academic staff to be close to the frontier of their subjects, since this adds to the authority and vitality of their teaching. Staff are expected to spend less of their time doing research than in 'research' universities. Yet, the recognition of research enables the institutions to attract high quality teaching staff who also produce good publications, which add to the reputation of the institution.'

(The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education, 1997 p.177)

The Department of Education and Skills has supported this view stating that good scholarship is essential to good teaching but that it is not necessary to be active in cutting edge research to be an excellent teacher.

### **3.5 The research-teaching interrelationship**

The relationship between research and teaching in universities continues to attract attention in the literature. Current interest has been fuelled by changes in central funding policy, staff appraisals, the role of the 'new' universities and the pressures created by the RAE (Breen and Lindsay, 1999). Attention has intensified as a consequence of the Government's recent proposals to concentrate research in certain elite 'research institutions'. These proposals have been criticised because of the need to use research to enhance scholarship or keep academics up-to-date with the subjects they are teaching and therefore students up-to-date with subjects they are learning. Thus the argument that research is for all universities and that all higher education should be underpinned by research is a dominant one in academia. Many have claimed that research justifies the title 'university'. This support has been to the extent that there was an outcry when the UK Higher Education Minister recently announced that 'university' as a title would no longer be restricted to academic communities that undertake scholarly research across a range of disciplines (Clare, 2003).

Support for the link between research and teaching has been longstanding and wide (Ball, 2004). Over a decade ago Ball (1992), for example, said that 'teaching and research are as inseparable as wool and mutton on a sheep farm'. While more recently Jordan (2003) identified other supporters of the link. But there are also those who question the evidence of the link or the existence of benefits from any link between research and teaching (Ramsden and Moses, 1992; Hattie and Marsh, 1996; Thomas and Harris, 2001). Adams (2000) epitomises such views saying that 'teaching and

research map uneasily together'. Some consider research has a positive effect upon teaching as it keeps teachers up to date on new methodological approaches and on current developments in the discipline which are of theoretical or applied significance. Others view research negatively as it diverts attention away from teaching duties and hence contact with students.

### **3.6 Academic researchers and subject-based research structures**

Research is conducted by individuals (academics and non academic researchers) who increasingly work in teams and not by universities. But research productivity has been claimed to be tied to the social and organisational work context of the university (Fox, 1992) and so the role of the university cannot be ignored. This tie comes through the need for human and material resources, the co operation of others and so on in research endeavours. While this tie could be argued to be stronger for research in the natural sciences than in the humanities, given that it is more likely to require facilities, equipment and teamwork, the notion of academics in other fields researching in isolation is increasingly unreal. In theory all academics require collegiality to provide ideas, acquire skill, identify mistakes, stimulate development, obtain feedback, evaluate their work and extend existing knowledge. Thus factors such as numbers, types and roles of researchers within research space are important considerations to enable effective communication and research productivity. Collaboration is another aspect of relevance here as independent research is often difficult to initiate, sustain and fund. Individual researchers may also have reduced rates of publication of their work.

Traditionally, individual and collaborative research work by academics and non academic researchers has been conducted within faculty and has been dependent upon the university for support in the form of funds, facilities, equipment, management etc. Here academics are located at different points on a research-teaching continuum according to the proportion of time each spends on each. This has created tensions between staff, especially as the route to academic status and success has been increasingly perceived by many academics to be linked to research and publication. The involvement of individuals in both research and teaching has also often caused a conflict of demands between research, teaching and administration. In addition difficulties have arisen for the faculty regarding resource allocations. Gradually, over the last decade and partly in response to this situation, there has in some institutions been a separation between research and teaching. This, as McNay (1997) records, has often taken a structural form. One trend has been a movement from university

dependent to more independent research units. The divisions between research and teaching in the UK and the people involved with each have been further exacerbated by the Research Assessment Exercise according to Brown (2002).

### **3.7 The development of hospitality management research in UK universities**

In hospitality management research and scholarly activity have tended to run in parallel with the provision of degree courses especially given the contribution of these activities to the validation, operation and development of courses. The interest in, and pursuit of, hospitality management research in higher education has gathered momentum in recent years (Brotherton, 1999a) and has been stated to be in a mature position (Lockwood, 1999). This is a result of a number of factors. The need for the discipline to make itself more credible in academia is one reason. RAEs have also forced hospitality management academics in universities to consider and further their research and scholarly activities. Another reason for the encouragement of hospitality research in universities has been to enable the curriculum and teaching to be up-to-date and vibrant. However the development of co-ordinated research activity has been slow, patchy and marked by individualism.

In the beginning hospitality management research in higher education institutions generally started life in the hands of individual academic researchers pursuing research qualifications. From this learned scholarly outputs slowly came. However the focus upon preparing students for the industry and upon enabling students to 'do' in the industry through the development of industry specific skills and experience, *i.e.* vocationalism, meant that entry into the research arena was slow and resulted in what is still a paucity of 'high quality' research into hospitality management practice, problems and issues. In the 1970s and 1980s there is evidence of a movement from individualism in research to group research projects, collective research activity and the development of co-ordinated research units in research groups, research centres and so on. A number of universities now have their own research units. So hospitality management is a relatively new 'discipline' in research terms with a significant mark on the research landscape only really having been made in the last ten to fifteen years (Brotherton, 1999a). The rise of hospitality research resulted in its recognition at a national level and the Council for Hospitality Management Education (CHME) mounted its first annual national research conference in 1991. A CHME hospitality research sub committee also developed at this time. Corporate research is not especially significant in the hospitality management arena but there is evidence that it is increasing and some hospitality

management researchers would certainly welcome more. Those universities which do obtain grants and contracts for hospitality management research are few and do have aspirations to be, or style themselves as, hospitality management 'research' universities. They naturally regard research as a key basic task with the RAE being important to them and with income generation being an objective.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

Differences of opinion exist over the meaning of research and analysis of the literature demonstrates that it is a complicated concept with close linkages to other concepts, such as scholarship and teaching. Nevertheless the basic argument underpinning this chapter is that the leadership of academics in research within a given space, such as in a subject group, should be based upon agreement over the nature and functions of research as it relates to that space. This may require the acceptance by those who are relevant of a range of conceptions and purposes of research for the effective pursuit of research objectives. Given the possible different interpretations of research and the focus herein upon 'research' leadership a key concern is to understand hospitality management research undertaken by university academics. This is one of the issue questions listed in chapter 5.

Just as context was argued in chapter 2 to be important to any understanding of leadership it has been claimed that context is relevant to our understanding of research. Brew (2001a) is one who makes such claims. She argues that tensions, for example over research and teaching, may develop from clashes between different contextual levels over the contested space which research occupies. Such tensions could equally exist within one contextual level and need to be reduced and ideally prevented.

Hospitality management research has a relatively short history but there are those who consider that it has reached maturity. However this position is increasingly threatened as hospitality management research like research in other areas occupies contested space; space which many believe should be taken up by teaching rather than research. This is especially so where research does not appear to generate income. Leadership may help combat any threats and facilitate the generation of research income or the defence of non-income generating research and as Middlehurst (1993 p.86) claims is 'relevant to the development and implementation of research programmes'. The next chapter will proceed to examine leadership concepts and theories particularly in the context of research.

## CHAPTER 4 LEADERSHIP IN UNIVERSITIES: A CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL EXPLORATION

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter will consist of a critical review of the literature to explore concepts and theories of leadership in general, and of leadership in universities in particular. Given that this investigation is concerned with the leadership of research in universities the application of leadership studies to academic research in universities will be considered.

Studies of academic leadership in universities, and in higher education more generally, have been minimal. Green (1988), with particular reference to the US scene, Middlehurst (1993), Ramsden (1998), Bareham (2001) and Henkel (2001) are examples of the limited works. Ribbins (1997) purports to examine leadership in universities but closer inspection shows this not to be the case. The few studies which have been undertaken will be reviewed but reference initially will be to leadership and leadership theory more broadly. The argument presented here is that an understanding of general leadership theory is required to facilitate the research of research leadership.

There is considerable literature, much of which is descriptive, on university management but relatively few systematic studies (Deem, 2003). Often work has focussed on senior management (Warner and Palfreyman, 2001) or considers heads of department or above (Pritchard, 2000). Some has concentrated on non-academic management (Warner and Palfreyman, 1996). Research on university management has included an exploration of gender, organizational cultures and the practices of manager-academics in UK universities (Deem, 2003) and an Economic and Social Research Council funded project (R00023 7661) which explored the extent to which 'New Managerialism' was perceived to have spread through UK university management Deem *et al.* (2001). Little of the work on university management is explicitly linked to the concept of university leadership.

The underlying stance adopted in this research is that research leadership in universities can improve research outcomes and staff enthusiasm and commitment to research. Such a view of the importance of leadership to university research is supported elsewhere. Bushaway (2003) for instance, while generally focussing on research management, views research leadership in universities as important yet difficult. His analysis of

leading research tends to the descriptive and prescriptive. In a study conducted in Australia, Moses (1985) reported how leadership can be exercised to encourage and stimulate high quality research. This argument that leadership contributes to research performance is even stronger in universities today given the climate of output driven systems, of precious financial resources and of heightened competition and where the *raison d'être* of universities is a topical contemporary philosophical and political issue (Barnett, 1990). While it could be said that researchers can exist without leadership and that research could be undertaken without leadership quality leadership is considered important to both university researchers and research.

#### **4.2 Defining leadership**

Getting a grasp both of the concept and practice of leadership is difficult and has been made more problematic by the many contrasting perspectives of definers and people involved with leadership. Furthermore other factors such as when and where leadership were considered have contributed to the confusion. The net effect is that after seventy years of study leadership remains an enigma and continues to attract people to try and understand it. In the words of Gronn (1999) 'leadership has been and continues to be a source of endless curiosity... (and the).. leadership literature increases at a truly staggering rate'. Analysis of Bass's work demonstrates this. In 1990 Bass recorded 7500 leadership references which contrasted with 3000 in an earlier 1974 edition (Bass, 1990). One of the reasons for this large and growing interest in leadership is that it is commonly accepted as important and something that matters; it affects how organisations perform (Ogawa and Bossert, 1997). The importance of leadership has been recognised with regard to organisations in general by Fiedler and Garcia (1987). They claimed that 'the quality of leadership is one of the most important factors in determining the success and survival of groups and organizations'.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) state that no agreement exists about the essence of leadership, or the means by which it can be identified, achieved or measured whether reference is made to everyday speech or to the literature. Distinguishing leadership from other social influence concepts, such as authority and power, has complicated efforts to research leadership. Differences in definition have been put down to different disciplinary perspectives of the definer (Middlehurst, 1993 and Beare, Caldwell and Millikan, 1997) and to differences between contexts (Beare, Caldwell and Millikan, 1997). If the

influence of different perspectives and contexts upon leadership is accepted then the argument that there is more than one 'correct' meaning becomes more compelling.

Accepting the many different meanings attached to leadership at its simplest it is about persuading others to help in the achievement of a common goal. Analysis of leadership definitions shows that three particular elements commonly stand out. These are goal setting and achievement, group activities and influence upon behaviour of others. Three examples of definitions illustrate the centrality of these components. Stodgill (1950) defined leadership as 'the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal setting and goal accomplishment' whereas Fiedler (1967) considered the leader to be 'the individual in the group given the task of directing and co-ordinating task-relevant group activities'. More recently Shackleton (1995 p.2), in acknowledging the involvement of group, influence and goal in leadership, proposes that leadership is:

'the process in which an individual influences other group members (usually called sub-ordinates or followers) towards the attainment of group or organizational goals.'

The view that leadership is a process, and a dynamic process, is commonplace but it has been suggested that it is more than just a one-way process as implied by Stodgill and Shackleton where a leader only influences subordinates (often termed followers). Leadership has been regarded as a two-way process between a leader and followers (Mullins, 1999). However it might be argued to go beyond this and consist of multi directional processes between all leaders (if there is more than one) and followers within a group.

#### **4.3 Leaders and the leadership relationship**

Discourse about leadership invariably refers to the leader and often seems to suggest that by studying leaders one is studying leadership. But while leadership requires a leader the literature, as referred to above, suggests that it is more than that. Shackleton's definition for example refers to other key words – 'process', 'influence', 'other group members' and 'goals' while elsewhere it has been suggested that it is not an individual phenomenon but a complex relationship involving a number of variables including the characteristics of the leader and the followers, the nature of the organisation and the external social, economic and political environment. This emphasis on leadership as a relationship underpins Gunter's (2001 p.vii) work on leadership within educational settings. She argues 'that leadership is not an 'it' from which we can abstract behaviours

and tasks, but is a relationship that is understood through our experiences'. She adds that 'consequently, leadership is highly political and is a struggle within practice, theory and research'. Evidence of this struggle in theory and research is present in this chapter and its existence in practice will be determined from the later primary research.

Nevertheless leaders are a key constituent of most explanations of leadership and it is therefore apposite to say something about them at this point. Influence is often associated with formal authority and decision making. Fiedler (1967) implies that those, such as Vice Chancellors, School Directors/Faculty Deans and other senior academics and university staff, who have formal authority are leaders and may exercise leadership in organisations. This authority and right to lead usually materialises from appointment. Other writers claim leadership extends beyond senior staff. Stogdill (1950), for instance, acknowledges that leadership exists in other contexts and involves those besides senior staff. The existence of people in universities with job titles such as subject group leader, course leader and research group leader supports this. They probably have no or very little formal authority.

The notion that the leadership role may reside beyond a single designated person and both with an unofficial and an officially recognised leader is supported in the leadership literature (for example, Armstrong and Dawson, 1996 and Bennett, 1997), while role literature (Linton, 1936), if applied to leadership, also suggests more than one person within a group may have a leadership role. Gardner (1990 p.38) holds that

'leadership is the accomplishment of group purpose, which is furthered not only by effective leaders but also by innovators, entrepreneurs and thinkers; by the availability of resources, by questions of value and social cohesion.'

A similar view is taken by Shackleton (1995) who considers that in reality there are those at low levels in the hierarchy who do not have 'leader' within their job title, who may exercise leadership. These may be the real leaders who informally influence groups towards goals that those who hold formal leadership positions do not wish to pursue. So leadership could adopt a collective form. In analysing role expectations Mullins (1999) identifies formal, informal and self-established role expectations. From this it is possible to conceive that if such expectations exist related to leadership within a group that these may apply to more than one 'leader' and that individuals may even generate their own leadership dimensions.



#### 4.4 Theories and models of leadership

Leadership has been analysed in various ways due its complexity and variability and a consequence has been that a profusion, and arguably a confusion, of theories and models have been proposed. These theories include 'trait theory', 'the great person theory', behavioural approaches, situational and contingency approaches, power and influence theories, cultural and symbolic theories and cognitive theories. These are explained and evaluated in many texts, including in Middlehurst (1993), Mullins (1999) and Mullins (1999). One of the criticisms of these theories has been that they are often converted from description to prescription without much justification (Bush and Middlewood, 1997). Another criticism is that they should not be looked at solely in isolation and that they should be viewed as part of a broad framework where individual theories have strengths and limitations and are juxtaposed to one another with new theories often being developed as a consequence of perceived weaknesses in prior theories. However to date each new theory has rarely addressed the criticisms of previous theories.

A number of different theoretical frameworks have been constructed in the literature to try to make sense of the array of existing leadership theory. Three examples of classifications will now be briefly discussed. Pittaway, Carmouche and Chell (1998) reviewed the literature in the general leadership field using two sets of criteria. The first of these related to assumptions made in leadership studies about human nature. A key question asked here was in leadership studies to what degree is leadership behaviour influenced by voluntary or deterministic factors. The second set of assumptions related to the level in the organisation where the leadership research was applied. The result of their review was the production of four leadership theory paradigms; existential leadership, strategic leadership, influential leadership and situational leadership. Pittaway, Carmouche and Chell (1998) claim that one of the strengths of their work is that by identifying the assumptions of past leadership research it is possible to reveal differences in explanations of leadership. However the precise and clear delineation of the assumptions about human nature in past leadership research is far from easy and a criticism of their approach is that inevitably subjective assessments would have to be taken. A further issue is application which the researchers acknowledge, particularly related to the influential paradigm.

Another conception of thinking about leadership regards opinion as having emerged over time to form a spectrum of current debate on the subject (Kippenberger, 2002). This spectrum ranges from those schools which have a heroic tendency e.g. charismatic leadership and transformational leadership through to the more recent anti-hero schools of quiet leadership and leadership for greatness. This framework is useful in identifying how schools of thought have emerged with time but is limited in the use of hero/non-hero dispositions to distinguish leadership schools of thought.

The final framework considered here is that of Mullins (1999), which resembles many general approaches to delineate leadership thinking (e.g. Shackleton, 1995) and the few more specific theoretical models of leadership for understanding leadership in universities (Henkel, 2000 and Middlehurst, 1993).

Mullins (1999) examines leadership according to six approaches. Firstly, there are the trait theories which assume leaders have certain inherited characteristics from birth and therefore that leaders are born and not made. These theories focus on the person in the job rather than the job. Such theories have a number of limitations. From the many studies no consensus exists on the characteristics of the effective or ineffective leader. Furthermore often the identified traits overlap or are contradictory between studies while there is little agreement about the most important trait. Mullins (1999) then identifies the leadership as a behavioural category which draws attention to different possible leadership behaviours and the importance of leadership style to performance. Style has been classified in various ways and has been the focus of many theories. However no one single style seems appropriate to all circumstances and the failure to consider situational factors is a limitation. This resulted in the situational approaches which led to the development of contingency theories and the contention that a different leadership style is required in different situations. Again criticisms have arisen (Shackleton, 1995). Namely while each theory has merits they all have weaknesses. One particular outcome though of work on these theories has been the recognition that context is important to the effectiveness of leader behaviour. Then there are the functional approaches which are concerned with the functions and responsibilities of leadership and the nature of the group and, finally, leadership can be examined in terms of transactional and transformational forms.

Because of the complexities of leadership it is argued here that the use of more than one theoretical perspective and framework to describe and understand a particular situation

is required. This argument would seem strong for a situation associated with the leadership of research which in itself, as was emphasised in the last chapter, is complicated. The first and third of the above frameworks of leadership theory especially appear useful here and contain elements which are able to make a contribution to this research. The first framework of Pittaway, Carmouche and Chell (1998) recognises that leadership can take place at different levels. This is relevant to this research as the focus is on leadership which occurs within universities rather than of universities *i.e.* at the top. Also this framework is of relevance as it indicates that leaders may determine their behaviour or respond to circumstances. Experience of working in universities suggests that either could occur. The third framework Mullins (1999) is relevant to this research as it points to sets of theories which relate to what leaders do (functional theories), context (situational approaches) and to distinctions between two fundamental forms of leadership (transactional and transformational) which recognise leadership as relationships between leaders and followers in a context of human motives and physical constraints. While leadership is about possessing certain attributes or traits, more fundamentally it is about what leaders do in a particular context, which in this case is the context of research in universities. With regard to academic leadership this is a view shared by Ramsden (1998).

In the above discussion a number of models of leadership are mentioned. Bush and Glover (2003) list the key models as contingent; instructional; interpersonal; managerial; moral; participative; post-modern and transformational leadership. Simkins (2004) criticises such lists as they do not offer a systematic way of relating theories to one another, of identifying key themes and then relating them to one another. His dual views of leadership provide a different way of thinking about leadership. He calls these views firstly, the traditional view, and secondly, the alternate view which is based on more recent research and thinking (see Figure 4.1). Simkins (2004) suggests current thinking and practice about leadership in educational systems continues to be associated with many of the assumptions underpinning the traditional view but has been joined by a range of newly emerging perspectives within the alternate view.

**Figure 4.1 The traditional and alternate views of leadership**

<b>The traditional view</b>	<b>The alternate view</b>
Leadership resides in individuals	Leadership is a property of social systems
Leadership is hierarchically based and linked to office	Leadership can occur anywhere
Leadership occurs when leaders do things to followers	Leadership is a complex process of mutual influence
Leadership is different from and more important than management	The leadership/management distinction is unhelpful
Leaders are different	Anyone can be a leader
Leaders make a crucial difference to organisational performance	Leadership is one of many factors that may influence organisational performance
Effective leadership is generalisable	The context of leadership is crucial

Source: Simkins (2004)

#### **4.5 Leadership and management**

An important aspect of leadership is that it implies that a leader motivates the group and influences activities to attain group goals (Lipham, 1968 and Shackleton, 1995). This is important in effecting change. If no change occurs and activity is restricted to existing means and ends then leadership has not occurred. Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1997 p.24) state that ‘management rather than leadership may be a more appropriate description of such activity’.

The debate over whether leadership is or is not synonymous with management and whether both are needed within organizations has been discussed considerably in the literature. MacGilchrist *et al* (1997) show distinctions between them. This was also a practice of a number of earlier writers (*e.g.* Mayhew, 1979, Schon, 1984 and Green, 1988) who emphasise the differences while others, particularly more recently, (*e.g.* Glatter, 1997 and Bush and Coleman, 2000) believe such distinctions are overdrawn. Nevertheless an uneasy fit between the two terms does appear to exist as we generally expect managers on occasions to lead and, conversely, leaders at times to manage. The uneasy fit between leadership and management is recognised by Kakabadse and Kakabadse (1999). They extend the unease to transformational and transactional leadership and state that leaders who transform the status quo create a vision of the

future whereas another fundamental aspect of leadership is the concern with the management of daily affairs *i.e.* transactional leadership. Transactional leadership has been regarded as closely resembling traditional definitions of management (Middlehurst, 1993). Therefore some degree of overlap is apparent between leadership and management with the essence of transactional leadership being management. Burns (1978) coined the term 'transactional leadership' to contrast with transformational leadership. Further attempts to delineate the elements of transactional and transformational leadership have been undertaken by others including Bass (1985) and Kakabadse and Kakabadse (1999).

Many of the aforementioned writers stress the importance of both leadership and management. Bush and Coleman (2000) for example consider them to be equally important for educational effectiveness and it could be argued that they are interdependent. At middle levels within universities an overlap or ambiguity between management and leadership is often apparent with similar roles being alternatively called leader or manager *e.g.* programme leader or programme manager, both within and across institutions. The difficulties of separating leadership from management and indeed any overlap between the concepts, such as with elements of transactional leadership, mean that a broad conception of leadership will underpin the data collection in the primary research herein.

#### **4.6 Leadership in universities**

There have been few studies of academic leadership in universities. Green (1988), with particular reference to universities in the US, Middlehurst (1993), Ramsden (1998), Barnett (2000), Bareham (2001) and Henkel (2000) are amongst the limited works. Barnett (2000) postulates three models of university leadership. Firstly, he conceives of the chief executive model where the direction and management occurs at the centre of institutions. Then there is the action-at-a distance model where the centre accepts a limited direct leadership role and finally, the entrepreneurial model for exploiting the many new opportunities which are becoming available. A key theme running through these studies is the impact of changing external and internal contexts for university leadership and the consequent challenges that lie ahead for coping with these changes. All discuss the changing context, but Middlehurst (1993), Ramsden (1998) and Henkel (2000), in particular relate these to the kind of leadership required in universities. Particular empathy can be made with Ramsden's work. Firstly, because some of his results are based upon the actual experiences of lecturers and upon empirical research

and, secondly, because his particular focus is on the 'middle management level' of department heads. The weaknesses of Ramsden's work are that it tends to be prescriptive without always adequate justification - the actual empirical research results are, at best, sparsely presented. A further limitation is his focus upon a range of activities requiring leadership in universities. However some reference to leading research is made. But, here as commonly occurs elsewhere in the book, it tends to concentrate on ways to enable good research.

#### **4.7 Research leadership within universities**

Four different research leadership contexts have been discussed by Ball (2001): research leadership for the field of study generally, research leadership for a subject group/department, leadership of group research projects and leadership of individual research. Similarities and differences are likely to exist in the leadership role and activities between these contexts. It is also the view that these contexts are common to all academic disciplines and that therefore the points made are transferable. The focus in this research is on research leadership at subject level within universities.

Earlier 'context' was argued as being key to leadership. Leaders exhibit different aspects of leadership and different styles depending upon the context in which they are working. This view is shared by Bush and Coleman (2000). University subject research groups are confronted by contextual factors within the university and also outside. External factors include, for example, the RAE and the activities of competitors. Middlehurst (1993) discusses the context of the external environment and its effects upon universities and individual staff in some detail. Universities have always been competitive to a certain extent for good quality students, high class academics and funding and this trend is expected to continue. Subject-based research by academics is a key area where an institution can gain a competitive edge. Effective leadership at this level then can be important. Internally the culture of the organisation and the nature of academics are important factors. It is to these to which attention will now turn.

As previously mentioned, Ramsden (1998) identifies collegial, bureaucratic, enterprise and corporate models of university cultures. He uses these models to provide a way forward for the development of university leadership, which he claims is appropriate for academic values and universities in the future (see Figure 4.2). Each of these cultures, it is argued here, has different influences upon subject-based research and, depending upon their presence within a particular university, will impinge upon the leadership of research in subject groups. Criticisms could be levelled at Ramsden's approach. It could

be said that universities do not display features of one particular culture but rather contain elements of each. Also pigeon-holing specific aspects of research leadership against specific university cultures is too precise and polarised and in practice is far more difficult than Ramsden implies. While these criticisms might be justified the approach does facilitate our thinking about research leadership according to differing dimensions of university systems and cultures. It also provides some pointers to the role and practices associated with research leadership in different circumstances.

**Figure 4.2 University cultures and leadership for academic research at subject group level**

<p><b>Collegial</b></p> <p>Servant leadership. Leadership is a background activity.</p> <p>Control through consultation, persuasion, consent, permission.</p> <p>Authority derives from professional status.</p> <p>Leaders represent the subject group.</p>	<p><b>Bureaucratic</b></p> <p>Managerial leadership. Transactional elements present. Leadership is formal and rule-governed.</p> <p>Control through systems, administration and rationality.</p> <p>Authority derives from position.</p> <p>Leaders represent senior managers.</p>
<p><b>Enterprise</b></p> <p>Leadership is entrepreneurial and adaptive.</p> <p>Leadership is guidance, enabling articulation of vision, support for task achievement.</p> <p>Authority and control come from successful performance.</p> <p>Leaders represent colleagues, clients, students.</p>	<p><b>Corporate</b></p> <p>Planning and crisis-handling leadership.</p> <p>Leadership is command based, charismatic, transformational and strategic positioning.</p> <p>Authority and control derive from mission congruence and connections.</p> <p>Leaders represent top university leaders.</p>

Based on: Ramsden (1998) and McNay (1995)

One of the generalised findings from a review of the literature on leadership in education is that emphasis should be given to transformational rather than transactional leadership (Beare, Caldwell and Millikan, 1997). Studies have generally shown that transformational leaders are considered more effective than transactional leaders (Shackleton, 1995) although it should be recognised that leaders may use both types of leadership at different times and in different circumstances. In the terms of Bass and Avolia (1994) transformational leadership is seen when leaders:

- stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives
- generate awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organisation
- develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential and motivate colleagues
- motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests towards those that will benefit the group

These dimensions have alternatively been referred to by Bass (1985) as: individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence. These are now used to analyse the research leader's role.

### **1. Individualized consideration**

This might alternatively be called developing people. According to Conrad (1998) 'research has been an increasingly important focus of academic staff development' and academic staff are increasingly engaging in research for their personal development. Such a view is unproven and certainly anecdotal evidence suggests that the pressures of other work, *i.e.* teaching and administration, upon academics in certain settings are acting against the pursuit of research and scholarship. Traditionally a rather ad hoc approach to the development of academic staff researchers has occurred. However, with increasing professionalism and the increasing trend towards corporate management within Universities staff development activities have been brought much more into the centre of the institution and as Brew (1995) claims are increasingly 'leading to more systematic and often targeted development'. The Investors in People (IiP) initiative would also appear to have facilitated this centralisation and targeting of staff development. Formal subject research leaders also have a particular role in determining individual research needs and providing for those needs. Relatively little literature exists on research based academic development. Damordarana and Wilson (1995) have produced a handbook to aid the production of a training and development strategy for research centres while Smith (1980) has produced a prescriptive guide for the development and management of small research groups. Neither of these is particularly orientated upon academic staff researchers nor takes into account their particular circumstances. In contrast, Harris (1995) and Conrad (1998) are two authors who describe research development programmes for academics. Harris (1995) sets out the aims of a staff development initiative in the Faculty of Management and Business at the Manchester Metropolitan University. These were to stimulate debate, dispel some 'myths', involving staff in identifying their own development needs, encouraging staff



to 'share' skills and knowledge and provide a supportive environment for staff new to research. Methods of achieving such aims are listed. Ramsden (1998) similarly identifies a number of ways in which academics leaders can enable good research and scholarship through academic staff development.

## **2. Intellectual stimulation**

Many opportunities exist for subject group research leaders to challenge the old ways of staff, to encourage new ideas and to stimulate staff to think about research problems, issues and questions and how to address them. Leithwood (1992) having studied educational institutions states that transformational leaders appear to be in continual pursuit of helping staff solve problems more effectively. Many of the ways for individual development can also facilitate intellectual stimulation amongst academic staff researchers. These include; supporting staff to deliver papers at conferences, encouraging staff to research and publish on topics related to teaching and learning in their subjects, holding research seminars, organising research skills courses *etc.*

## **3. Inspirational motivation**

This is leadership through inspiration. By setting out a clear vision of the future and stating what is attainable encouragement can be given to others to raise their expectations. Subject group research leaders might develop a research plan based on an awareness of the interests and abilities of people within the group to move research activity forward.

Professors are often regarded as inspirational to academic research and a potential for leadership exists with them as they are invariably 'expected to be capable of bearing the responsibility placed upon them for guiding and developing research and teaching within their subject' (Middlehurst, 1993)

## **4. Idealized influence or leadership by charisma**

This means that the leader attempts to be a role model. Formal subject research leaders have the potential to positively influence academic staff in/to research through their personal image and efforts. The expression 'do as I do rather than do as I say' would seem apposite. Most formal research 'leaders' for subjects in universities have:- research qualifications; considerable personal experience in research and deliver research conference papers and supervise research students; significant publication lists; experience of applying/obtaining research funds and have contacts with other

researchers and research organisations. They are in a prime position to act as role models for others. Another option here is for leaders to invite external role models into university subject group research environments. Ramsden (1998 p.193) suggests that leaders could ‘encourage visiting scholars who are known to be good mentors of academic staff’.

Both Moses (1985) and Ramsden (1998) indicate ways in which leadership can be exercised to encourage and stimulate high quality research. These are classified by Moses (1985) into funding, distribution of funds, facilities and encouragement (see Figure 4.3). These approaches have been marked accordingly in Figure 4.3 as components of both transformational and transactional leadership. However some of Moses’s approaches are unmarked as they resemble managerial approaches rather than components of leadership *per se*. This demonstrates the difficulty of distinguishing managerial responsibilities and duties from the leadership role.

**Figure 4.3 Examples of ways leaders can promote research via transformational and transactional leadership**

<b>Funding</b>	Liaison with fund-granting bodies Assisting staff with proposals (T1, T2) Good advocacy within the University concerning departmental needs (T4)
<b>Distribution of funds</b>	To encourage new projects or new staff in recognition of productivity (t) Establishment of a research committee to consider internal applications for funds
<b>Facilities</b>	Ensuring adequate facilities for research (T1)
<b>Encouragement</b>	Establishing regular research seminars (T1, T2, T3, T4) Monitoring and developing research skills via training or joint projects (T1, T3, t) Regular communications with staff over research and publications (T1, T3) Establishing an internal refereeing system for projects and publications (T2) Celebrating effort and success in attracting grants, publishing and making progress in research (T3, t)

T1 – individualized consideration  
T2 – intellectual stimulation  
T3 – inspirational motivation

T4 idealized influence  
t transactional leadership

(Extended from Moses, 1985)

Figure 4.3 indicates that it is not a case of either transformational or transactional leadership for the ongoing leadership of subject group research but that both are beneficial.

#### **4.8 Limitations to research leadership**

A number of possible constraints on research leadership may exist. These include: ambiguity in the job description and the expectations of the role; the individualistic and independent nature of much of an academic's work; democratic participation and consensus decision-making and any conflicts which may occur between the demands of teaching, research and administration. The existence of such limitations is supported by Middlehurst (1993) who associates the constraints on academic leadership to academic values, structures and processes.

Middlehurst (1993 p.73) suggests that such values as academic freedom, critical reflection and autonomy 'may pose problems of 'fit' when linked to leadership.' This may be especially relevant to research where the specialisation in a subject by an individual researcher may result in their becoming an expert and supreme in that subject. Few, if any in the work place, or possibly in the discipline, may be able to challenge or influence this person. Academic researchers are usually left to arrange and determine their own research activities without recourse to anyone else. This is an embodiment of professionalism and could restrict the influence of a research leader. Furthermore the concept of critical reflection suggests that the authority of a research leader could be challenged by a researcher. In such settings research leadership might only be deployed effectively where researchers acknowledge and accept the authority of a leader to be legitimate.

Universities are characterised by the fragmentation of authority and by the recognition of initiative at different organisational levels. Such structural features often result in widespread leadership which may produce clashes and result in academic confusion. Personal experience in my own institution has shown this to be the case related to research. There are different 'leaders' for: strategic decision making related to the RAE; the work loading of researchers; for providing a research vision in particular subjects; setting the related research agenda and for motivating researchers.

The presence of divergent interests amongst academics and the frequent existence of ambiguous goals at different levels within universities create potential limitations in the academic process for leaders. Middlehurst (1993 p.77) says though;

'.. the existence of ambiguity, a potential for conflict and for fragmentation, while making the leadership task more complex, more difficult and different in kind, does not necessarily imply that leadership cannot be exercised ...'

Alternative conceptual frameworks and operational strategies may be required which recognise the distinctive characteristics and constraints of universities and of academia.

#### **4.9 Conclusion**

This chapter has reviewed and highlighted a range of key notions and theoretical perspectives on leadership from the literature on organisations and education. It provides a backdrop to the primary research discussed in the next chapter.

One of the many consequences of the concern, amongst academics and other interest groups, with the many pronounced, important and widespread changes affecting higher education has been the resurgence of interest in leadership . These changes have affected many things including university context or culture, the numbers and kinds of students, the curricula, the quality and diversity of provision and the need for more and different research. Middlehurst (1993) and Shackleton (1995) say leadership is closely linked to change through influence, group and goals. Hospitality management educators and researchers in universities have not been exempt from change and the need for them to focus on leadership is strong. The contention here is that research leadership can assist the process of change, by providing a vision and direction for research, by encouraging, developing, supporting and challenging individual and group researchers and by creating research opportunities. Influence, group and goals are identifiable here.

The chapter argues that the complexities of leadership are such that no one theoretical perspective or framework will adequately and completely enable an understanding of a particular situation. However certain ideas and theories would seem pertinent to the leadership of research in universities. These are leadership as a relationship between leaders and followers, leadership as being functionalist, leadership as being situational and the relevance of transformational and transactional leadership.

It has shown that the literature has paid virtually no attention to the leadership of academic research and yet, as was argued in the last chapter, academic research in universities is important. Describing and understanding leaders and leadership in higher education is concerned with who is involved with it, what do leaders do, what leadership relationships exist and an understanding of the role of context. These will be pursued in the following discussion of the primary research with the expectation that the outcome will be a contribution to the gap in the literature on research leadership in universities.

In this and the previous two chapters (chapters 2 and 3) the relevant three conceptual and theoretical domains have been examined (concepts and theories on context, research and research leadership). The purpose of this was to identify key factors of relevance to the study of the leadership of university academics in research with particular reference to the hospitality management subject area. Those factors related to context are the university/school context including policy towards research, the hospitality management subject context, the orientation of the university *i.e.* research-led or teaching-led, the traditions of the university and the treatment and expectations staff have of students. The factors related to research comprise conceptions of the nature of research and the specific characteristics of hospitality management research. Finally, the views and understandings of the leadership of research, especially its nature and importance, the synonymy or otherwise, of leadership with leaders and management, and perceptions of the roles of different actors/participants in the leadership of research are the key factors identified related to the conceptual and theoretical domain associated with research leadership. All these factors form the conceptual framework for the primary research. The next chapter draws upon the objectives of the research (see section 1.5) and upon this conceptual framework to develop and pursue a set of primary research objectives. Questions and responses in the interviews were prioritised around the lines of enquiry related to research, research leaders and research leadership and specific interview questions were framed on the aforementioned factors.

## **Part II**

### **CHAPTER 5 THE PRIMARY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES, DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND EXECUTION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The preceding chapters have analysed and evaluated research and leadership concepts and theories with particular reference to the university context. An outcome of this work was the development of a theoretical and conceptual framework for exploring the leadership of academic research of applicability to universities.

The broad aim of the empirical research is to develop a deeper understanding of the role of leadership as it relates to research in hospitality management by academic staff. This chapter begins by presenting the specific primary research objectives. From these the design, methods of data collection and analysis and the execution of the research will be explained and, where appropriate, justified. The research is qualitative and the reasons for the selection of this approach are outlined. Finally, the chapter also provides a profile of the participants and discusses the implications for the researcher of researching one's peers and the access and ethical considerations involved with the research.

#### **5.2 Objectives of primary research**

The objectives of the primary research were:

1. To establish what individual academics involved in hospitality management in two UK universities (a pre-1992 and a post-1992 university) understand by research and, more specifically, hospitality management research.
2. To determine the priority placed upon research by these academics, their reasons for this and their motivations for engaging in research.
3. To determine the identity, activities and characteristics of hospitality management research leaders and the nature of hospitality management research leader relationships.
4. To establish how these hospitality management academics conceive of research leadership and, more particularly, hospitality management research leadership.
5. To ascertain the nature of the contexts in which hospitality management research within these two universities is undertaken and evaluate the influence of context and other factors upon research leadership.

These objectives differ from those on page 7 which apply to the overall study.

### 5.3 The primary research approach – justification for the selection of a qualitative research design

Chapter 4 explored the concepts and theories of leadership in general, and of leadership in universities in particular. It also explored the role of research leadership in the university context. This work provides the underpinnings to the primary research herein involving cases of hospitality management. This research is mainly, but not exclusively, interpretative as it is concerned with the interpretation of research and of the phenomenon of the experience of leadership of individual research leaders. In part it sets out to understand the definitions, explanations and interpretations that these leaders have of their leadership activities and roles. Similarly, it is also concerned with how other academics interpret the leadership roles of these research leaders. The aim in this study is to understand what Remenyi *et al* (1998 p.35) call ‘the details of the situation to understand the reality...’. The research adopts a qualitative design as the research is exploratory involving poorly understood organisational phenomena (Lee, 1999). A qualitative design is also employed as local grounding (*i.e.* the sites of the cases, the participants and the processes) was important, substantial depth held intrinsic interest and was considered to provide a feel of ‘truth’, and the perspectives of academics were central to the study (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Based upon arguments presented by Ritchie (2003) qualitative methods were also considered useful in this particular research as they could provide information to identify factors that contribute to the undertaking of research, examine the nature of requirements of different academics within different institutions, explore a range of organisational aspects surrounding the pursuit of research and explore the contexts in which research leadership occurs. To some extent this research was also generative (Easterby-Smith, 1991; Ritchie, 2003), in that it was expected to produce new conceptions about leadership and academic research leadership and generate ideas to facilitate leadership effectiveness related to academic research.

A backcloth to the decision to apply a qualitative design to the research of hospitality management education (HME) and in this case the leadership of hospitality management research by academics will now be presented. There are practitioners, teachers and researchers of hospitality management. Similarly there are teachers who specialise in HME and researchers of HME. Those who research hospitality management and HME are commonly, but not always, the same people. Examination of the contributors to the special issue of *Education and Training* (1995), which concentrated on HME and training, demonstrates that the researchers are also

researchers of hospitality management. It might be expected therefore that approaches to the research of both subjects would be similar due to personal experience and preferences. Analysis of the contributions shows that four out of seven contributions drew upon qualitative approaches; one of which combined these with quantitative methods. Drawing upon ideas from Kelly (1980) and Veal (1992), which relate to the hospitality tourism and leisure industries, and further developed by Hampton (1999), a number of arguments can be applied for the use of qualitative research in HME. These include:

- The research method should reflect the phenomenon being investigated. HME is a qualitative experience.
- Qualitative methods, like HME and indeed hospitality, are generally people oriented and embrace social interactions. Qualitative methods are useful to understand peoples' meanings (Easterby-Smith, 1991). The data derived from qualitative research has been described as 'rich' and 'deep' (Peterson, 1994; Veal, 1997) in contrast to quantitative data which tend to be depicted as superficial.
- Hospitality management education provision, which includes research provision, should recognise people's (staff and student's) needs. Qualitative techniques have been claimed by some *e.g.* Kelly (1980), but not all to be most suitable for understanding these needs.
- Hospitality management education is dynamic making qualitative methods useful as they are well equipped to incorporate temporal changes and the effects of individual's past upon their views and behaviour. Qualitative data methods unlike survey methods can be used more effectively to probe attitudes and perceptions which cannot be fully understood by using a survey and are more flexible.

All the above arguments and advantages of qualitative research apply to the present study.

From the objectives listed in section 5.2 a number of questions were identified. Using Stakes' (1995) categorisation of research questions these were divided into issue and topical information questions. These questions are shown below adjacent to the related objective.

#### **Issue questions:**

1. How is research undertaken by university academics defined? (Objective 1.)
2. Why, or why not, is research by university academics considered necessary? (Objective 2.)
3. How do universities and academics view research leadership and its importance in universities? (Objective 4.)



### **Topical information questions:**

1. Of what does university context comprise? (Objective 5.)
2. How do academic staff conceptualise research leadership? (Objective 4.)
3. What is expected of research leaders, what do research leaders do and want to do and what are they perceived to be doing? (Objective 3.)
4. Where is research leadership perceived to reside? (Objectives 3. and 4.)
5. In universities what are the roles of research leaders and their responsibilities? (Objective 3.)
6. What examples of effective leadership of research are there in universities? (Objective 4.)
7. What barriers and facilitators are there to the leadership of research? (Objective 4. and 5.)

#### **5.3.1 The selection of a case study strategy**

A case study strategy was chosen given that the purposes of the research were exploratory and descriptive in nature (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). This strategy was employed in the pursuit of answers to both the issue and the topical questions. The prevalence of 'how' questions above is consistent with the view that this research was exploratory and descriptive. Further justification for using case studies in this type of research is provided by Hakim (1987) and Yin (2003). Hakim (1987 p.63) claims that:

'Case studies are a useful design for research on organisations and institutions in both the private and public sectors ....Whether the case study is descriptive, explanatory or is concerned with rigorous tests of received ideas, the use of multiple sources of evidence....makes the case study one of the most powerful research designs....Its (the case study's) value depends crucially on how well the study is framed.'

Whereas Yin (2003 p.1) says

'In general, case studies are the preferred strategy when "how" or "why" questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon with some real-life context.'

According to Hussey and Hussey (1997) 'the importance of context is essential'. Given this, and as Green (1988) argues any examination of leadership requires a discussion of context, details will be obtained to enable a description of the real-life context in which research leadership occurs. Hospitality management is normally taught and researched at a subject group or department level and therefore the unit of analysis (Yin, 2003) for the case study work was research leadership at this level in universities.

### **5.3.2 The organisations selected for case studies**

The intention was to investigate the case of hospitality management research leadership in two universities – a pre-1992 and a post-1992 UK university. These were assumed to have different contexts due, for example, to their institutional missions, research traditions and structures, and academic cultures. Background detail about these universities is given in chapters 6 and 7 respectively. There were therefore two university cases which were purposive in the sense that they were of interest to the researcher because of his employment position as a Reader in Hospitality Management. Both universities were selected from the list shown in Appendix 1 which contained 3 pre-1992 and 19 post-1992 universities. Travel accessibility to the universities and prior knowledge and contact with the relevant heads of school in the two universities were the deciding factors over the choice of the particular universities. These were allocated the pseudonyms of the University of Lethbury (pre-1992 university) and the University of Sturridge (post-1992 university) when writing up. The reasons for this are discussed in section 5.4.1.3.

Some methodological triangulation, through the use of documentary materials and semi-structured interviews, occurred related to the collection of factual information. The same questions were asked of many different participants in the interviews, permitting respondent triangulation (McFee, 1992 and Coleman and Briggs, 2002) of the answers to the factual questions and viewpoints from many of the questions related to the nature of research, research leaders and research leadership, and the approaches to research and research leadership, in the two universities. Triangulation facilitated the production of richer and more valid interpretations (Bannister *et al*, 1994). It also demonstrated a commitment to thoroughness in research by limiting bias and enabling generalisations. Triangulation has received support from other authors to legitimise the use of qualitative approaches (Denzin, 1978; Rossman and Wilson, 1985, DeCrop, 1999). DeCrop (1999) proposed it as a way of implementing the criteria of trustworthiness in qualitative research.

### **5.3.3 The determination of target respondent numbers and the selection of respondents**

A relatively small number of responses was expected from each case primarily because of the low number of hospitality management academics in any one university, all of whom would be regarded as potential respondents. Sheffield Hallam University was taken as a guide as it is one of the leading UK hospitality management providers. It had

16 academics in the hospitality subject group in early 2003. In other universities offering hospitality management the respective number was thought to be of a similar order. The entire population of hospitality management academic researchers in each of the case universities was therefore targeted. As the focus is upon hospitality management research a decision was taken to concentrate on those academics who were hospitality management researchers, official hospitality management research 'leaders' or 'managers' or, academics who regard themselves as potentially hospitality management researchers. The actual identification of relevant academic staff was thought may be problematic but they could be categorised into:

1. Academic staff who teach students studying for an undergraduate degree in International Hospitality Business Management and/or Resort Management and/or the Events Management Courses and/or a postgraduate diploma/MSc in International Hospitality Management and any other hospitality or joint hospitality + awards. Also staff supervising Hospitality Management related MPhil and PhD students are relevant.
2. Academic staff who research hospitality management but who do not currently teach.
3. Academic staff who have a desire to pursue some aspect of hospitality management research but who currently teach *e.g.* tourism, subjects.
4. Anyone with a responsibility for managing the nature, quality, quantity and funding of hospitality management research, leading hospitality management research or developing hospitality management research who does not fall into any of the above categories.

This categorisation was forwarded in a letter to the Heads of Schools, who were the academic gatekeepers in the two institutions. The letter sought their co operation and help with the identification of the appropriate individuals for interview (see Appendix 2). Following the approval of the heads to proceed the potential respondents identified were contacted. An example contact email letter to targeted respondents is shown in Appendix 3.

#### **5.4 Data collection methods**

Before explaining how the data was collected and analysed for this empirical research a brief comparison of qualitative data collection approaches will be provided. Qualitative data can be gathered from various data sources using a plethora of different approaches. Approaches to gathering data have evolved over time; partly as a consequence of ingenuity and partly because of the need to develop appropriate qualitative techniques for particular research circumstances. Some of these approaches, *e.g.* the interview, have many variations. While it is possible to distinguish these approaches often they

appear blurred. For example, observation might involve the generation of visual data or the conduct of some form of interview. Basically though qualitative data gathering approaches fall into one of three categories: interviews, observation and documents (Mason, 1996).

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 display strengths and weaknesses of a selection of qualitative techniques. These analyses can be criticised on a number of counts.

**Table 5.1 Strengths of techniques used to gather qualitative data**

	Observation			Interviews		Review of Documents		
Strength	PO	O	F	I	FGI	N	HA	DR
Fosters face to face interactions with participants	X			X	X	X		
Useful for uncovering participant's perspectives	X			X		X		
Data collected in natural setting	X	X	X	X	X	X		D
Facilitates immediate follow-up for clarification	X			X	X	X		
Good for documenting major events, social conflicts	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Useful for describing complex interactions	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Good for obtaining data on non verbal behaviour	X	X	X	D	D	D		
Facilitates discovery of nuances in culture	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	D
Provides for flexibility in formulating hypotheses	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	D
Provides context information	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Facilitates analysis, validity checks and triangulation	X	X	X	X	X			X
Facilitates cooperation	X	D		D	X	X		
Data easy to manipulate and categorise for analysis				X				X
Obtains large amounts of data quickly		X	X		X		X	
Allows wide range of types of data and participants	X				D			D
Easy and efficient to administer and manage							X	X
Easily quantifiable and amenable to statistical analysis								X
Easy to establish generalizability							D	D
May draw on established instruments								X

*Note:* X=strength exists; D=depends on use; PO=Participant observation;  
O=Observation; F=Film; I=Interview; FGI=Focus Group Interview;  
Q=Questionnaire; N=Narrative; HA=Historical Analysis;  
DR=Document Review;

Source: Marshall and Rossman (1999)

**Table 5.2 Weaknesses of techniques used to gather qualitative data**

Weaknesses	Observation			Interviews		Review of Documents		
	PO	O	F	I	FGI	N	HA	DR
Can lead researcher to 'miss the forest while observing the tree'	X	X	X		D	X		X
Data are open to multiple interpretations due to cultural differences	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Requires specialised training			X		X			
Dependent on small group of key individuals	X			X		X		
Fraught with ethical dilemmas	X	X	X	X		X		X
Difficult to replicate	X	X	X	X	X	X	D	
Data often subject to observer effects	X	X			X			
Expensive materials and equipment			X					
Can cause comfort/danger to researcher	X							
Especially dependent on openness and honesty of participants	X			X		X		
Overly artistic or literary style can obscure the research	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Highly dependent on to quality of the research question		X	X		X		X	D
Highly dependent on the researcher to be resourceful, systematic and honest	X	X		X	X	X	X	X

*Note:* X=weakness exists; D=depends on use; PO=Participant observation;  
 O=Observation; F=Film; I=Interview; FGI=Focus Group Interview;  
 Q=Questionnaire; N=Narrative; HA=Historical Analysis;  
 DR=Document Review;

Source: Marshall and Rossman (1999)

There is a degree of subjectivity present; there is no empirical or statistical evidence to support the claims; they conceal a continuum of the relative level of strengths/weaknesses *e.g.* participant observation has a higher level of personal involvement of the researcher than structured interviews which may have some; structured interviews are more appropriate for larger respondent groups than participant observation (Brotherton, 1999d). Nevertheless despite such criticisms these Tables do provide an overview of the general strengths and weaknesses of the approaches; they do offer guidelines for their use in HME contexts and according to Marshall and Rossman (1999) the limitations in one method can be compensated for by the strengths of a complementary one.

#### 5.4.1 Interview schedule

The main tool selected for gathering data in this research was the interview which when its strengths and weaknesses were compared with the other key qualitative data collection methods was regarded as most appropriate for obtaining credible data of relevance to the research questions and objectives (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003). A widely accepted definition of an interview is that it is a conversation with a purpose between two or more people. In this research an interview schedule was designed and a style of interview adopted to encourage conversation about research and research leadership and to seek answers to the research questions. The interview was in-depth, one-to-one, face-to face and towards the conversational. In an exploratory study like this in-depth interviews have been said to be very helpful to 'find out what is happening (and) to seek new insights' (Robson, 2002). The features of the interview, *i.e.* planning, opening, conducting and recording, set out in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), Hussey and Hussey (1997), Robson (1993) and Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) were reviewed in order to help think about how to conduct the interviews. The interview was aided by a carefully designed and ordered semi structured schedule (see Appendix 5). The schedule contained a list of themes and questions to be covered in the interview. Some questions had prompts attached to aid the respondents. There was some minor variation in the questions asked from interview to interview given the differing organisational contexts between the two case study institutions. The order of the questioning also varied according to the flow of the conversation and, in some interviews, additional questions were asked to maintain the flow of the interview or to probe meanings and thoughts of individuals in areas which were not previously considered but which at the time were deemed significant to understanding and helping address the research questions and objectives. Additional questions also on occasions enabled the interviewee to 'think aloud' about things they had not previously thought about.

The interview schedule, its administration and chosen, relaxed but professional, style were piloted. Interviewees were always asked at the start whether they received the detailed notes (see Appendix 5) I had sent to them (see Appendix 4) about the nature and purpose of the research and about the conduct of the interview. They were then asked whether they wished me to go through them again. In some cases I was asked to go through what I had previously sent. In both the pilot and the actual interviews I was introduced, a brief synopsis of the nature, purpose and rationale of the research was

provided and the names of the supervisors, an indication of the length of the interview and an outline of the conduct of the interview were given with the aid of a verbatim script. Assurances were provided.

A statement was made at the beginning of the interview about the objective of the interview, which was to ascertain the personal conceptions and views of research and research leadership which respondents held. The interviews were carefully divided into four sections labelled in a 'respondent friendly' manner, each with a different theme and a different set of questions. The sections were:

- Background details about yourself
- Your thoughts about research and your involvement in research
- Your opinions about research leadership
- Your thoughts about your university and research and research leadership

In the first section the questions were fairly short and required standard factual biographical material and knowledge-based data. Such an approach facilitated an easy introduction to the interview. Beyond that the questions were aimed at encouraging a general discussion about the key themes. They were mainly open-ended. The assumption was that an early momentum would be created at the outset of the interview which would see the respondent through the more thought-provoking and reflective part of the interview.

Interviewees were encouraged to provide as full and free a response as they were able to and were informed that they could, if they preferred, not answer particular questions and also if required the interview could be prematurely halted at any point. Interviewees were told that they could interrupt, seek clarification or criticise any line of enquiry whenever they wanted during the interview. All interviews were fully accomplished without problems. The duration of the interviews was between one and half-hours and two hours and following permission given by every respondent at the start of the interviews all were recorded by two audio tape recorders one of which acted as a backup. The recordings were taken to prevent excessive note taking, to enable full concentration by the participants, to ensure that an accurate verbal record was obtained and to obtain a chronological sequence of conversations. The interviews were subsequently transcribed verbatim using Microsoft Word and transcripts were produced as soon as possible after the interviews had taken place. Transcriptions are not contained in this dissertation due to their length and for reasons of anonymity and confidentiality.

Reflective notes were produced by the researcher following each interview relating especially to what were considered to be key points raised in them.

#### **5.4.1.1 Pilot work**

This consisted of the field trial and testing of the interview schedule and selected style of the interviewer during September 2002 with a research professorial colleague involved in hospitality management education. The pilot work was conducted in order to confirm the design and length of the interview as well as to provide guidance upon its administration. The pilot interview was conducted in exactly the same way as the actual interviews were expected to be undertaken. Following the interview the respondent was asked for some feedback with the aid of an evaluation script (see Appendix 6). As a consequence of this pilot minor adjustments were made to the questions and some additional questions were incorporated related to:

- Depersonalised examples of leaders
- The critical mass of people for research leadership
- Whether research can be led

It was suggested that the completion of a pie chart might be more useful for respondents to indicate the time they spent on research, teaching and administration activities.

#### **5.4.1.2 Interview administration**

After piloting the interviews were administered face-to-face with academic staff in the two case study universities. The interviews were administered between October and December 2002 as shown in the timetable in Appendix 7.

#### **5.4.1.3 Researching ones' peers and access and ethical considerations**

A key feature of this empirical research is the collection of data from peers in other higher education institutions. Here a number of issues are raised. These relate to the collection of data:

- From fellow academics
- From academics belonging to the same disciplinary area
- From academics ranging from close friends, to known acquaintances to complete unknowns
- From academics who resided at institutions requiring greatly different travelling times from the researcher's base



Essentially these issues are associated with a contrast between closeness and distance of peers to the researcher. This phenomenon has been noticed elsewhere. Bourdieu (1988 p.1), for example, said that:

'We are aware of the obstacles to scientific knowledge constituted by excessive proximity as by excessive remoteness.'

Whereas Delamont, Atkinson and Parry (2000 p. 18), in skilfully analysing this phenomenon, claimed that researching one's peers is not that straightforward because:

'Difficulties - practical, theoretical, and political - can arise from the tensions between strangeness and familiarity in research sites, and from the tensions that arise from transgressing disciplinary boundaries.'

In this research a familiarity, from over twenty years experience as an academic, with other academics, academic work and the academic environment was actually regarded an advantage rather than posing a difficulty. Similarly it was considered that the largely unchanged, at least over recent years, interdisciplinary nature of both hospitality management and of the academics involved with the subject would not present disciplinary clashes. However difficulties, which might be termed 'political', were perceived to be a possible consequence from tensions between the researcher and any respondents regarding themselves as from competitor institutions. Early recognition of this potential difficulty, like others identified here, was considered advantageous. In addition it was thought that reassurances to respondents about the nature and purpose of the research might alleviate any potential tensions and hence reduce, if not prevent, difficulties. Furthermore the researcher's involvement as an actor, and to some a prominent actor, in hospitality management research and his close relationship with some potential interview respondents could pose an issue regarding informed consent as these could lead to feelings of obligation or gratitude (Holloway and Wheeler, 1996). Because of this it was stressed to respondents that participation was voluntary. The close relationship between the researcher and some respondents may also have had methodological consequences *e.g.* avoidance of certain questions, during the interviews. With respondents who were unknown to the researcher a remoteness and possibly an uneasiness may exist. It was considered that the pursuit of a consistent approach in interviewing would minimise the impact of any strangeness or familiarity between the researcher and respondents.

Negotiating access to two sets of appropriate university participants was key to the research but was not considered problematic due to the researcher's profile in

hospitality management education and due to the relationships held with a number of hospitality management groups/departments. In seeking access to the institutions and involvement from individuals the following points were followed:

- There was a recognition of the need to be sensitive to the hierarchy within each institution. Permission to undertake the research was sought from the heads, of the two selected potential 'host' schools.
- The nature, purpose and assurances associated with the research were explicitly stated in preliminary correspondence (see Appendix 3).
- The expected number of participants, the physical requirements (room) and the number of visits and length of interviews were clearly expressed.
- How the findings were to be used was clearly stated.
- A need to be flexible in arrangements and in the interview procedure was accepted.

No issues arose with seeking access and the two chosen universities were willing to allow me to research their departments and 'approach' staff for their participation. This initial approach to staff was undertaken by the Heads of the Schools within the selected universities. Again seeking the involvement of academic staff did not pose a problem. Only one potential respondent declined to participate when approached.

In conducting this research ethical aspects were afforded serious consideration. This was especially the case given the high profile of the researcher in, and the long association with, hospitality management education. Furthermore ethical issues were considered given the subject of leadership being investigated. Questions about leadership may provoke emotional and perhaps even stressful responses. The data sought may have been highly personal and of a sensitive kind both to individuals and to their relationships with others. These and the ethical features of qualitative research, namely harm, consent, deception, privacy and confidentiality, discussed by Punch (1998) and Kvale (1996) were taken into account. Additionally ethical principles, such as those reproduced in Robson (2002) and checklists (see *e.g.* Kvale, 1996, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, K, 2000 and Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2000) for dealing with ethical issues were to be observed. In this research these would seem to particularly relate to the individual's right to privacy, anonymity of individuals and universities, and confidentiality. It was recognised that possible difficulties might arise related to anonymity of respondents given the relatively small field of hospitality management education. Although every effort was made by the researcher to conceal the names of the case study universities, pressure was applied by certain interviewees to

obtain the identity of the other institution. This on occasions had to be forcefully resisted and the identity of each university was not knowingly disclosed by the researcher to members of the other. However it was realised that respondents from one university may discover for themselves and through any of a number of networks the identity of the other. This could not be prevented by the researcher. Equally the revealing of identities of respondents to each other within a single institution could not be stopped by the researcher. In both institutions there were instances of interviewees referring to colleagues who were to be, or had been, interviewed within their institution. Perhaps it was the topicality and interest in the research which caused this or perhaps it was the presence of a stranger amongst their midst or perhaps it was just typical gossip!

It was recognised that ethical issues would be particularly important in this case study research because as Wells (1994 p.290) puts it, 'In general, the closer the research is to actual individuals in real-world settings, the more likely are ethical questions to be raised'. These questions may for example have related to the anonymity of individuals discussing their research leaders or to the confidentiality of information provided by respondents about organisational behaviour impinging on research leadership matters. Also the challenge of 'excessive proximity' (Bourdieu, 1988) or of 'fighting familiarity' (Delamont and Atkinson, 1995) was important to ensure that preconceived assumptions about knowledge of respondents and their environments were not made and that controversial or sensitive questions were not avoided simply because some respondents were known, and in certain instances closely known, by the researcher. The eventual departure of the researcher from the case study organisations following the research, the close/closer personal relationships which were expected to develop and the post research professional ties with both individuals and the organisations meant that any agreements had to be respected. Furthermore, the researcher had to endeavour to retain the trust placed in him by the respondents.

Within the writing up and discussion of the research findings, places, institutions and people are disguised by pseudonyms to ensure anonymity. Furthermore practical steps have been taken, albeit rarely and in a minor way, and only for ethical and confidentiality reasons, to avoid what Ritchie and Lewis (2003) call direct and indirect attribution to conceal the association of comments made by respondents to institutions and respondents. These steps included the occasional falsification of what was considered identifying organisational and individual biographical detail.

#### 5.4.1.4 The research participants and the participation rate

Twenty academic staff were interviewed privately and face-to-face, and all except one, on site at their university. Only two identified staff, one from each university, failed to participate. One of these changed employment after agreeing to be interviewed. The other failed to co-operate. Interviews in the pre 1992 university were only conducted in academic offices. In the post 1992 university interviews were conducted either in academic offices or in a specially arranged room. Table 5.3 profiles the interviewees.

**Table 5.3 The profiles of the respondents**

	Pre-1992 University	Post 1992 University
<b>Number of respondents</b>	9	11
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	8	7
Female	1	4
<b>Age</b>		
26-30	1	1
31-35	2	2
36-40	1	1
41-45		5
46-50	1	
51-55	2	
56 +	2	2
<b>Job Title</b>		
'Senior Staff'	4	3
Senior Lecturer	1	7
Lecturer	2	1
Tutor	2	
<b>Years of experience in Higher Education</b>		
1-5	3	4
6-10	2	1
11-15		2
16-20	3	4
21+	1	
<b>Highest Qualifications</b>		
PhD/MPhil	6	4
Other Masters	3	4
BSc/BA		3

*N.B.* 'Senior Staff' includes respondents who were principal lecturers, professors, and heads of school.

#### **5.4.2 Documentation**

The other source of data identified as being beneficial to the achievement of the research objectives was the use of documentary evidence. This consisted of:-

- web materials about the two institutions, their staff and research activities and structures
- job descriptions of academics and advertisements and job particulars of vacant academic posts in the two institutions during the study period
- RAE documents

Data from the first two categories was collected but because of the need for anonymity extracts (even doctored) could not be included with the dissertation. It proved impossible to collect job descriptions from the respondents largely due to them being unwilling to locate them or because they were no longer in their possession. Information about the RAE for both institutions was accessed from the web.

The documentation was valuable because it enabled familiarisation of the contexts of the two institutions, names and contact details of hospitality management academic staff members but only in the pre-1992 university and outlines of the hospitality management research activities and structures in both institutions. It also aided the design of the interview schedule and enabled triangulation against what interviewees supplied and provided formal evidence of research activities, structures and performance.

#### **5.4.3 The credibility of the research findings**

The importance of the research findings being credible was recognised and consideration was paid to two particular emphases in the research design: reliability and validity. Reliability is basically considered to be associated with the replicability of research results and whether or not they would be repeated in another study, using the same or similar methods (Lewis and Ritchie, 2003). In this study, as others have previously stated (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), the phenomena being studied are complex and these along with the impact of context were considered to be such that the research could not be replicated. In addition given that the research reflected reality at the time the findings were collected and that this was done in a situation which would probably change repeatability was unlikely. Because of these factors the idea of seeking reliability was avoided. Rather the notion of robustness was sought. Robust data was assured as far as possible by various measures including 'interviewing all' thus avoiding a sample bias, aiming to carrying out interviews consistently and checking interview

data with documents collected. Through particular reference to robustness the findings might be considered to be more dependable (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) or trustworthy (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Although replicability was most unlikely for the reasons given above any attempt to repeat the research could only be achieved through having as much knowledge as possible of the research process leading to the interpretation of the findings and the consequent conclusions (Seale, 1999). This is one of the reasons why so much detail has been provided in this chapter and can be argued to be a further demonstration of robustness.

Although some of the research literature questions the importance of validity in qualitative research, this research shares the view expressed elsewhere (e.g. Yin (2003) related to the design of case studies) that aiming to validate or verify the findings is important to demonstrating the credibility or correctness of the findings. This was facilitated through three routes. The first of these was by minimizing the amount of bias, which is claimed by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) to be the most practical way of achieving greater validity. Thus particular attention was paid to minimising the expression of my attitudes, opinions and expectations in interviews, to avoid seeking answers which only lead to the support of preconceived notions *i.e.* leading questions, to facilitate interviewee understanding by careful explanation of terms and questions and through the use of prompts and to ask supplementary questions if the responses of the interviewees were not fully understood. The second and third routes to achieve validity were through triangulation (see section 5.3.2) and through taking research evidence back to a sample of respondents, in this case four respondents, to check if what was collected was what was meant. Yin (2003) terms this second route as a test for construct validity. Some degree of generalisation was anticipated through the application of replication logic of the conceptual and theoretical framework, set out in chapters 2, 3 and 4, across the two cases and the generalisation of the case study work to theory. Yin (2003) refers to the latter as external validity.

## **5.5 The analysis of the collected qualitative interview data**

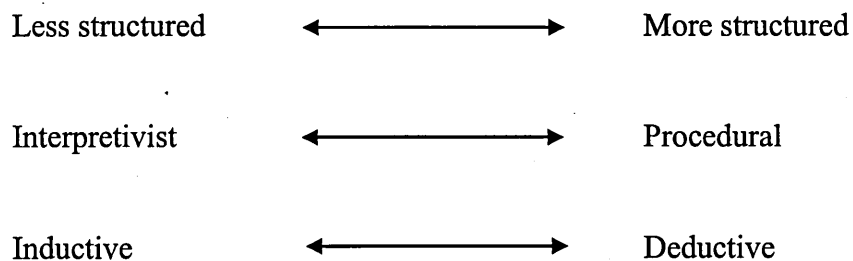
Previously it has been argued that qualitative research methods are suitable and can be used for gathering data from hospitality management education settings. Once obtained this data requires analysis. Difficulties can arise here, however, as there are no clear and accepted conventions (Robson, 1998), there are many theoretical debates on approaches (Hampton, 1999; Spencer, Ritchie and O'Connor, 2003) and yet there are, as with data

gathering, a variety of approaches to analysis (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Spencer, Ritchie and O'Connor, 2003) some which draw upon computer software packages such as NUD-IST, and Ethnograph which has been used here.

Our understanding of the principles, practices and processes of qualitative data analysis has greatly improved during the latter part of the twentieth century as a result of the efforts of a number of researchers. In the context of hospitality management research qualitative data analysis has been examined by Hampton (1999) and Sandiford and Seymour (2000). They, like Robson (1999) who considers qualitative analysis for social scientists and practitioner-researchers, offer basic guidance for the effective dealing with analysis. The achievement of rigour in the analysis of qualitative data has been pursued most notably by Miles and Huberman (1984) and Yin (2003). A number of authors, including Dey (1993), Hampton (1999), Miles and Huberman (1984), Ritchie and Spencer (1994) and Sandiford and Spencer (2000), focus upon structures and, in particular, components of qualitative analysis. Dey (1993) considers there to be three related processes associated with the analysis of qualitative data – describing and classifying phenomena and making connections between concepts. Descriptions of phenomena include contextual information of any actions, the intentions that affect actions and the process in which action occurs.

The task here is not to work through the approaches and methods of analysis nor to provide an evaluation of them but to describe and explain the approach taken to analysing the data gathered in this research. Consideration will also be given to the treatment, and the avoidance of mistreatment, of qualitative data when it is being analysed.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) distinguish analytical approaches according to different dimensions:



Amongst the goals of the analysis of qualitative data are to generate themes and to categorise. In this research the approach taken to analysing the collected qualitative data was largely and initially deductive based on preconceived notions, experiential views,

and theoretical propositions extracted from the literature (see Chapters 2, 3 and 4) all of which had also underpinned the research questions and objectives in this study. These conceptual, theoretical and experiential themes and propositions were then used to develop a framework to organise and conduct the data analysis (Figure 5.2). This template was modified following its application to the transcripts. The use of such a framework has the advantages: of rooting the primary research to the existing body of knowledge on leadership and research, of being a logical starting point and of providing an initial analytical framework (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003). It also enabled a more structured approach to be adopted in this research as part of a process or procedure of analysis.

**Figure 5.2 The initial template for the analysis of the qualitative data**

<b>A. Research</b>	<b>B. Research Leaders</b>	<b>C. Research leadership</b>
1. Definition - nature and distinctiveness of hospitality management research	1. Role of research leaders - appointed or not? - times spent on it - identified in job description? - expectations - effectiveness and influencing factors	1. Definition
2. Level of importance within the organisation - at university level - at school level - at personal level	2. Good research leaders - attributes - examples	2. Feasibility of leading research
3. Within the subject of hospitality management	3. Poor research leaders - attributes - examples	3. Need for research leadership - associated reasons
4. Motivations/reasons for research - at university level - at school level - at personal level		4. People and leadership - required - involved - relationships
5. Desire for increase in personal research		5. Approach to research leadership
6. Factors facilitating conduct of research		6. Good research leadership - existence and attributes - examples - influencing factors
7. Factors hindering conduct of research		7. Poor research leadership - existence and attributes - examples - influencing factors



The adoption of a process approach to the analysis of qualitative data is consistent with the views of others (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003; Spencer, Ritchie and O'Connor, 2003). Indeed Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) go so far as to suggest that the analysis of qualitative data should be viewed throughout the research process, *i.e.* from problem formulation to the final writing up of the research, rather than as separate stage. This is a view echoed by Robson (1993 p.306):

'Analysis, then, is not an empty ritual, carried out for form's sake between doing the study and interpreting it. Nor is it a bolt-on feature which can be safely not thought about until the data is safely gathered in. Once more Murphy's Law raises its head to make it highly likely that if you do this, you end up with an unanalysable mish-mash of data which no known test or procedure can redeem.'

For this research the analysis of the data was considered before and during the fieldwork and as an integral part of the whole project. In this case the process of analysis is shown in Figure 5.3.

However, in accord with others, it was noted from the outset that the reliance upon a deductive approach may not be entirely appropriate. Bryman (1988 p. 81), for example, states that the:

'The prior specification of a theory tends to be disfavoured because of the possibility of introducing a premature closure on the issues to be investigated, as well as the possibility of the theoretical constructs departing excessively from the views of participants in a social setting.'

For these reasons, which are limiting, care was taken to try and prevent premature closure on the studied issues and to maintain as far as possible the credibility of the participants' standpoints. This was done and as a consequence, and at a later stage, some inductive analysis was undertaken to both complement and overcome the reliance on deductive approaches. This led to the emergence of some new themes. The use of an inductive approach lent itself to the study of a small sample of people (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003).

**Figure 5.3 Hierarchy of stages and processes of qualitative analysis**

<p><b>STAGES</b></p> <p>Consideration of applications to wider theory/policy</p> <p>Developing explanations (answering how and why questions)</p> <p>Detecting patterns in data</p> <p>Identifying elements, refining template, classifying data via content analysis</p> <p>Summarising data</p> <p>Manual and computerised sorting of data by theme or concept</p> <p>Manual and computerised labelling of data using the template</p> <p>Construction of template of initial themes and concepts</p> <p><b>RAW INTERVIEW AND DOCUMENTARY DATA</b></p>	<p><b>EXPLANATION</b></p>  <p><b>DESCRIPTION</b></p>	<p><b>ITERATIVE PROCESS THROUGHOUT ANALYSIS WHICH INCLUDES</b></p> <p><i>Attaching data to refined concepts to portray meaning</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">↕</p> <p><i>Refining and distilling more abstract concepts</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">↕</p> <p><i>Attaching data to themes/concepts to give meaning</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">↕</p> <p><i>Attaching meaning</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">↕</p> <p><i>Generating themes and concepts</i></p>
--	--	---

(based upon Spencer, Ritchie and O'Connor, 2003)

Ultimately the qualitative data analysis was concerned with making meanings and drawing conclusions from the data through interpretation or explanations. This was aided by content analysis of the case study data (Yin, 2003). The explanations sought in the research were particularly for comparing, describing, and theorising. This clear understanding of the kind of explanation was required so that the data was not mistreated (Mason, 1996). Interpretation is a key feature of dealing with qualitative data. This is a human activity which has the strength of being capable of processing information in a very rich, meaningful and useful way. However, humans are fallible and being overloaded with data, the over-reliance on accessible (verbal) respondents, being clouded by initial impressions, overlooking the unusual or novel, being overconfident in personal judgements once made and being inconsistent are amongst the

numerous potential deficiencies. Such deficiencies were minimised by adopting a thoughtful and careful approach to the analytical processes referred to above.

A mix of manual and computerised methods were used to manage the data gathered from the interviews and documents, for data analysis and for exploring key themes. The Ethnograph v5.0 software was used for the preliminary analysis after the data had been labelled manually (Tesch, 1990; Weaver and Atkinson, 1994; Seidal, 1998). Ethnograph was an aid in the thematic coding of transcripts and then the sorting of coded segments of data. This was helpful when twenty different transcripts were being handled. However at all times Ethnograph was only a tool and did not usurp the role of the researcher in the analysis. Ethnograph, as others have recorded (Delamont, Atkinson and Parry, 2000), had the principal benefits of enabling time to be saved and of helping text based data analysis but throughout an awareness of limitations of computer aided qualitative data analysis existed (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003).

## **5.6 Summary**

The research programme makes an original knowledge claim which will relate to the nature of research leadership. It is anticipated that the practice of research leaders, particularly those in hospitality management, will be enhanced and that understanding of research leadership will be improved. It was recognised that the focus upon hospitality management in the primary research was not necessarily representative of university research generally but it provided a rich and worthwhile analysis and it is expected that this research would provide pointers for other disciplines and subject areas. Table 5.4 summarises key features of the design and methods of the primary research about the leadership of research by university academics.

The next two chapters will proceed to present the primary research findings which derive from the manipulation of the interview transcripts and from the review of documentary materials and the researcher's reflective notes. The data collected from the interviews were analysed, reduced and ordered with the aid of the template for the analysis of the collected data (Figure 5.2), which was drawn from the literature review, and Ethnograph v5.0.

**Table 5.4 A summary of selected features of the design and methods of the research study about academic research leadership in universities**

<b>Features of Design and Methods</b>	<b>This Research Study</b>
Positionality aspects of researcher	Long standing university academic, Reader in Hospitality Management, EdD student, male
Research philosophy	Interpretative, procedural and qualitative
Research logic	Both deductive and inductive
Number of universities, research strategy and sampling type	2, case study and purposive sampling
Source of empirical data	National
Respondent sample size	20 respondents
Data collection instrument	Semi structured face-to-face interview
Gender of respondents	Male and female
Data collection period	September –December 2002
Time Horizon	Cross-sectional
Data analysis aid	Ethnograph v5.0
Relevance to hospitality management education	Direct

## **CHAPTER 6 THE REPORTING AND PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS – LETHBURY, THE PRE-1992 UNIVERSITY**

### **6.1 Introduction**

Both this chapter and the next concentrate upon the findings from the vast amount of qualitative data collected. The findings portray the lived experiences, understandings, perceptions and views of academics about three main lines of enquiry - research, research leaders and research leadership. This chapter is devoted to the reporting and presentation of findings related to these research lines as provided by the academic respondents within a pre-1992 university, the University of Lethbury.

Interviewees representing a cross section of senior and junior academic staff were asked questions about the practice of the leadership of research by academics with particular regard to hospitality management research. Questions and responses were prioritised around the aforementioned lines of enquiry and the questions were framed on the different factors defined for the analysis of the research questions (see section 4.9). These factors have been discussed in earlier chapters and are: the conceptions of the nature of research; the specific characteristics of hospitality management research; views and understandings of the leadership of research especially its nature and importance and the synonymity, or otherwise, of leadership with leaders and management; perceptions of the roles of different actors/participants in the leadership of research; and the university/school context including policy towards research, the orientation of the university *i.e.* research-led or teaching-led, the traditions of the university and the treatment and expectations staff have of students. For each of the lines of enquiry the elements included within the template (Figure 5.2) are used to guide the presentation and sequencing of the findings. Hence within section 6.4 on research the main permeating themes/issues are the nature of research and hospitality management research; the importance attached to research; the motivations for research and the factors perceived by respondents to influence research. The key themes in the section about research leaders relate to their role and the characteristics of who respondents considered to be research leaders. Finally, within the third section on research leadership findings about what respondents considered research leadership to be; their views about the feasibility of leading research and need for research leadership; people and relationships in research leadership; approaches to research leadership and

perceived good and poor research leadership are presented. While the focus in this chapter is upon themes and issues the nature (*e.g.* level and length of academic service) of the respondents were also considered relevant and hence will also be referred to.

## **6.2 University background**

The University of Lethbury is situated on a pleasant, spacious and leafy campus relatively close to a major city centre which affords it student recruitment, placement and employment opportunities. This situation also puts it in close proximity to many industry employers and other organisations which is potentially beneficial to the conduct of applied research, the recruitment of academic researchers and research students and the pursuit of industry research funders. Lethbury was one of the earliest universities to commence hotel and catering degrees (later to be often referred to as hospitality management degrees) in the UK. It has an international reputation for its courses and other academic activities and many of its hospitality academic staff have high profiles in academia and are involved in activities in industry and elsewhere.

## **6.3 Profiles of the respondents**

There were nine academic respondents from the University of Lethbury. These were identified by the head of the school within which hospitality management education is provided as hospitality management researchers, hospitality management research 'leaders' or 'managers' or, academics who regarded themselves as potentially hospitality management researchers. Brief profiles of the respondents are shown in Figure 6.1

## **6.4 Research**

### **6.4.1 Conceptions of the nature of research**

Interpretations of research varied among the respondents at the University of Lethbury. This was summed up by Professor Brian Birch who stated that you can never get several academics to agree on what is meant by research. Nevertheless among the respondents' conceptions of research a number of perspectives emerged which were commonly mentioned as explanations of research. Articulations about the nature of research were generally adjudged to be clearer, more informed and possessing a greater insight amongst senior staff *i.e.* the professors and senior lecturer.

**Figure 6.1 A pen portrait of the respondents at the University of Lethbury**

Name	Job title	Age and length of time as university lecturer	Allocations of time at work	Background
Alec Beech	Tutor	31-35, 2 years	'Heavy administration, heavy teaching, heavy research in evenings and weekends'	Alec is a new staff member who has a MSc from the university and would like to do a PhD. He has worked in the hospitality industry and teaches hospitality students.
Brian Birch	Professor	56-60, 20 years	Research and teaching intermingle due to role	Brian worked many years in industry including hospitality before coming to Lethbury. He has a MA and a PhD. He is an official research leader and has a strong research and publication record.
Andrew Cherry	Professor	51-55, 20 years	50% teaching and associated admin., 50% research in term time otherwise 100% research	Andrew is an official research leader with a MBA and PhD. He has a strong research and writing record and was in the 2001RAE. He has a prominent external profile and has worked in the hospitality industry.
Reiner Fir	Professor	51-55, 18 years	50% administration, 30% teaching, 20% research	Reiner came from FE. He is mainly managerial but teaches hospitality subjects. He has a PhD and a strong research and publication record. He was in the 2001 RAE.
Paul Hughes	Professor	51-55, 16 years	75% management, 25% academic activities	Paul has been the Head of School and now holds a senior university post. He is still an academic in the School. He has a MSc and was part of the 2001 RAE.
Maureen Oaks	Lecturer	36-40, < 1 year	80% teaching and administration, 20% research	Maureen is a very new member of staff and has a PhD. She has previously run her own business and done part-time lecturing. She currently teaches year 1 students which is her main activity.
Fred Pine	Lecturer	26-30, 2 years	20% administration, 45% teaching (70% in first year of job), 35% research	Fred is a new member of staff and has a MPhil and DPhil from Oxford University. While he does not teach hospitality he refers to hospitality examples in his teaching.
Keith Redwood	Tutor	56-60, 8 years	25% administration, 75% teaching	Keith has a MSc from Lethbury and does very little research.
Michael Wood	Senior Lecturer	46-50, 11 years	25% administration, 30% teaching, 45% research	Michael has a MA and PhD. He regards hospitality as part of what he teaches. He is active in research and does a lot of external work. He was part of the 2001 RAE.

(Source: The respondents)

*N.B.* The names of the respondents have been changed.

The first perspective could be described as regarding research as an action or a process based upon the discovery of new knowledge or manipulating and using existing knowledge. For example Professor Paul Hughes said:

'Ultimately, the definition comes down to the identification of new knowledge, or new ways of seeing existing knowledge. That is what researchers are doing. And it's a process of taking the knowledge that we've got at present, and trying to explore the boundaries of that, either by finding out new information, or by reorganising the information which is within the existing knowledge in a different way, that actually pushes at the boundaries.'

The emphasis of research being about finding out new knowledge was supported by Brian Birch who saw research as being the 'discovery of things we don't know that are worthwhile knowing'. Keith Redwood thought academic research to be 'ground breaking stuff' and to be about 'finding out as much as you can about a particular subject'.

A similar stance to Redwood's was presented by Michael Wood who said that he would define research as creating new and useful knowledge for stakeholders. Professor Andrew Cherry, thought the question 'what is research?' was an interesting one and that defining research was 'not rocket science'. In contrast to others he thought research was not necessarily finding out answers, but asking the right questions. Michael Wood added to his interpretation with a warning though that he was '... a cynic. Quite a lot of new research, not in hospitality in particular, but in nuclear physics for example, creates useful knowledge, ....which may turn against the entire world....'.

The issue of the use of research by stakeholders, especially industrialists, was identified by Maureen Oaks who considered there to be 'a huge gulf between what's actually known and consumed on a practical basis, by the people for whom it would be a great benefit' and that there is 'a good opportunity for feeding (research) into industry in a meaningful way'. Similarly, Andrew Cherry referred to a gulf but related this to a gulf between academics and industrial practitioners. He believed that one of the great pleasures of being in academia is that it enables thinking about things and applying that thinking rather than simply getting on and doing things. He felt that this forms a basis of research as it then leads on to asking the right questions. He gave an example of research where he was managing a long term project conducted by a number of academics and full time researchers which included interviewing business people



around the country and writing a report every month. He exclaimed 'now that is research!'

Research was also interpreted as having a dynamic or temporal perspective. The influence of time was firstly, upon the type of research undertaken and secondly, upon the researcher.

Professor Reiner Fir recalled how ten years previously individualism in research predominated. Then he recalled it was a case of what's a research strategy? He continued 'we've got this research assessment exercise thing to complete. Let everybody send in their ideas, and we'll cobble something together'. Then the emphasis was on consultancy for people rather than research which meant that '... we were doing the work, the research work, getting paid for doing the research work, but of course not getting any publications, because it was private... Over the next period, up to the 1996 RAE, there was a lot of change, so research went a lot further up the agenda. We started to worry about research'.

The influence of the quality of applicants for academic posts has altered with time and has implications for the nature of hospitality research noted Paul Hughes. He indicated that ten years ago lecturers were being appointed without publications and research grants but that this does not happen now with new lecturers being 'light years away from where they were five years ago, or ten years ago'. He added that the consequence of this new breed of people going through the system is that they will 'make a material change on the nature of research (in tourism and hospitality)'.

#### **6.4.2 Types of research**

Some respondents explained research according to different types. Alec Beech, considered there to be two kinds of research; one type which was about answering what he called a 'real' question and the other which he said is about answering a philosophical argument as part of a PhD. Fred Pine distinguished between what he called 'generic research within the context of disciplines versus or complemented by research within specific sectors'. Structural changes at Lethbury, he claimed, were taking people towards the former but this was creating issues for those like himself who were undertaking specific sector research. Maureen Oaks also conceived that there were two types of research. She said:

'There's the self development research where you are learning things you didn't know before, by careful study of the literature and cross referencing of sources that you would put into your teaching. And that's the sort of self development research. And then there's the Research with a capital R, which is the gathering of new information, and the making of recommendations.'

She went on to define these respectively as 'pontification research' and 'empirical recommendation research'. Her impression was that the emphasis was very much on the latter at Lethbury.

#### **6.4.3 Research, scholarship and consultancy**

The ease and consequent issues of differentiating research from consultancy, and more frequently scholarship was raised a number of times. Paul Hughes stated

'I don't think there's an overlap with scholarship. To be a good researcher you have to be a good scholar, the two go together. Scholarship is something about the way in which you organise your thinking in a rigorous structured way.... Scholarship doesn't necessarily lead to research, but you can't have research without good scholarship. Consultancy is altogether different, and is about solving immediate problems, that don't necessarily, and don't often, push back the boundaries of knowledge. They're actually repeating the knowledge that has already been developed elsewhere.'

The linkage between publications and research was referred to on several occasions, despite not being directly sought through questioning. This indicates the role that publication plays in research activities at Lethbury. Alec Beech said that 'publications were definitely part of research' This was supported by Reiner Fir and Keith Redwood who both remarked upon the pressure to publish. For Reiner Fir this pressure was to publish in the generic journals but being from a hospitality background his aim was also to publish there. Thus there was a dual pressure. Paul Hughes and Reiner Fir, both professors, talked respectively of the influence of publications upon the nature of research and about the changing importance of research publication with the RAE. Reiner Fir stated that ten years ago there was an expectation that people would publish and numbers of publications were discussed but that this had 'no teeth' and was 'ad hoc' due largely to the undertaking of private consultancy through which a number of individuals 'were doing very nicely thank you'. Brian Birch, another professor, stressed the importance he attaches to PhD students publishing their work and preferably before they have finished. He went on to explain that publishing research is no easy matter and that 'only someone who's done it, can actually tell you, show you, how the thing works together. That's the leadership function. That's the mentoring function'.

On a different tack Maureen Oaks considered the overarching problem with research is the rating of journals as this 'makes publishing, doing research have a different aim than it should have, which is to reach a wide audience of people who think it's useful and interesting. And if it's all (rating journals) coming from the Government I think it's wrong'. Publication need not be research based argued Keith Redwood if it does not have a particular slant on it and no particular argument which is new.

When discussing research the majority of respondents at Lethbury regardless of length of service or seniority referred to the RAE in some context or other. Reiner Fir discussed at length how the nature and importance of research and publications changed with the 1996 RAE and how research structures started to become important. The targeting of research publications to particular journals as a result of the RAE was something analysed at length by Fred Pine. However Maureen Oaks, only appointed a full time permanent academic a year previously, admitted that people continually talk to her in unexplained acronyms like the RAE and that in the case of the RAE while it is talked about a lot and there are certain attitudes to it she did not know what it meant or how it worked and yet 'I haven't heard research spoken of in any other terms'.

#### **6.4.4 The nature of hospitality management research**

Opinions differed as to the nature and distinctiveness of hospitality management research. Hospitality management research was considered no different to other research by Paul Hughes who claimed 'they're all the same. It is the same process, this rigorous thinking about particular ways of exploring the world you are operating in'. However, he added hospitality management research, unlike research in mathematics or philosophy, emerges out of a particular sector of the economy, and therefore it takes on, but not always, the dimension of having a professional orientation to it. Maureen Oaks agreed seeing no difference as she said no matter what the sector research is about conceptualising.

There were opposing opinions. Brian Birch implied that research in hospitality, which incidentally he, like Fred Pine, saw the same as Tourism, is different: 'I've always thought that the hospitality industry is a special case. Distinctive, in a sense that it illustrates general theory by being not unique but a special case'. The problem he explained is that in research hospitality academics follow the industry rather than having their own ideas. Michael Wood echoed this view claiming that much hospitality research 'was more short term problem solving' rather than what it should be about

which is what is going to happen in thirty years time. He said the reason for the short term nature of the research in hospitality reflected the background of the people who are in hospitality research, because if they are professionals who have trained traditionally they will, like hospitality management, be 'fire fighters trying to find appropriate tools and methods'. He said that hospitality was not seen as research-driven and argued for research which is strategic and with a vision.

Another differing view came from Alec Beech who saw hospitality research as 'liquid' and 'elusive' having to alter as problems and expectations in the industry change.

In contrast to both the first two sets of opinions Andrew Cherry, a long experienced hospitality management academic, considered this at length and provided a mixed response when asked about whether hospitality management research was distinctive:

'There have been occasions in the past I would have said hospitality management is different to other forms of management. The hospitality industry has distinctive features. On other occasions, I would have actually given you a completely different answer which is, the more you look at it, the more hospitality is like lots of other businesses, and actually there is nothing distinctive about hospitality, and it's essentially a generic subject. The position I have now is to hold neither one nor other of the positions, .... and it depends, because hospitality management encompasses so many different aspects, that there may be some things that are specific, and there may be some things that are generic, .... And teasing out the differences, and understanding the similarities, is one of the ways in which research might go forward.'

He went on to say

'I don't think there are any unique methods of researching hospitality. The methods are quite independent from the context. I've used a whole range of different methods. They tended to be qualitative rather than quantitative, but when you look at the literature, what you find in terms of field work, particularly in America, is more and more a quantitative approach. But there's nothing in hospitality that requires a new or unique method to be developed for researching it.... There is a real problem in hospitality research which is, as soon as you say there is something called hospitality management in a research area, and you get people engaged in hospitality management research, what tends to happen is, that as new researchers come into the field, they only look at the research that's been done by other hospitality researchers and they don't peruse the literature review into the generic field.'

#### 6.4.5 The level of importance attached to research

Nearly all the respondents commented that the University of Lethbury was or wanted to be a research-led university which implies the importance attached to research generally. Paul Hughes stated that his School worked in the research-led strategy of the university and part of the university's mission is to have a very strong research profile. He said

'I would rank it (research) equally with teaching. The role of a university is about knowledge and the dissemination of knowledge, and the creation of knowledge is in equal rank to the dissemination of knowledge through teaching and publication. It's important for a whole host of reasons. One is because .... if as a teaching institution, the teaching isn't informed by direct research, then the teaching shouldn't be actually taught at universities, and there are other institutions who could actually disseminate knowledge which is simply generated elsewhere. A second reason is financial. There is a huge financial incentive to the university under current funding mechanisms, to make sure they get very high rankings. I think anybody who is interested in their subject, should actually be researching their subject and pushing out the boundaries of the knowledge of that subject. So there's a host of reasons why research is extraordinarily important.'

The commercial value of the university researching was highlighted by Reiner Fir, Fred Pine and Michael Wood who also considered it important for reasons associated with prestige and reputation. Alec Beech stated that

'... the research drives funding, and good research drives the students in, because if you're not a university in research, why would a student want to come and study here. Because all the articles in the newspapers, all the stats, really what they're looking at is research. And the second reason is probably romantic in that if you do good research, and you're ahead of the industry, then you can teach to the students what will be ahead of the industry.'

Keith Redwood while agreeing that research was important for funding and reputation felt there was a downside as the professors have the least contact with students and research therefore does not make them good teachers. The emphasis on research within the School changed dramatically after 1996 as it had to keep up with the direction the University was taking said Reiner Fir. This direction came from the top said Keith Redwood and as Reiner Fir said for the School it meant a much clearer message in terms of expectation, more bids to research councils and externally funded bodies, an increase in the number of PhD students, the setting up of research centres, of which at the time of the interviews there were a few, and the development of a research strategy before writing up the RAE document. Maureen Oaks recalled a recent meeting when a senior academic in the School placed much importance on world class research, leading

edge research and publishing in 5\* journals. According to Brian Birch, the University of Lethbury

'....places very high priority (on research), and it's a clear strategy. The problem is like anybody else, the university is paid to teach students, and assessed by its research quality. That's a dilemma which everybody has got, but we are clearly moving towards 5-rated research department, because there's no future in being anything else. And I worry about hospitality management in that context... as it hasn't performed as a research subject over the last 10 years, and it's a clear lack of leadership in this area, in hospitality management.'

Fred Pine observed that the university envisaged that research should be of primary importance within each School and that a 5 or 5 \* was sought in the next RAE in his School. He recognised that in other Schools they may question the importance of hospitality research. In their School, Michael Wood said, they are working to ensure that it is seen as a serious area both for teaching and research. Nevertheless Reiner Fir commented that '... there is a definite feeling (contrary to the evidence) that the only way to get on in this institution is to be research focussed. And if you want to concentrate on teaching and being a good teacher then you're not going to get anywhere'. Alec Beech described the pressure for staff to research as huge because without research there is a lack of direction. He saw research in hospitality as being a necessity and that it had to be managed and co-ordinated unlike in the old days when there was '...a professor who had a pipe and leather armchair, and had two MSc students and they would have a coffee and discuss their dissertations'. The importance of academics being involved with research was recognised by Maureen Oaks who remembered that when she was interviewed she was asked more questions about what sort of researcher she was than anything about teaching. Keith Redwood indicated that new lecturers had to have a PhD. The importance of getting research projects for promotion was recognised by Fred Pine.

Links between research and teaching were commonly expressed. Fred Pine was delivering a MSc module which was very much related to his research and which he wished to use to attract people to a PhD and create what he called 'a research circle' and 'a research environment' around what he is doing. Reiner Fir proceeded to say that

'.... institutionally, it is also fairly obvious that the best way to progress is to have a balance between teaching and research and administration, and it is very clear in all documentation that there doesn't seem to be any particular distinction between people getting promoted because of research .... so although the institution is very firmly research led, and wants to see research as being important, that doesn't mean to say it's only focus is on research.'

He emphasised the link between teaching and research through reference to student numbers. If hospitality student numbers fell then those teaching hospitality also decreased leading to less hospitality researchers which in turn resulted in the problem of a lack of critical mass to research. He and others such as Fred Pine believed critical mass to be important for research. Reiner Fir felt this had always been a problem in the hospitality management area where there were some very good people doing bits individually but there were very few with critical mass. He gave an example where he felt critical mass in hospitality research was being achieved in his institution. For him critical mass meant putting together research teams, having research officers and PhD students and being much more directive about what is done rather than allowing individuals to do as they please. Fred Pine went so far as to say that critical mass meant more than five people in a research centre while Brian Birch stated that ‘.. if there’s some college with a capacity to herd some good academics together in hospitality management, it will do well’. However despite the strides made in his institution Reiner Fir still believed that they as hospitality researchers needed to make a breakthrough to be recognised as being at the top of the business management league.

The importance of research to teaching was mentioned by others. For example Brian Birch said ‘I don’t separate good research and good teaching. I think good teaching is dependant on good research’. He continued

‘We all agree on certain things about the importance of research, and that the future of academic subjects is dependant upon it. Government’s not going to support research departments that don’t really research, except as teaching. And I worry greatly about Government commitment. Because you end up with a situation I went through when I was at college. They (academics) were very good, but out of date.’

Maureen Oaks adopted a similar stance saying that good teaching comes from having a strong base of innovative and up to date research. She argued for ‘a link between research and teaching as well as for research in its own right’. Reiner Fir argued that what academics should and must do is to translate the research they are doing into the classroom rather than just research anything and progress up the career ladder.

Andrew Cherry referred to an evolving structure which has had three regimes in terms of how research has been organised at Lethbury. When he first arrived there were loose research groupings but then with the RAE the School became more proactive and formed clear and discrete research groups. The hospitality group had 9/10 academics. There were differences in the way groups operated. If the group adopted a formal

approach (some were more informal because of their constituency, size and the nature of the individual leader) then the research group leader had a budget and could make decisions about who went where. The extent to which groups devised plans, strategies *etc.* varied from group to group. More recently the research structures have been refined into new centres and the direction seems to the larger research centre. Cherry referred to the shifts in thinking.

'The main difference between these big research Centres under the new regime, and the old research centres under the old regime, is that.....under the old regime, the philosophy was let a thousand flowers bloom and see which ones were successful. The new regime is saying that's all very well but that doesn't necessarily contribute to a strategy, people are going to be hither and thither, and be very busy, but at the end of the day the output could be not very great, nor seem to be very significant. John does not want to be directive about setting up these new Centres, 'cos that's not his style, but at the end of the day, nothing is going to happen as far as he's concerned, in terms of funding or organisation, unless that's what happens. So people are just going to have to knock their own heads together in order to merge the existing centres into bigger things.. the research centres do have someone who heads them up and some of them are very small (due to external funding). There's still a lot of discussion to what exactly we should do. Should we be generic? Should we be specific?. Should we be both? I think the general idea is that....we should certainly have subject groups, which are not research based, but probably teaching based, to which people could clearly identify with, and then the research centres might well be multi-disciplinary. In other words, they'll go the other way. So whilst we might have an organisation from the point of view of teaching and courses, that has groups of people in marketing, human resources, organisational behaviour, ops and information management, strategy and marketing, the generic centres that get set up might span that.'

The general consensus was that ideally the centres at Lethbury should have a critical mass of a substantial number of academics with a very clear contribution to the body of knowledge in quite specific areas. One respondent said this number should not be less than five for a centre to be viable. Paul Hughes's view was that 'it's not an issue if there is only one but the more that are involved pulling in the same direction would pull you further and give you a greater reputation'.

Another important element in conducting research in the School during the last two years, which Reiner Fir referred to, has been the value of research officers which has enabled researchers to get things done.

#### **6.4.6 Time spent researching**

When asked about how much time they spent on research and other activities responses varied. However some patterns emerged – professors and new academics spent the



smallest proportion of their time on research with the former concentrating most on administration/management and the latter on teaching; professors with a research brief found it more difficult to split research from teaching.

#### 6.4.7 Factors influencing the conduct of research

Besides enhancing teaching various reasons were cited by individuals for pursuing research. The array of motivations amongst staff at all grades and with varying lengths of experience indicates the orientation and desire of respondents. Reiner Fir saw research as 'part of my job as a senior academic'. He, Alec Beech and Keith Redwood considered it to be associated with career aspirations and promotion. Paul Hughes, like Reiner Fir, thought research interesting with Fir continuing 'it's fascinating and I enjoy it but it's still a bit of a chore'. Others viewing research in personal terms were Alec Beech who said 'I get kicks from the research itself'; Michael Wood who wanted to find out some truth for himself; Brian Birch who stated that he always had questions that he was interested in answering; and Keith Redwood who said he had a 'personal desire to achieve the highest I can' and 'it keeps the grey cells going'. Finally Maureen Oaks considered that she had 'a desire to satisfy an industrial need'.

**Figure 6.2 Barriers to increased personal research**

Time, my role, my language, a sense of loneliness in what I am doing and the structure of the building divorcing me from colleagues	Alec Beech
Convincing industry and colleagues that research is worthwhile	Brian Birch
Administrative responsibilities and publishing commitments	Andrew Cherry
My fairly high teaching load and role within the School	Reiner Fir
Pressures on my time	Paul Hughes
Getting co-opted onto other people's research	Maureen Oaks
Getting funding and people not being entirely sympathetic to my research interests	Maureen Oaks
I am at the stage in my career (first year) when I have got to concentrate on teaching and administrative responsibilities	Maureen Oaks
Teaching overload related to the increasing number of students and the need to keep updated	Fred Pine
My lifestyle and activities outside the University	Keith Redwood
The lack of support from a particular senior academic as my research interests were not seen as what the School wanted	Keith Redwood
Workload	Michael Wood

Even in this pre-1992 university there were barriers to the pursuit of research cited by all respondents. Amongst these time pressures and the emphasis on administration and teaching featured most strongly (see Figure 6.2). But Professor Paul Hughes with regards to the latter said 'the community will say they over teach but when I have explored this I have found that behind such cries there is a great deal of hiding, of not getting on with research'.

Professor Andrew Cherry considered that strategy held back research. He said

'The thing is, the notion that actually academics and professors and people in key positions actually do research. I don't think they do. We have so limited opportunity to go out and engage in fieldwork that really the only way good quality research gets done by professors, is through their supervision of others. That's supervision either of full time paid research officers, or through the supervision of PhD students. Now one of the things that's been holding me back is the fact that this School is living, in my view, in the 1960s, and has no strategy in terms of how it encourages or recruits PhD students. It's all entirely reactive. Someone comes up with a proposal. We either like it or we don't, and we end up accepting an entirely eclectic bunch of people researching this, that and whatever. There's no strategic stuff underpinning it,... and we have to re-think what we're trying to do here.'

A number of other factors were stated to adversely influence the general conduct of research in hospitality management at Lethbury. These included a lack of research leadership, the limited value placed upon research by industry, unless it is best practice oriented, and consequently the limited research funding from industry and the lack of research training. Maureen Oaks said that as a new member of staff it was relatively straightforward to get on university teaching training sessions but not research based sessions *e.g.* talking about research, bidding for research grants. She said 'if there was some kind of induction as to how we do research, as part of my overall induction to the programme, to the university, that would have helped. You could argue there should be an umbrella research thing. Research communications are very much school based but even here there weren't research seminars'.

When asked about ways around these barriers to research Professor Reiner Fir said that one should 'force and commit oneself to things which you haven't really got time to do'. He proceeded to say that administrative responsibilities should be taken away from academics and given to administrators with research officers doing some of the research legwork. Thus, he said, there would be a change from being teachers to academics which he considered is still the case in hospitality. Maureen Oaks supported the mentor role as she had had more success with individuals approaching her to get involved with

research projects than with anything official through research centres. Brian Birch thought that using school research structures to get more research contracts and to focus rather than to spread themselves too thinly would be a way around the barriers.

Only one factor was specifically mentioned as encouraging research and this was from Alec Beech who commented that being single enabled him to get research work done.

## **6.5 Research leaders**

### **6.5.1 Conceptions and perceptions of research leaders**

Fred Pine thought 'a research leader should lead in the context of a research strategy'. Lethbury is generally regarded as a research-led university with a research strategy and this was claimed by respondents to be affecting leaders of research. It is making them think about their role as research leaders. Andrew Cherry, an officially appointed research leader, talked about the changes taking place in research, and in hospitality management research particularly, and how his role as a research leader reflected these changes. He said

'...in terms of research leadership (you could) give people some clear notion of a vision of the future. Not necessarily a strategy, not necessarily a plan, but at least some direction. More and more, I'm concerned and convinced that what that vision of the future has to be does lie around this notion of not encouraging people to pursue their own area of interest, but about this notion of critical mass, and getting people to share a vision of the future where there's mutual interest in research topics that actually would drive things forward. If you're a systems thinker you believe in the notion of synergy, which is the notion that 2 plus 2 can equal 5.'

He questioned the traditional role of formal research leaders at Lethbury saying that they had tended to act as role models leading by example *i.e.* by being 'expert' researchers. Michael Wood considered himself to be 'privileged to have research leaders who were driven in their research'. Andrew Cherry though thought the traditional way was no longer a very effective way of leading and what was needed were research leaders who did more than concentrate on their own research. They also needed, according to Cherry, to allocate resources more effectively and use money in the best possible way to give people the time and the freedom to engage in research. He also thought that considering research as a team pursuit rather than thinking about individuals was important. He said that

'It would seem to me that the notion of transformational leadership is one that would sit quite well with research... as transformational leaders are more

concerned with the vision thing, change, the process of change, and process issues, rather than outcome issues. (But also) at one very practical level it's managerial in the sense that it's a means by which you make things happen, and in that sense it might be transactional. But it's also about credibility.... if you didn't make resources available, if you didn't do what you could to create a climate or environment in which people could operate, then I don't think you'd have any credibility as a leader, because leader's don't simply lead by example, or motivation. They're meant to make things happen, and not necessarily in relation to who they are leading, but also the context in which those people are operating. So part of the function of a leader is to do those things, because if the leader's not going to do it, no one else is going to do it for them.'

This suggests two models of research leaders – 'traditional research leaders' and 'modern research leaders'. From the interviews at Lethbury there was a strong sense that while official research leaders were very much accepted as traditional leaders they should consider extending their roles. They should be experts in research themselves and produce personal outputs, for example publications and conference papers, while also increasingly leading a research function which embraced developing other people. However to do these things simultaneously was regarded as different and far more demanding compared with what was expected from other academic leaders *e.g.* course leaders or subject group leaders, who whilst leading a particular function tended not to have to produce or be measured in terms of their personal outputs. Michael Wood for example spoke of certain senior research leaders going up as fast as they can personally in terms of their own research but also said

'...if you really want to lead individuals, you've got two routes. One is really to inspire and....get them (other academics) on your side, and at the same time, bring them along and all the rest of it...and the other thing is really to create research funds, and to buy people in, which is then you bring your research assistants and staff, and you create your own groups.'

Beyond the general roles of research leaders there was recognition of specific roles according to the level at which the official leader resided. Maureen Oaks encapsulated this view when she commented that the role of one senior research leader was to offer skills, experience related to organisation and to achieving deadlines and knowledge of the organisation, and the system while lower down there are leaders who actually manage a team of researchers for a specific project who have to rely especially upon subject knowledge. So she recognised that 'there are different leaders, there are different levels of leadership within the system'.

Michael Wood said that there were 'three hospitality management senior academics who had leadership qualities and were appointed to lead hospitality research'. He went

on to say that along with these official leaders were unofficial research leaders. There are some who lead in hospitality because of their job title but there may be other members of staff who have their own area and who have an established reputation. He put it that

'...the university is trying to invest and attract leaders in their field regardless of where they stand in the hierarchy.. so they could be a leader in the field rather than an official leader of people and because most of the people have a PhD as well they have contributed to the body of knowledge and to a certain extent, they lead that area.'

He went on to suggest some of the factors influencing their performance:-

'...the leaders have got a very difficult job trying to perform their job in the university because they do not have tools to perform their jobs (tools to manage and motivate or harass people).'

The existence of unofficial leaders was supported by Brian Birch. However he regarded himself as an official research leader given that he had written extensively on research methods and that he was responsible for postgraduate studies and led a newly formed research group but research leaders in hospitality did not necessarily equate with job titles. Alec Beech referred to this by saying 'it is the informal people you choose, or they choose you'. Sometimes individuals did not regard themselves as informal leaders while others did e.g. Beech thought Fred Pine did 'lead him' informally which contrasted with Pine who did not consider himself a leader. However he did state that 'people did come to him for knowledge of a specific sector rather than consulting me for my research skills'.

Reiner Fir talked of leaders leading leaders and said he was a research leader as he led his own research group, led projects and had some influence at the departmental and institutional levels. He had also been a research leader externally. The notion that leaders can simultaneously be followers (Shackleton, 1995) was recognised by Michael Wood who said 'so we're all leaders and not leaders at the same time'.

Another noticeable feature was the prominence of self-research leaders who were self-motivated and directed in their research activities. This self leadership in research was facilitated by a large majority of the respondents having doctorates .

So to summarise, the formal research leaders at Lethbury were research experts, role models and leaders of research in their subject. There was some desire for leaders who were more people oriented. Informal leaders often fulfilled this role. Most respondents

were research qualified with doctorates. This supported them towards being self-research leaders.

### **6.5.2 The nature of the job of a research leader**

Given the importance attached to research and its leadership at Lethbury one might expect it to feature in job descriptions. Paul Hughes said that research leadership is included in the job description of Head of School and that he knew what was expected as he had been on the School Research Committee. But for other senior academics who are official research leaders it was not included. Reiner Fir for instance said that he could honestly say he has never had a job description that mentioned research leadership or a leader. He just assumed leadership. Or the inclusion of research leadership in the job description was unknown as Andrew Cherry indicated she had 'no idea (if research leadership is mentioned in my job description). I don't think I have read any of my job descriptions ever ... I don't even know where it is'. The view of a non-senior academic was that he thought 'that people who are made professor or reader get it because of their hard work and are not necessarily given a job description'. In contrast, Keith Redwood said that 'somewhere there is a list of what everybody's job is and that (research leader) is regarded as an administrative job, it's just that it is not that apparent'. Reiner Fir talked of himself assuming leadership. In contrast Andrew Cherry reflected on how people became research leaders.

'It is not unusual in our field for people to get to senior research leadership positions in hospitality management in the UK, because they are proved to be competent, not only in research, but in a whole range of things, in terms of course leadership, teaching, publication. Not necessarily research led publication, but text book publication, administration, and so forth, and therefore, it's fairly rare to find someone who has only ever been a researcher who has got into a senior research leadership position.'

A number of people talked of leading postgraduate (PhD) students in research but not leading other academics and for some *e.g.* Fred Pine, there was an ambition to eventually become a leader of other academics in research. Some staff below professorial level expressed their expectations of leaders. Fred Pine considered that professors and senior lecturers are flagships, because they're more experienced researchers, and they should give some of their expertise and experience, and tips to younger people. She said that at Lethbury junior members of staff have a senior colleague appointed to mentor them who will assist in many ways including helping

them become an 'expert in the field' and, a 'very good researcher'. They will talk to individuals about their research plans. She continued

'I consider them to be established researchers in the field, and the reason why we do need a leader, is because we also need somebody to liase with the industry.. but I would expect a director of a centre, to be more active and use the network in order to bring ideas and money and further research into the centre. So basically, to be a director, you should express your academic merit in a creative and realistic way.'

Alec Beech offered another expectation which was that people are not measured in terms of their leadership of research but are measured more in terms of research output which he claimed included the number of PhD supervisions, the projects managed and money brought into the university. When asked about the time official leaders spent on research leadership he said with regard to one 'I come in the morning and sometimes he is here already, sometimes at 7.30, and he leaves sometimes about 7.30, so it's a 12 hour day, and plus whenever he is not here' while Maureen Oaks commented that '..there's a Professor in this department who works an 80 hour week, and I think that's wrong. I think it's wrong from all sorts of points of view. Moral, ethical, productivity, personal welfare'.

### **6.5.3 Effective and non-effective research leaders**

Reference was made previously to the 'traditional research leader' as being someone who was an expert researcher. Brian Birch, a long serving senior academic researcher referred to Professor Y as a good leader

'...because he used to ask difficult questions. Wrote quite controversial and challenging things, and he was a prolific publisher. His stuff was not ever repeated, it was spot on. Had great, high standard of writing. And I know, because we worked together on PhDs, and things. He knows things about how to do research. I mean there's a technical side of research that many people don't know about in this industry. Many professors, readers, in hospitality, don't know.'

In contrast Andrew Cherry provided a thorough description of what could be called a good 'modern research leader' and made some contrasts with poor leaders.

'Well good leaders listen. They help to resolve conflict. They have vision of what's trying to be done and how to get there. They make things happen and of course, poor leaders don't do those things. But often ...people become leaders because of their own ego. I think they're poor leaders, and all that concerns them is being seen as being the leader, and the status that's attached with that. On the other hand, good leaders too can have an ego, because probably it's very difficult to get into a leadership position unless you are a bit driven, unless you have motivation to take it on. Their ambition is consistent with the ambitions and goals

of the group as a whole, rather than simply their own individual ambition. And this is a facet of leadership. Good leaders set goals that are achievable and credible with the people that they're leading but at the same time, stretch people, challenge people. And good leaders build on the strengths of the team. They don't expect anyone to perform to the same level, the same standard. What a good leader should do is get the best out of every individual. As long as everyone in the team is doing their best, that's all you can ask. Often the person that's in the leadership position may have limited or no say whatsoever on who's in the team, particularly in an academic situation, and may have had no involvement in the appointment of the people. So you can only work with the team that you've got. Teams are important because there's mutuality, even if people are in research contexts they might often be using the same methods, or if they're using different methods, they might be researching the same thing. So there is this notion of mutual learning that can go on, and synergy between them, and the notion of trying to create a team...the sense of belonging to a team's quite important.'

Other interviewees identified relevant characteristics and described effective or good research leaders often at great length. These interviewees reported such leaders as people who are approachable, helpful, interesting, supportive, involving, encouraging, motivating and who are fun and easy to work with and who respected others beneath themselves. They were regarded as people who take others with them. Good leaders were said to have confidence, verve, ideas, madness, energy and chaos and were seen as visionaries with a clear direction who inspire and inform others what to do with the aid of their good social skills. They were viewed as having external connections and internally could cut across red tape to develop individuals. The way they worked was to create an atmosphere where people have good ideas and exchange these and as leaders they were open and listened to many different opinions, eventually trying to be creative and find the synergies between these opinions to generate action points. In order to have these characteristics interviewees said that they had to be experienced and have a clearly established record (a publishing record was specifically mentioned) although they did not necessarily know much about the subject. Finally, it was emphasised that they must act as leaders.

Professor Reiner Fir referred to some of these requirements when outlining how he felt someone became an official research leader.

'...there's an element of becoming (a research leader), but partly that is self selecting. It tends to be those people who are very good at teaching, at research, and who also tend to be very good at doing other things, and therefore become good leaders because they do it. Probably anybody within academia has the potential to be an academic leader. It depends on exactly which aspect of academic leadership you want to stress. So can anybody rise to the top of their chosen field and be seen as being the shining star in that academic community, then yes, anybody can, because it's a question not of...part of it is personality, but



there's got to be a lot of work, intelligence and understanding there. In terms of leading a group of people and developing a research empire, if that is one of the objectives, then you're probably born at that point, in terms of being the sort of person who is going to play that sort of role.'

The following quotations provide indications of some of the attributes respondents considered poor research leaders to possess:-

'....taking the credit when it's not solely down to them. And there is a huge temptation to do that.' - Reiner Fir

'One of the dangers of a leader is to behave in such a way as to prevent other people from getting better, just to establish themselves as permanent leaders. That is not the way to proceed.' - Michael Wood

'It might be the result of inefficient time management either from themselves or by the tasks involved by the university.' - Fred Pine

'Someone who is very difficult to speak to in terms of research.' - Alec Beech

'A non-effective leader in hospitality research, is someone who keeps repeating the same thing with their work, doesn't actually do any advance work, but above all, lets things develop which have no legs, which can't grow. ....hospitality is full of that. Also they are not pointing people in right direction, they're not letting it be known where the research opportunities are. Research leadership is very much about posing questions which need to be answered rather than jumping on bandwagons and whatever is the flavour of the month.' - Brian Birch

'I might describe someone who's less good as a leader, as somebody who gives you the impression that they've got to be somewhere else and with the best will in the world you cannot work with that. Often in universities there is an assumption that if you've done certain things, you must be a good leader, and you're suddenly put in a position where it's expected that you will be a leader and some people are just not cut out for it at all, and very often there's very little development work to guide somebody in.' - Keith Redwood

## **6.6 Research leadership**

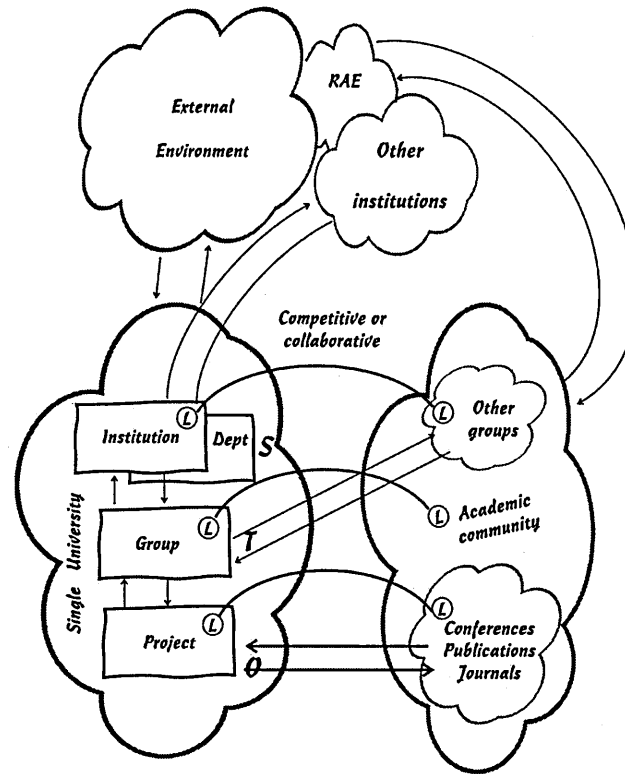
### **6.6.1 Research leadership relationships and the participants involved**

Interviewees were asked to indicate verbally and diagrammatically the different people they considered were involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at Lethbury and their relationships.

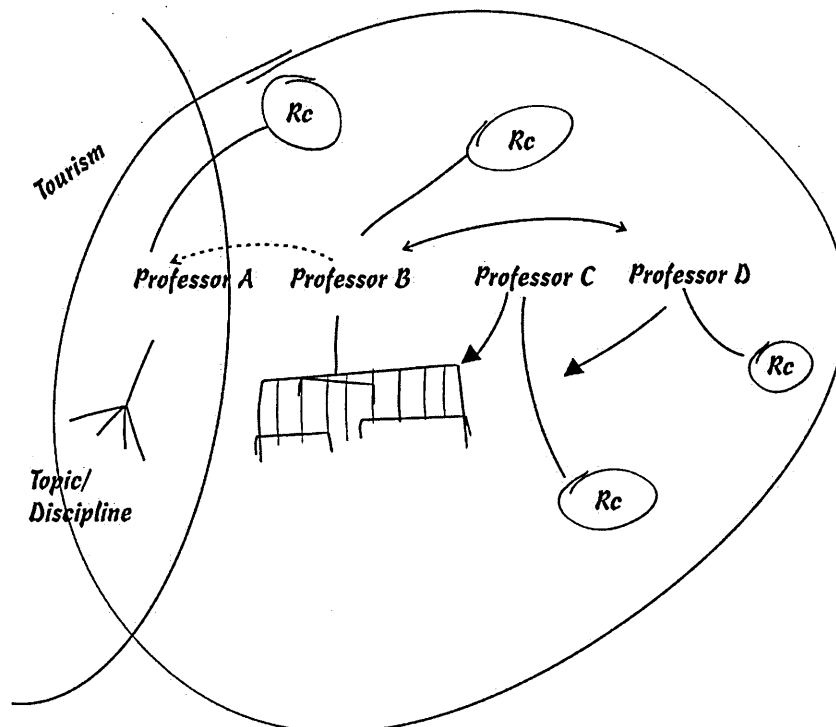
Having talked of the existence of informal leaders not one of the respondents made reference to informal leaders on their diagrams. Only those with titles that reflected formal leadership positions were indicated. This may be due to organisation structure charts normally only including official positions.

Two distinct research leadership patterns emerged. Professors referred to the wider context of the subject, school/university and external world when conceiving of research leadership relationships. No explicit reference was made to lecturers/ tutors/ researchers in their visual representations (see Figures 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5) and when explaining research leadership they always commenced with their level and worked outwards, but not down to individual people. In complete contrast other academics again started at their level but then worked up from where they were to individual leaders, but not out to the wider environment. Professor Reiner Fir within his representation conceived of three levels of research. At the institution/school/ department level he identified strategic activity; at the group/discipline/area of study level he saw research activity as tactical and finally at research project level it was operational. These levels he linked to the external environment, other institutions and to other communities (see Figure 6.3). He saw a dichotomy between leadership within the institution and that out with from the institution. One professor, Andrew Cherry, only regarded professors in Lethbury as research leaders and claimed that leadership was in their hands. She considered there to be no research leadership hierarchy and a very flat structure of leaders (see Figure 6.4). Another professor was more extreme and considered there to be hospitality management researchers and professors but currently no research leadership of the subject either within or outside the University and for this reason he was unique in returning a blank piece of paper when asked to produce a hospitality research leadership chart. He saw the lack of research leadership in hospitality as a problem. The view of non professorial academics was in stark contrast to the professors. They saw research leadership relationships in terms much closer to themselves. Little or no reference was made to the broader organisational and external context and they did indicate lecturer/s/tutors/researchers on their diagrams (See Figures 6.6, 6.7 and 6.8).

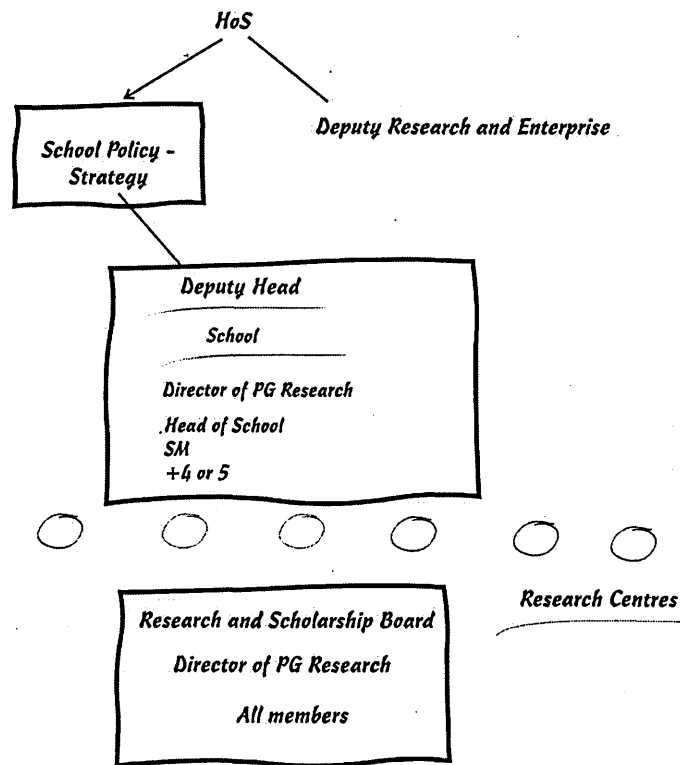
**Figure 6.3 Professor Reiner Fir's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury**



**Figure 6.4 Professor Andrew Cherry's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury**



**Figure 6.5** Professor Paul Hughes's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury



**Figure 6.6** Keith Redwood's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury

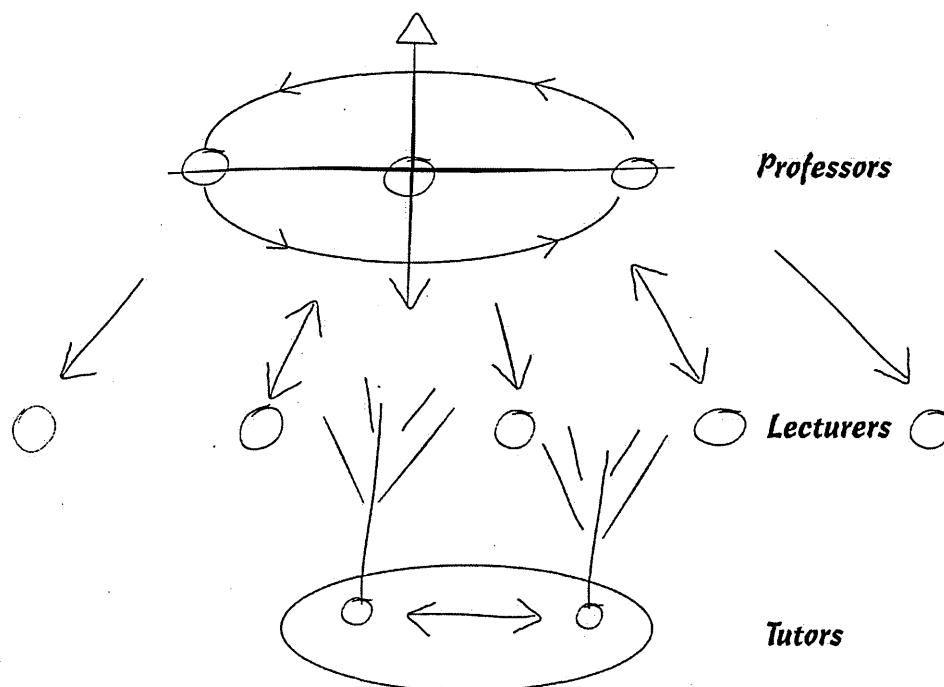


Figure 6.7 Alec Beech's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury

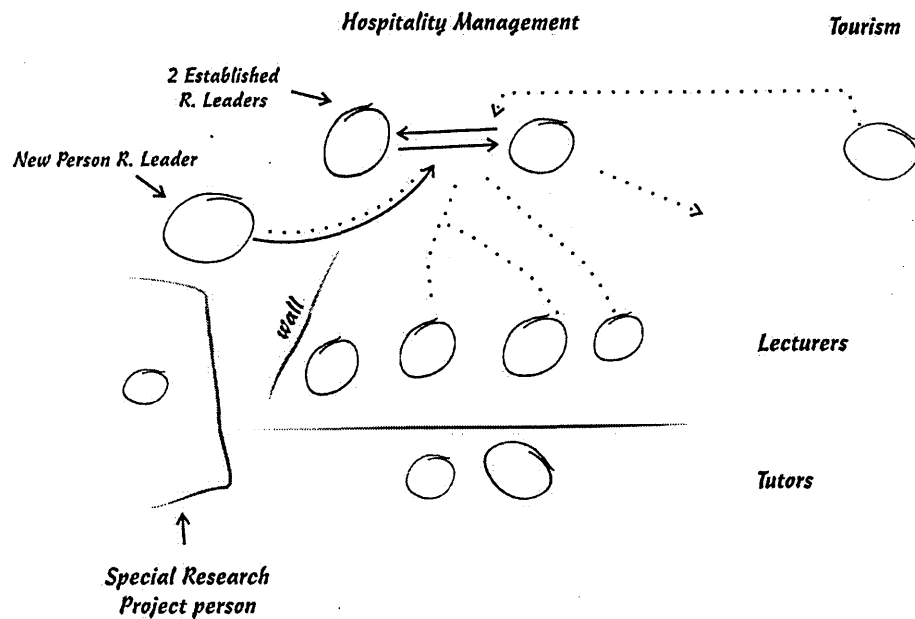
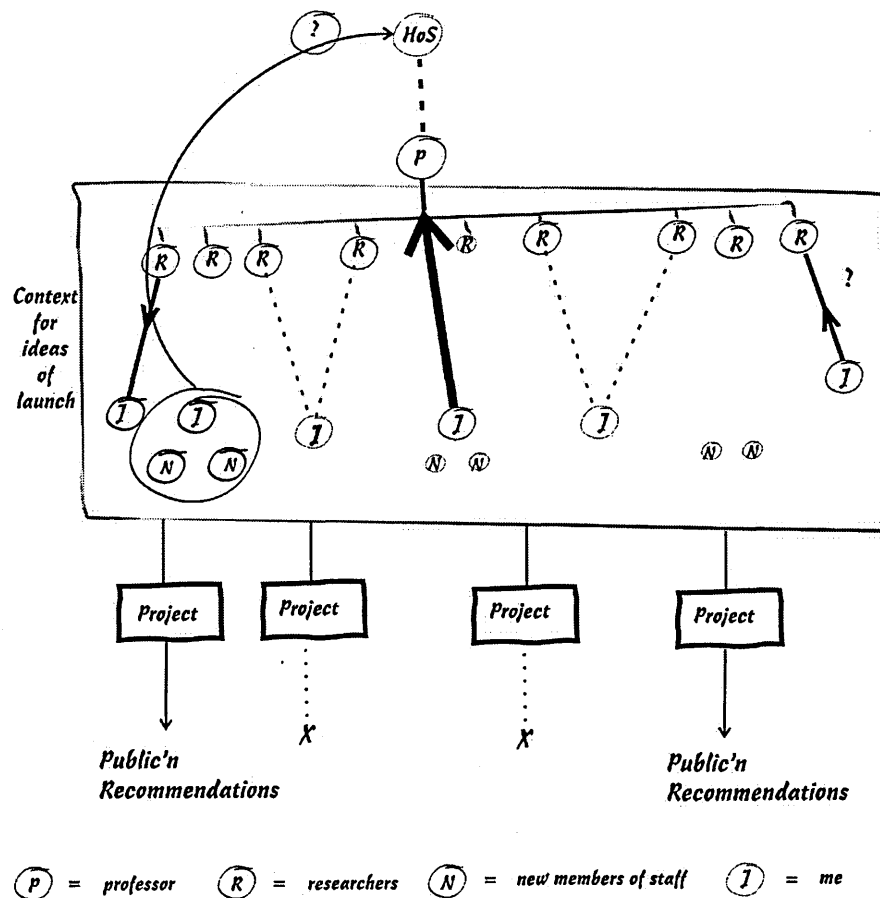


Figure 6.8 Frank Oak's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury



The emphasis on the formal research structure was made by Paul Hughes who set it up. He described it as consisting of the Head of School with a deputy responsible for research who chairs the School Research Committee. This Committee is responsible for setting the policy, setting the research strategy of the School, and setting the policy and organisational arrangements of the School. Another dimension is the Research and Scholarship Board. It is chaired by the Director of Postgraduate Research who is responsible for postgraduate, primarily PhD students. It also considers research issues across the School generally. There is one other dimension. The School Research Committee created an environment in which members of the School can make bids to it for funding to set up a research centre. There are about five or six research centres, which are groupings of individuals in the School, which come together and make a bid for money, in order to advance their particular areas of research. Not everybody is in a research centre and some are in more than one. The centres do have leadership because they have directors but they may be lead by lecturers as opposed to professors who may be in the same centre. In hospitality management professors officially lead the centres. The idea is that the directors act more like a convenor, a moderator, bringing people together within the context of a research centre, discussing common things, and then considering whether they can get projects, and what can be done in the future. It was said not to be about imposing.

Most non-professorial staff had some understanding of this general structure although some tended to concentrate on particular official research leaders in their descriptions. The complexities of research leadership were emphasised by Reiner Fir in his hierarchical model with different levels of leadership. He went on to say

'...actually anybody who actually does research of any scale is in some way in a leadership role, or could become a leader....and we have to have followers.....you can be a leader without actually directly influencing, or having a direct influence over a number of other people. I can think of people who have written particular articles, who have done particular bits of research and you think how very straightforward, sensible, clever, fantastic, brilliant that is, and that's great. That's the way I'm going to go. That's really changed the way that I think about something. Now that's a leader, even though they actually haven't got anybody consciously, explicitly, to formally lead. So particularly in an academic discipline, I suspect in research generally, you can actually be a leader in research without ever having actually having led or managed anybody, apart from yourself.'

### 6.6.2 Defining research leadership

Respondents at Lethbury offered a number of explanations of research leadership. Professors Paul Hughes and Reiner Fir offered similar interpretations which encompassed a range of elements at what Fir referred to as the different levels of research leadership. Both considered that research leadership involves setting a research strategy and then endeavouring to carry it out. Fir explained research leadership as consisting of

'...a number of different aspects at a number of different levels - strategic and tactical levels, and operational levels. At a strategic level, there has to be both within the institution and in the School, some leadership of what research is about, what the perception of research is, what the role of research is within the School, and therefore what emphasis and resources are going to go in that, and everything that leads to in terms of how people are seen, who do research, how people are seen who do not do research, what the expectation is in terms of research, how that leads into annual review, how that leads into promotion, how that leads into reward. So there's a whole structural organisational schooly thing that goes with creating an environment in which research can flourish. So at a tactical level there is the idea of research groups and research leaders who would be seen as academics who have particular expertise in particular areas, and who would be seen as being the people that other academics would aspire to, want to work with or do things with, or be part of a team with, and have that sort of inspirational feel. And then at the sort of operational level, there's the simple day to day managerial activity of advising, coercing, directing, planning, and sending people off doing various bits and pieces, making sure it's all done, all the time management bits and pieces, and all the project bits and pieces. And I think each of those is a leadership role, and will lead to research being done.'

Within this explanation lie the three key elements of leadership – influence, group and goals (Middlehurst, 1993 and Shackleton, 1995). In addition Fir identifies a fourth important element which is an appropriate environment for research to flourish. Influence and goals were mentioned by others. Alec Beech, for example, referred to the role of influence when he said 'research leadership is people leading people to do specific research'. And Michael Wood was making reference to both influence and goals when he said

'...what interests me is how you inspire people to follow some of your ideas and take them forward....that is my kind of understanding of research leadership. So research leadership is really about creating ideas, seeing the vision, and enthusing a lot of people throughout....the industry, the classes you teach, your research projects, to take knowledge forward ...'

Many interviewees made reference to the relationship between research leadership and research management and all concurred that they were not the same but overlapping.

Both were necessary for the furtherance of academic research. Reiner Fir for instance said with reference to research

'...if leadership is partly about influence, then getting things done has to be a leadership role rather than a managerial role. But at the same time, you are also doing things which are managerial in terms of making sure that the right thing's in the right place at the right time.'

Fred Pinesaid 'there are some similarities but it's not exactly the same. Research management is getting more into administration and location of resources'. While research leadership and management were deemed necessary for the achievement of research goals, they did not have to be in one person's hands. Keith Redwood, for example, talked of the need for one person to set the research vision and then an assistant to work to the realisation of that vision.

With reference to Lethbury Michael Wood distinguished between research leadership and the management of academics for research and other activities.

'Leadership does not necessarily have to have accountability or hierarchical structures. Leadership can be at any stage, so the situation we have actually here is the people who are leaders over research are not necessarily managers of the people they are supposed to lead.'

### **6.6.3 The feasibility and need for research leadership**

All agreed research can be led. Reiner Fir though went further and said 'I'm not saying it's necessarily comfortable' and there was general agreement that there was a need for research leadership. Paul Hughes reflected the views of other professors when he stressed this need in the context of reaching research goals in a competitive environment and with limited resources.

'Research is an individual thing, and in an ideal world, with no resource constraints, this is exactly how it could operate. That it doesn't need leadership, it doesn't need strategies, it doesn't need frameworks. It's actually individuals, doing their research, as appropriate forming teams to take forward ideas, and then the teams dissolving and reforming, or it's research that is undertaken by individuals. But we don't operate in an ideal world, we operate in a world with limited resources, and we operate in a world which is competitive. And with that in mind, universities can only operate by having some strategic intent of where they want to take their research, and that strategic intent therefore, has to be supported by some kind of leadership and direction, and if you take a School like this that strategic intent cannot be so tight that it actually stifles initiatives or prevents people going forward. If we spun off in all directions in the huge field of tourism and hospitality and (related subjects), we would probably make very little impact on the research world, and for that reason we do have a fairly broad



strategy of the direction that we want to go in research terms. If we as a team had people who were simply only doing their own thing, we would have less impact on the world of research, and would be less effective in meeting the research agenda of this university.'

In contrast Keith Redwood with the least research background of all the respondents saw the need for leadership in different and more personal terms.

'It does need somebody to lead it because for people like me, or for anybody who hasn't done any before, or very little, you need some guidance, and a leader would give you that guidance. They wouldn't do it for you, but would set the paving stones for you to find your way, because it's daunting doing research. And it's a sense of your own adequacy really and whether you're doing it right, and whether it's meaningful, and whether somebody's done it before, and have you missed it. The tiny bit I've done, I've dug into my soul and so you're put on the line. So you need someone there, at the helm, saying right this is where the focus should be. Have you thought about this, *etc.* So I'm absolutely certain that it's essential.'

#### **6.6.4 Approach to research leadership**

Interviewees were asked how they would describe the approach to research leadership practised at Lethbury related to hospitality management. A variety of opinions were forthcoming but commonly it was regarded as strategic. Amongst the positive views were that it was constructive, creative, planned, organised and financed. Paul Hughes described it

'...as a fairly soft approach. It doesn't need a heavy hand because you can't be telling people what to do, because it doesn't operate like that. It's providing guidance, it's providing advice, it's providing indicators of direction with the exception of one area, which is staff who are not research active occupying positions where they should be research active, and then the research leadership has to become harder, because we can't afford to have people who are occupying positions, where they should be research active, who are not. But it's not a research issue per se, it's a management of the School issue.'

Keith Redwood considered it as a friendly functioning approach

'...apart from the fact that we work well together, we gel, and we spend a lot of time together. We work together, all the time, and it's a bit like running a business with your wife. That works, as long as you gel. And they (official research leaders) are approachable, it's just that they don't get the time to spend endless hours with me.'

He went on to suggest that there 'could be some complacency in old universities. The new universities are hungry and trying very hard'. The outcome of the research approach at Lethbury according to Reiner Fir was that overall they have done alright. Andrew Cherry summed up the current situation.

'We've now got a very clear research strategy. We're being ambitious in terms of aiming for a '5', we're clear about the notion there's going to be bigger research groups, we're clear about the fact centres have to be organised and so forth, and the key to making that work would be which particular individuals the Head of Schools, picks, to lead the teams, because if he picks the right people it will be made to work...if you don't have those people at the top, then it's never going to happen. And that's been the trouble in the past.'

This he said had been problematical previously as there had been a lack of consensus at the top as to how strategic they should be. There were also negative opinions about the leadership. Michael Wood described it as 'really bad' due to failings in the research organisation and conflicts between managers and leaders both within and outside research groups. Alec Beech said it was 'too open.. Maybe it should be more organised'. Similarly Maureen Oaks described it as '...maybe too organised, structured'. It was described as 'chaotic' by Andrew Cherry.

### **6.6.5 Good and poor research leadership**

A number of ingredients for good research leadership were cited. Good leadership according to respondents required having a strategy, giving direction and then following these. It also involved allocating appropriate resources. Good leadership was also associated with having someone at the helm and having the 'right' research leaders. Similar attributes of effective research leaders, identified previously, were linked with good research leadership. These were namely having leaders who are encouraging and supporting and who are not authoritarian, who have an open door policy, who lead by example, who are team orientated and who are concerned about staff development. In contrast insights into poor research leadership were less forthcoming. Reiner Fir and Brian Birch were the only ones who provided these. Fir said

'...bad research leaders have no idea what their strategy is. They're totally hands off, and they just spend money in a willy nilly way without actually quite knowing why they're spending it in that direction.'

Brian Birch commented that poor research leadership consisted of being led down the best-practice route researching subjects important to management today rather than focusing on the future.

### **6.6.6 Influence of context on research and research leadership**

A central area of investigation surrounded the influence of context upon research and research leadership within the two chosen universities. Those responding when asked

directly about context were all convinced that it was important to the conduct of research and to research leadership. They also pointed to the complexity of the concept of context because of the range of factors it incorporates. This complexity can be illustrated from the comprehensive response of Andrew Cherry.

'Context is important. I moved to Lethbury because of that... I wanted to do more research and to operate in an environment where more research was being done. So I moved because the context in all kinds of weird and wonderful ways, I thought was much better from the point of view of research. One was simply history and longevity. Lethbury had been doing research because it was a University and everywhere else was a Polytechnic, for longer than anybody else. Secondly it had been in the business of hospitality management undergraduate education, for a lot longer than most people, and had an alumnus network in the industry, which meant that you could tap into industry more effectively than you might be able to in other places. Or you had more senior people in industry as a result of them being Lethbury graduates than some other places.

Thirdly, Lethbury had a PhD programme for much longer than most other people, and therefore had built up expertise in terms of PhDs. Fourthly, simply the number of PhD students, meant that actually the research output was always going to be more, because it's actually the PhD students, or paid research officers, that were going to get the research done, not the academics themselves. Certainly of RAE quality kind. Fifthly, Lethbury was always going to be more likely to be successful in bidding for research contracts, or with research councils, than other Schools were likely to be, simply based on their track record and their expertise *etc.*

Sixthly there was this notion of being a research led School, research led University, which was different to elsewhere.

A seventh reason is simply geography. Lethbury is near a major city and can network with...international chains *etc.*

It's possible to get some very good research going in a new university context, but there are other factors, like geography, the individuals involved and so forth which will influence it. So context is very important.'

Other contextual elements raised by respondents were reputation, history, research orientation of academic staff, research-led institutional environment, bureaucracy, the built environment and the gentility, courtesy, and pleasantness of staff. The institutional environment was regarded by Paul Hughes as important.

'In the university as a whole. The main factor that encourages it, is that we have a Vice Chancellor who's absolutely committed to research, we have an extremely strong research culture which has been developed over many years, and been very successfully in research terms, not necessarily in this School, but across the university as a whole, we've actually attracted world class researchers. They then set the very high research agenda that we respond to. So it is a very friendly research environment.'

Organisational culture and in particular changing culture over time and between academic fields were considered relevant. Reiner Fir referred to the influence of culture by saying

'If (by context) you mean the institutional environment and the culture, then it has a major influence on research at Lethbury. The nature and emphasis of the School, the culture of the School has changed over (the) years that I've been here. Some of that has been imposed from outside in terms of students numbers and changes and all those sorts of things, but a lot has been internally generated by the people who have been leading the development of the School... We were in the doldrums for an awfully long period, and it took change probably at the institutional level to create an environment where the School was being told that it couldn't just sit there and teach, or if it did, then it must be prepared to take more students than it was doing, which was a bit of a wake up call and getting the finances of the School sorted out. And what we've got to now is a situation in terms of context, where as a School we have money to support people, both to do teaching and research. We will not now appoint any member of staff as an academic who is not research active or will be research active under the next RAE. It will probably mean having a PhD, or will mean being very close to completing a PhD.'

Maureen Oaks saw the role of culture as important saying 'this is a very friendly co-operative culture that we have here. Everybody's willing to help each other out, it's not a competitive culture'.

## **6.7 Summary**

This chapter reports and presents data about research, research leaders and the practice of the leadership of research undertaken by academics interested or involved in hospitality management within the pre-1992 University of Lethbury.

This pre-1992 university is a research led-institution. Research therefore, as might expected, was considered important by the respondents in the university and hospitality management research was widely conducted. Respondents reported research to be important in the university for a number of reasons. These included for funding, for its reputation and for prestige. The need to link research with teaching was also commonly expressed. Conceptions of research varied amongst the respondents but certain themes were commonly mentioned as explanations of research. The responses from this university indicated that research by academics can be led and research leadership was needed.

Research leadership was considered to consist of a number of aspects at different levels. These aspects were primarily associated with purpose, group, leaders, influence, activities and environment. Hospitality management research leadership at the

University of Lethbury was associated with formal leaders but not exclusively so. It was though heavily shaped by the formal research leaders who were of professorial level and also by the organisational context, culture and highly qualified staffing complement. The majority of hospitality management research respondents had doctorates. Some students, especially at postgraduate level, were regarded as budding researchers. The formal leaders were considered by many respondents as leaders of the subject of hospitality management rather than leaders of academics in research. Formal leaders were considered to be, and accepted as, remote by respondents. They were traditional leaders in the sense that they were recognised as expert and well known researchers in their field. Where respondents needed leaders who were concerned with people leadership informal leaders were sought. However self-research leaders were prominent.

The University of Lethbury had a reputation for, and a relatively long history (compared to other hospitality management providing institutions) in, hospitality management research. Probably as a consequence of these the organisation and/leadership of hospitality management research in this university was quite advanced and was developing further. A striking feature was the frequent mention of research strategy. Research leadership was commonly regarded as strategic. Two patterns of research leadership relationships were discerned. Senior academics referred to wider subject, school/university and external world relationships whereas other academics depicted research relationships between individual academic researchers and research leaders.

The next chapter will focus upon findings related to research, research leaders and the leadership of research undertaken by academics interested or involved in hospitality management research at the post-1992 University of Sturridge.

# **CHAPTER 7 THE REPORTING AND PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS - STURRIDGE, THE POST- 1992 UNIVERSITY**

## **7.1 Introduction**

As in the last chapter this one concentrates upon the findings from collected qualitative data about the practice of the leadership of research undertaken by academics. In this case the findings emanate from respondents within a post-1992 university, the University of Sturridge.

The way in which these findings were derived and analysed resembles that for the pre-1992 university and they are presented using an identical structure to that described and used in the previous chapter.

## **7.2 University background**

The University of Sturridge is an ex-Polytechnic situated on a campus within a busy urban area. It is easily accessible and is in a very good position for student recruitment, placement and employment opportunities. It is also in close proximity to many industry employers and other organisations. Sturridge was one of the first Polytechnics to commence hotel and catering degrees (later to be referred to as hospitality management degrees) in the UK and is a major provider of hospitality graduates. It has been offering hospitality degrees for over twenty five years and has an international reputation for its courses. A number of its academic staff involved with hospitality management education are prominent in academia, and involved with industry and other organisations.

## **7.3 Profiles of the respondents**

There were eleven academic respondents from the University of Sturridge. These were identified by the head of the school within which hospitality management education is provided as hospitality management researchers, hospitality management research 'leaders' or 'managers' or, academics who regarded themselves as potentially hospitality management researchers. Brief profiles of the respondents are shown in Figure 7.1.

**Figure 7.1 A pen portrait of the respondents at the University of Sturridge**

Name	Job title	Age and length of time as university lecturer	Allocations of time at work	Background
Jack Boardman	Senior Lecturer	41-45, 12 years	50% teaching, 50% research	Jack has a Bachelors degree and would like to do a PhD. He has always taught hospitality related subjects and now mainly at level 3 and on the Masters. He has a key role in undergraduate dissertations
Claire Stone	Principal Lecturer	41-45, 19 years	67 % teaching and Principal Lecturer role, 33% research	Claire has a MPhil from her last university where she was an academic for 12 years. She teaches hospitality students and is responsible for teaching, learning and assessment. She is research active and was entered in the 2001 RAE.
Annette De Silva	Lecturer	26-30, 2 years	60% teaching, 30% administration and course management, 10% research	Annette previously worked in the hospitality industry. She has a BA from the university and is doing a MBA.
Susanna Diamond	Senior Lecturer	31-35, 4 years	60% teaching, >30% administration, <10% research	Susanna came to the university from industry. She has a taught Masters degree and is taking a PhD. She teaches hospitality students.
Ian Glass	Senior Lecturer	41-45, 16 years	70% teaching, 20% administration, 10% research	Ian teaches mainly hospitality students at level 3. He worked for 5 years at another university and has a MPhil. He wishes to do a PhD.
Bob Steele	Principal Lecturer	41-45, 13 years	< 25% teaching, > 70% personal research and research responsibilities	Bob has a PhD and his mainly teaching includes research methods. He supervises dissertations including PhDs and was part of the 2001 RAE entry. Bob has official research responsibilities.
Peter Irons	Senior Lecturer	41-45, 4 years	65% teaching, 25% course management, 10% research	Peter has qualifications from OND to MA and is currently enrolled for a MPhil. He has worked in FE. He has a hospitality operations background and is involved with a hospitality business.
Steven Slater	Senior Lecturer	36-40, 3 years	70% teaching, 20% course management, 10% research	Steven has a BA. He has worked in FE and has a hospitality operations background. He is taking a postgraduate certificate in research.
Grace Gold	Head of School	51-55, 18 years	80% management (incl. research management), 19½% teaching and ½% research 'if lucky'	Grace has fulfilled a wide range of management roles and now has various roles across the university. She obtained a taught Masters degree in 1991 and since then promotions have taken over aspirations to research. Job prevents doing a PhD.
Charles Clay	Senior Lecturer	31-35, 7 years	40% teaching, 40% commercial research, 20% course management	Charles worked as a researcher and hospitality academic at another university for 7 years. He has a BA, teaches hospitality students and is now involved with commercial research. He started a PhD but stopped and supervises dissertations up to PhD level.
Angelo Topaz	Senior Lecturer	51-55, 20 years	35% teaching, 30% administration, 10% consultancy, 25% research	Angelo has an MSc and PhD. He teaches mainly undergraduates but not hospitality students. He was entered in 2001 RAE.

(Source: The respondents)

*N.B.* The names of the respondents have been changed.

## 7.4 Research

### 7.4.1 Conceptions of the nature of research

The explanations of research provided by the respondents at Sturridge indicate that it is a complex phenomenon. Most respondents drew upon a definition to express their understanding of research. The varying definitions emphasised that research was about

finding out usually something new; that research was explanatory; that research had value to somebody or an organisation; or that it was purposeful. Some definitions were grounded in the industrial context of the hospitality industry. These came from relatively new academics who had either previously been in industry or who still had business interests in the industry. Typical of these was that of Peter Irons who said

'Research to me is about trying to answer a question that we don't know the answer to, or the reason why something's happened, or has happened, or is about to happen, and therefore how that can help us to increase something...or increase in another way....money, or understand, train people better, or develop a particular facet of industry better, or know what our customers are doing, therefore we can develop a product that's going to more appealing, so ... to me research ... is bringing something new to the table.'

These newer academic respondents referred to research being about the development of new knowledge or finding out something which was not known previously. This could be termed discovery research and was also mentioned by others. Claire Stone, a senior academic, for instance said 'my simplistic definition of research would be....to find out something that has not been known before. It doesn't have to be innovative'.

As might be expected from his operations perspective Peter Irons considered that research should be useful. He said

'... there's a lot of waffle and claptrap research going on, that's no use nor ornament. There's a couple of conference papers at CHME (Council for Hospitality Management Education) and you turn round and think ...what's that got to do with the price of bread. It's interesting for academics to discuss it perhaps, to postulate on it, but it's no use to the big wide world...I suppose coming from an operations background, if it's no use to anybody, then what's the use of doing it?'

Undertaking research of use to the industry was a view similarly held by Ian Glass:

'..the thing about hospitality research....it all comes down to the application of it. I have a bit of a problem with pure research, and I've read a number of papers recently where I would look at and I would think ....this doesn't have any real practical application at all, and that worries me.'

Value to the university and its activities was also recognised and particularly related to monetary outcomes, staff development, curriculum development and student learning. Charles Clay's definition epitomises such views.

'Research within the realm of academia has got two aims. One is to develop, to facilitate the development of resources, which can come via commercial activities. This should result in staff development, and staff enhancement, motivation, staff



knowledge. At the same time, it means you can underpin the curriculum, and add value for the students. So there ought to be synergy between research from a pure academic sense, in terms of to add it to academic knowledge of furthering the fields, and the disciplines within the industry, but there is a link to a role for looking for commercial application of this knowledge, and looking for links with industry etc. Adding some extra value to it, and I think the two things can underpin each other..... Where you get a better quality of student experience, get a better quality of staff experience, you get a better quality academic output. Raise the profile all round. It's got to be the way forward.'

However he felt that research was perceived differently by different people. He said 'some want to do PhDs, some want to sort of talk to a few people and write something up for a conference. There's a huge range'.

#### **7.4.2 Types of research**

Rather than, or in addition to, providing definitions some respondents referred to types of research. Angelo Topaz referred to 'fundamental research' which cannot be applied at the moment and 'applicable research' which will provide benefits now. The distinction between primary and secondary research was made by both junior and senior academics. Typical of these was that of the experienced senior academic Claire Stone who commented

'...and research can be secondary research, reading books or government statistics, or it can be primary research, going out interviewing, questionnaires. It can be highly qualitative, it can be quantitative. It can be anything, and...with the proviso that something has got to be worth finding out..... It's got to be, in someone's opinion, worth finding out. And I think there's just different ways of looking at things, and depending on the method, different ways of finding things out.'

An indication of the variety of research types was evident from Ian Glass who referred to a 'spectrum' of research which embraced 'everything from sort of small research projects that they've funded themselves to get a publication, to PhDs.' Similarly Grace Gold spoke of academics and his view

'... that there is a hierarchy of research, and the sort of elite stuff is the publication in prestigious journals, but research could even go down as low as researching the impact of your teaching, or you know, I'm trying to persuade someone to do some research on pedagogy around e-learning. Even if it's just reading. But I've got people who don't even do that.'

A final point worth mentioning here is the importance that Grace Gold placed upon her colleagues undertaking pedagogic research. This was based upon past experience within the School, her disappointment with the results of the last RAE and her belief that teaching provided an easier vehicle for research particularly for new academic

colleagues. She said 'but if we're talking about publication, I've sort of given up on the RAE, because we've got no money. And I would have continued to invest in it if I felt it was of any benefit, other than the qualitative (value)'.

#### 7.4.3 Research, scholarship and consultancy

One of the key findings from the Sturridge, respondents regardless of their seniority and which is evident from some of the above definitions, was the importance of communicating research findings either in publications or in student lectures. Of these, inputting research into teaching was regarded as particularly important at Sturridge.

Opinions differed about the nature of research *vis a vis* scholarship. Annette De Silva and Bob Steele saw them as distinct whereas a number of others including Ian Glass and Claire Stone regarded them as potentially overlapping concepts. Hesitation and a lack of clarity were also commonly evident when respondents attempted to explain scholarship. An illustration of this came from Jack Boardman who initially was unclear whether they overlapped or not.

'Our research and scholarly activity hours on your timetable are ...*different things*.....my perception of it would be more of a continual rather than separate things. I think scholarship or scholarly activity is perhaps... doesn't necessarily indicate anything new, and is maybe something you do to keep up to date, and even includes sort of low level research in a sense. Just going and reading a bit more, or going out and working in a company one day a week, or something like that. So it's necessarily a way of sort of keeping yourself up to date and making sure you're on top of what it is that you do, and I think research maybe, is just taking that a stage further and just...producing something new, or a new angle on something, or extending what you know, or whatever.'

Steven Slater was an exception to those hesitating. He said

'... the scholarship side is improving and developing your own knowledge and understanding of a field or subject area. Again, not only for your own benefit, the benefit of your colleagues, but also so you could feed that back into the student forum, so it can help develop their minds, the way they investigate things.'

When asked about relationships between research, scholarship and consultancy invariably the latter two concepts were linked while consultancy tended to be viewed as different to research. Ian Glass linked scholarship and consultancy and said '...I think that some people could achieve scholarship perhaps without doing very much research. By doing it in other ways. Consultancy, industrial links *etc.*'

While Claire Stone both gave an indication of consultancy for her and distinguished it from research.

'Consultancy is driven by money, and income generation, and there is a defined problem with different sets of solutions, and you come up with a solution. Research isn't like that. I think scholarly activity can be research, and secondary research to update your lectures. You can be sitting reading books on the beach, in your scholarly activity time, and that can be updated. That...can be as valuable, but research is finding out something different or new, and pushing the boundaries of knowledge.'

#### **7.4.4 The nature of hospitality management research**

None of the interviewees at Sturridge, despite the common disciplinary ingredient of hospitality management, could generally see anything 'unique', 'special' or 'mystical' about hospitality management research. Jack Boardman summed up most views when he said '.... intrinsically, I don't think it's ...necessarily any different from any other kind of management research. You can apply the full range of approaches...you've got the same philosophical dilemmas associated with it, and all those kinds of things'.

However respondents commented that certain characteristics of the hospitality industry (e.g. diversity; rapid constant change; rapid environment of change; own audiences, debates and priorities; customer on site and service delivery) or the complexity of the industry made differences, but not necessarily more difficulties than elsewhere, related to either the application of research methods or of findings.

#### **7.4.5 The level of importance attached to research**

The presence, practice and performance of research leadership is likely to be influenced by the importance attached to research by the university, schools and academics themselves. Interviewees were asked questions about the importance attached to research at each of these levels and what factors they believed made research at these levels important. At the university level a paradox appeared to exist. On the one hand from the responses it was clear that the university was teaching-led but that it placed quite a high priority on research. However, both senior and junior respondents implied that this priority on research was more rhetorical than actual. Bob Steele for example said

'There are also draft research documents that suggest ... all academic members of staff need to be involved in research and scholarly work. There's a commitment to enhancing the RAE figures... and there are new targets .. as well it's offering, encouraging and offering more professorial appointments, and has created new

structures for careers in research.. So to that extent, the university seems to take it seriously, with a Centre for Research and Graduate Studies, which again is well organised and resourced, and offers sabbaticals... So that's the kind of positive and official view. Then the kind of informal and less official view is that there's an ambivalence really.'

This, he said, is indicated by the inadequate resources allocated, personnel developments and the number of actual sabbaticals awarded. Similarly Ian Glass stated

'...we talk up research..... because....a lot of new universities have a self perception problem. A lot of them see themselves as being inferior to the traditional universities, and one of the ways in which they can imply they are competing is to say....we take research seriously, ... and it's something about the public image, and potential students, parents of potential students, like to see universities in the traditional British sense, as research involved establishments, ...I don't think it's totally cynical. But in reality the resourcing is such that at the end of the day, they have to teach students. And they've only got a limited pot of money, and research is second, third, fourth on the list.'

The priority attached to research by the university was summarised by Bob Steele 'officially we have a commitment to it, but so long as it doesn't cost too much'. Grace Gold, the Head of School (HOS), was pessimistic saying that in a couple of years she could see the importance of research disappearing. A range of factors were suggested by respondents which make research important at the various levels within the university (see Figure 7.2).

**Figure 7.2 Suggested reasons for research being important in Sturridge**

At University Level	At School Level	At Personal Level
Enhance RAE performance	RAE	Building confidence, knowledge and skill
Teaching should be researched informed	Contribution to teaching	Professional development
Reputation and kudos	Income generation	Personal credibility in classroom
Student recruitment	Credibility of courses	For new job, promotion, self interest, excitement ego
Publications	Staff development	Further personal qualifications
To fulfil the title 'university	Publications	Aid teaching
	Awareness of School	Generate money for personal development

Of these factors the most frequently stated at all levels linked the need for teaching to be informed by research of in house academic; a view emphasised by Charles Clay

'.. colleagues of mine have done research on the relationship between research and teaching, and discovered that the research active members of staff are not only better informed, but more highly motivated and more committed, and more interesting lecturers. So apart from the RAE and the money and things, I wouldn't say they make better teachers, but they're better informed.'

The importance attached to research at school level had changed. From responses it was apparent that at the start of the last RAE the school saw research as a priority and people were deployed and employed with the purpose of gaining a particular result in the RAE. However since the RAE questions have been asked within the School about its ability to financially support research and now it appeared this had changed. The current focus was very much on teaching because as one respondent it '...it's the bread and butter. Keeps us all in our jobs'. Jack Boardman reflected this changing situation when he said 'I don't think the school knows (the priority to put on research) to be honest. I don't think it can make its mind up. And it fluctuates'. Nevertheless the intrinsic value of research was still apparent and its role in contributing to teaching is widely recognised. In terms of overall priorities though teaching was now very much to the fore. The two following quotes reflect the changing priority attached to research and the current teaching emphasis within the School.

'I'm very keen that research shouldn't be seen as an elite occupation, ... the students are our business. The students should benefit from that research. So I have a principle here that every single individual in this school, teaches, including me. But at the end of the day, if people were doing something which informs their teaching, I'll be happy. Something demonstrable. Something that can be disseminated across the school or the centre in which they work. Ideally something that can be published in subject journals, even if not in the really important ones, I'd be quite happy, because it's an internal profile, an individual profile, but also an external profile, at the end of the day. The RAE may be not for us.'

Grace Gold

'The school has become more ambivalent in a way in that...obviously 5 years ago research was a key issue really. There was a sense of ...look we're in the wilderness, we're amongst the biggest tourism and hospitality schools in the country, and yet we don't have that kind of presence in terms of research. So there was a lot of investment, time and other resources in building research capability, capacity and output, and profiled really, and that worked in that we've been successful, and there are a number of people that, nationally and internationally are good.'

Bob Steele

One respondent perceived that despite the declining emphasis on research

'.. the school actually tries harder than the university. The university talks research but only funds it when they've got money laying around. There is a real

willingness and desire in the school to encourage people to do research, both for sort of personal development, and credibility of the courses... But basically, there's the school has outperformed the university as a whole, in terms of doing it. I think the school has done as well as it possibly can.'

A historical perspective was a key feature which emerged in the interviewees' accounts of the approach to research within the School. As might be expected it was the senior and long serving academics who provided the fullest accounts. From their interviews, their detailed responses appeared to arise from their responsibilities (*e.g.* Grace Gold, Claire Stone), their research records or general experience at Sturridge (*e.g.* Jack Boardman, Charles Clay, Ian Glass) or because, like Bob Steele, they thought it would underpin their thoughts about leadership later in the interview. The need to protect the identity of the university makes it impossible to provide full details here but a brief description of the approach to research from these accounts is outlined before some perceptions are indicated.

The mid 1990s was a key time. Organisation structural changes occurred and a new HOS was appointed and research began to be taken seriously as demonstrated by the appointment of a Principal Lecturer for research who was part of the school management team. Courses like hospitality became clearly identifiable and subject groupings associated with these developed. An additional senior academic (professor) with responsibility for income generation was appointed who was said not to manage research and did not want to undertake the nurturing role. He was described 'as busy doing his own stuff'. He had a particular interest in hospitality management research. The existing Principal Lecturer for research was responsible for RAE co-ordination, and building capability. Other staff were appointed partly for their research backgrounds. A fairly broad scoped, tightly arranged and officially recognised research centre and a clear RAE driven strategy was formed which contained identified people from the school who were active researchers, publishers or income generators. The HOS took the decision to top slice the budget specifically to foster research and the identified individuals were given timetable relief and support for their RAE endeavours and to obtain 'a return'. The research centre concept was felt by some to be 'exclusive' and as a few suggested the consequence has been that 'you've got a number of people ploughing quite lonely furrows on their own, in their perfectly valid, applied areas of research' outside the centre. Some worked both outside the centre and under the auspices of the centre. Since 2002 some school restructuring has occurred and a redistribution of research responsibilities across the subject groupings has taken place.

Every member of staff gets time for research and scholarly activity. The HOS considered that these groupings have been empowering for research but that the School focus has gone as there is no single school research manager. She went on to describe the current situation.

'One of the corporate objectives is to improve our RAE performance, but we've no resources attached to it. And the other is, for the first time this year, .. every member of academic staff should demonstrate an output of either research or professional activity. Which is a big stride forward for the university, cos they've never actually recognised that. What they haven't yet done is given us the teeth to manage that, so ..... if somebody doesn't do it, what can I do, nothing. So these corporate objectives come down to me. .... I use both formal and informal processes. Now the formal processes would be research managers through a formal bilateral meeting. You know, what's the research plan for each subject grouping. We have a School research plan, which is updated on an annual basis. We also have a policy of saying what everybody's done, so there's an audit of every member of staff's activity, that's done something. We don't actually name and shame, perhaps we should but, in a formal process, I interact with the research managers, because I do all their appraisals. I set them targets. And that's targets in terms of individual publications, but also in terms of others.'

Current research undertaken was described as 'opportunistic and fairly haphazard' by Jack Boardman and as 'very much planned and strategic and very proactive' by Claire Stone. In contrast Charles Clay said of research 'it needs to be managed.....it needs to be seen as a strategy, and at the moment here it's too piecemeal. There's no one concerted effort...there's no kind of long term game plan. It's all like short term objectives *etc.*' He proceeded to question the emphasis now on research post RAE while Jack Boardman said that in terms of the hospitality area, 'I wouldn't say it's mature or anything, but there's a bit more work going on'. Finally the HOS adjudged that the approach to research had worked reasonably well but there were challenges for the future. She said '...we're now recognised (internally and externally) as making a significant contribution to the RAE and us having a very active research culture including in hospitality'. She continued

'... my philosophy has always been that we research to underpin the curriculum, and if we get RAE rateable stuff out of that, then great, wonderful, but it's the curriculum that's most important. And the majority of staff are able to do that.'

At the personal level all respondents considered that all staff should be involved in research or should be research active but one felt that it should not be compulsory. In discussing her personal motivations to research Claire Stone said

'It should be a normal part of an academic's (work)....everybody should be doing research. I cannot understand people who just teach from the books, and they're not active in their own research. I just don't see it a good way to do the job. I just think research is normal, it should be an inherent activity in a university lecturer's job.'

Finally interviewees considered it very important to engage in hospitality management research and that it was equally important to research in other disciplines. Bob Steele provided a typical response saying 'it's critical really,... and if we're having courses that are about hospitality management, however we kind of package them, they need to be informed by something, because otherwise we end up following the practices of industry that are characterised by poor industry practices'. However Claire Stone added that the importance attached by universities to hospitality management research

'... depends on the university. It depends on the role and function of hospitality management in the university. In some universities, it's a big part, you know, vast number of students, and in some it isn't. And it also depends on the history of the university. If it's been very practical hospitality management, then perhaps not.'

#### **7.4.6 Time spent researching**

Relatively new academics spoke of 'squeezing' their research or study for research qualifications into the working week during term time. Four respondents with 4 years or less experience in universities claimed that teaching was responsible for 60-70% of their time, research 10-20% with most saying 10%, and the remainder of time being devoted to course administration/management. Ian Glass echoed many of their views:

'I'm trying to get a sort of equitable balance between teaching and research and if something's got to suffer I don't do the admin, or I speed the admin through. As with everything else, you're trying to get a pint into a half pint pot and the question you always get with research is, how much are you prepared to compromise in order to do it, because research is encouraged, but ultimately you've got your chunk of teaching to do, and the only way you can reduce that is if you get involved with income generation where you can buy yourself out of teaching.'

In contrast four research active academics who had at least seven years university experience and two of whom were Principal Lecturers involved in the last RAE stated that between 33-50+% of their time was spent on research with the rest divided between teaching, administration and other responsibilities. Bob Steele pointed to the difficulty of estimating the time spent on research.



'The term research is just a general term really, so for it to be meaningful within that is time spent on my research ..and within that you could have lots of sub-divisions, like trying to get research contracts, or just trying to write, trying to go and gather data. But then how much of that time is on kind of research initiatives externally like for editorial work . And then how much of it is on building capability and capacity and enabling. So I struggle really to break that down, because it varies over time, ...but the teaching is a smaller proportion of the whole.'

#### **7.4.7 Factors influencing the conduct of research**

Respondents discussed both factors facilitating and hindering research. Of those factors facilitating research most emphasis (as indicated by the number of responses from different staff) was placed upon the provision of resource (time-out, financial and information) support to undertake research. Such factors included support for 'a sabbatical for a PhD', 'funding to do a PhD', approval of 'money to go to a conference anywhere in the world if the paper has been accepted' and the use of 'bought-out researchers'. Steven Slater claimed that certain attributes of these bought-out researchers, *i.e.* being 'thick-skinned' and 'self-disciplined', enabled them to research. The provision of email and website information 'about aspects of research' was also deemed useful. Finally 'being able to feed research into teaching' was cited by one respondent as encouraging research.

Respondents commented much more and spent more interview time upon the factors hindering the conduct of research within Sturridge. While one respondent referred to his marriage as being an external factor restricting his time for research for the most part the factors could be described as soft internal factors embracing organisational characteristics, work characteristics or individual worker characteristics.

Organisational characteristics mentioned related to organisational policy, objectives, culture, structure, and reward systems. Some examples from respondents will illustrate their perceived presence and influence. Charles Clay referred to a number of organisational constraints.

'Given the marketing and publicity constraints of university I just went outside and got a load of letterheads printed and business cards, and got a website built *etc.* Because for that kind of research I'm doing you need to have an identity... But it needs like to be managed.....it needs to be seen as a strategy, and at the moment for example, here it's too piecemeal. There's no one concerted effort...there's no kind of long term game plan. It's all like short term objectives *etc.*.....we haven't got any major objectives at the moment...The extent to which that has been able to happen, has been minimal because the structure and the

organisational culture has not been in place, and the right people haven't necessarily been in place.'

Grace Gold referred to his frustration with the university's Human Resource (HR) policies concerning 'sticks' to enable research. He said:-

'...at the end of the day, we have no HR policies in this university that insist that people's research and scholarly activity time on their deployment is actually measured, so I can't say to an individual, it's a 150 hours on your national contract here, go and publish an article, go and do a conference paper. If they don't do it, I have no teeth to do it.'

In contrast reference was also made to a lack of 'carrots' to encourage research. One member of staff for instance considered that in his opinion promotion did not appear to be linked to research. A few comments were made about the overemphasis upon the role of structure and the failure to adequately encourage people. Ian Glass for example said

'... we're too interested in forming centres and forming structures, and not interested enough in running around and encouraging people. You can be too focused on getting the structure right, and totally ignore the fact that it is actually people doing what they want to do, to the best of their ability, mainly for reasons of professional pride and interest.'

He went on to say that research centres have been good (providing focus) but questionable in terms of achievement.

Many respondents, at all levels, referred to the nature of the work package of an academic and the heavy work load as being obstacles to research. In the words of one respondent it was as having to handle 'too many balls at one time'. The pressures to teach and of high teaching loads, administrative responsibilities, course leaderships, personal tutoring and curriculum development in different combinations for different people all conflicted with and restricted the pursuit of research even though there was much evidence of a desire to research, especially from the younger members of staff. One respondent claimed that he had to 'turn down external research contracts in the last few years because of everything else going on'. Timetabling was another work factor mentioned as a constraint to research. Peter Irons said 'they said.. you can have a day at home, but in effect, it's by chance if it fits in with your timetable.'

Senior academics, in particular, referred to the characteristics of individual academics being constraining factors upon research. The age, level of commitment, level of

research ability, confidence and attitude of academics were all cited by Grace Gold as relevant here. She said that

'...we've got a significant number of staff here, who are toward the end of the age range, who don't deliver on anything. They may be good teachers, but they don't even research to teach, let alone research to publish, ... But I have got a significant number of staff who, either won't, definitely can't, or perceive that they can't, and that can't comes from a lack of commitment, it may come from a lack of confidence, but it may also come from a sheer bloody mindedness.'

She also said that they have to grow their own PhDs as it was rare that they could make academic appointments with PhDs.

The vocational background of hospitality academics was also considered an influencing factor by Claire Stone

'..also some of the people involved in hospitality management are very practical, and don't like research, and don't see it as an academic discipline. That holds us back as well. If it's not about how many cups of coffee you get out of a pot of coffee, or how many spoons you need, then they're not interested.'

Other worker characteristics raised from non senior respondents were their personal motivation to research, their research experience and their lack of qualifications.

One respondent thought his colleagues, especially the research leaders, influenced what was done as they identified research opportunities.

In addition to the aforementioned soft factors the hard internal factor of the availability of financial resources for research was mentioned by respondents as a factor restricting research. The lack of RAE money coming in to the School meant that there were no funds for top slicing according to Grace Gold and income generation was seen by staff as needed to buy them out of teaching for research.

In summary then the general impression gained was that time and resources would be available for those who did research but that these were, in most cases, staff who were appointed because of their known research record. The research focus therefore lay with the experienced researchers; those with a research record and for others, while research was widely recognised as being necessary to underpin teaching, the difficulties associated with their work loads and range of work activities and individual characteristics made it difficult, if not impossible, for research to be advanced by them. This was not though without efforts to bring them on board. As Grace Gold said '...we

have tried to use a policy of buddying up experienced researchers with less experienced researchers as much as possible, but....it's problematic'.

## **7.5 Research leaders**

### **7.5.1 Conceptions and perceptions of research leaders**

The word 'leadership' tends to generally be associated with leaders and most definitions of leadership explicitly refer to or imply the involvement of leaders. The responses from Sturridge support the close association between leaders and leadership. Different types of research leader were identified by respondents. From the responses research leaders could be classified as formal or officially appointed leaders, individual researchers who lead themselves, or informal leaders from whom individuals receive help, support and views. These informal leaders were divided between self established leaders seeking or offering to help others or those who have been approached by others for their 'leadership'.

The official research leaders at Sturridge were regarded as being of principal lecturer or professorial status. These leaders were widely considered to have responsibility for research and their performance at the end of the year is judged in terms of publications, income, and number of research students. It was claimed that the principal lecturers or professors with an official research role would have in their job description that they were responsible for leading research. This was supported by Bob Steele who said with reference to himself as a research leader that his job description included to

'... build capability and capacity, to produce outputs and lead research by example, to generate research income, not as a kind of key thing, but to increase the profile of the research output of the school, that kind of thing, research degrees.'

One particular professor was viewed by Grace Gold and other senior academics as a research leader but many other academics did not regard this person as a leader. Steven Slater was typical of the latter. He viewed this professor

'..not as a leader. I'd probably describe the professor as a research magnet in that, because of her name. (He) will get invited to tender for some research, and as a result of that, will get a lot of contracts and bring them back into the university.'

A similar view was shared by Charles Clay about this particular professor being a research leader.

'Grace had tried to put the label on someone saying...you are responsible for the research in that centre, and he said.....no I'm not. That isn't my role, I'm not here to manage research. If it was sold to him ... as we want you to lead the research profile, and develop a research profile within the centre, that would have been different. But whether he was here enough, and he was visible enough, to the inside world, and communicated enough within the team, is questionable as to whether that would facilitate him being a leader. Which I think you've got to have .....but he had the respect of people, in terms of people thinking he knew his onions. He had the respect in terms of...they get a lot published.'

Research supervisors were recognised as having official responsibilities but they were not recognised officially as research leaders. Other hospitality research leaders were recognised in Sturridge. One respondent referred to these as mentors because of what they did while others termed these as informal leaders. One example given was a previous Principal Lecturer with School responsibility for research. He was seen as someone who could support rather than encourage and facilitate. Self established and informal 'leaders' offered their services and were widely recognised by others as people wanting to help. Such leaders were considered by Bob Steele as just very capable enthusiastic people who see it as part of how they operate with others and who want to create opportunities. He regarded these as natural leaders and not planned. Claire Stone was widely recognised in this capacity. She said of herself

'... I don't have any research titles or official (research leadership) roles.... But I try. Lead's not right, but I try to help people who need to research, write papers without being too critical. So I'll try and facilitate and support them doing research, even though that's not my role. Just try and encourage them.'

She saw her colleague Charles Clay also as an informal or unofficial leader.

'I would say he would be helpful in facilitating and supporting someone like Peter Iron's research. He helps to do conference papers, he helps with abstracts, and his job description, although he gets out of his job because he brings in so much money, wouldn't be research leader, it would just be senior lecturer. He is a self established unofficial 'leader'. Probably use the word helper rather than leader.'

The existence of leaders, as Jack Boardman said, did not mean that they would be automatically accepted by others. He said that he would choose who he wanted to lead his research. For one respondent this might be more than one leader. 'I mean just because you say leadership or a leader, doesn't mean to say it has to be an individual, you know. I mean leadership can come from a number of sources, all with various skills to add on.' This notion of using multiple leaders was supported by another respondent who said we 'want the informal to merge with the formal...' With reference to the

presence of informal research leadership Grace Gold said 'without any formal process within the university, the wheeler dealing is actually very important'.

### 7.5.2 The nature of the job of a research leader

Respondents said that research leaders lead other researchers. These could be academic colleagues, research assistants or students involved in research. However some respondents stated that research leaders lead the academic subject/field (hospitality management) *e.g.* Annette De Silva considered that research leaders 'are interested in the field, in developing the field, and obviously writing articles and papers, and actively involved in that, as opposed to perhaps developing others' and that that was 'just something peculiar to research'. Some referred to themselves as research leaders as they motivated and disciplined themselves. Reference was also made to leading the research process, and leading other academics not involved in research but who should value and understand the research work being done. Two respondents introduced the word 'follower' for those who are led. One of these disassociated himself from using it as he regarded 'follower' as patronising and wrongly elevating the leader as the 'big person I am; look what I have done'.

Newer and junior staff who were not especially involved in research particularly felt confused and unclear about the role of formal research leaders. Peter Irons claimed that the role of a particular professor was lacking in transparency and openness. He agreed that for him official research leaders had two different sets of expectations. One set related to them as an individual, and achieving things in their own name, say books and articles, while on the other hand, there is this expectation which relates to leading or influencing or facilitating others, and that often the first is easier to see and measure than the second. He felt a research leader does not necessarily get to the top by influencing or facilitating but that they often get to the top by being ruthless and being selfish and to an extent, by producing their own books *etc.* Angelo Topaz had a similar position. He expected the leader to '.. bring people together and to decide the strategy for the whole school, and not only for himself'. Another respondent suggested that 'we didn't bring as many people on board with (research), as we should have done'. In contrast Claire Stone, a senior academic involved with research was clear about the role of the official leaders and was positive and grateful for the support she had been given. She said

'I expect them to protect my position. And to protect me from a lot of teaching and admin. and I expect them to be supportive, if you're going off to conferences. I

expect them to be good to mull over ideas with, and also ...I had a complete disaster recently when my research partner became very ill and a research leader said...what can we do to help. So, supportive, protective. I don't need them to get me interested in research and get me motivated, because I do that myself, and I don't need them to say how many papers have you written.'

A particular research leader was considered by two respondents to have been effective for the organisation, the School, and for his own gain. But he was not thought to have been effective in terms of developing and bringing on other people 'on the other side of the wall'.

In discussing the things that influence the effectiveness of research leaders Bob Steele an official research leader considered time, resources, the disposition of other senior colleagues to research and the capabilities of staff. On the latter he said

'...people's effectiveness in trying to create research leadership, is also affected by what you're working with, and that is an issue for hospitality more than it is for others, and it's not just kind of anecdotal either. I remember a CNAA report which showed average levels of qualifications, and they're lower for hospitality than elsewhere, and to an extent that's still kind of a characteristic of this, as kind of an educational part of the sector, and that is massively significant in terms of the kind of potential future development in research, and therefore, by implication, the judgement on the individual. Capacity to be research leaders, sort of thing.'

He went on to outline how he determined the effectiveness of a research leader:

'I see it in two ways really. One is kind of the informal, so the sort of people I would talk about as research leaders, don't have a research role just in an informal way. I can point to things that they do, to generate things ..to make some things happen that otherwise wouldn't have happened. In personal terms, it's a useful indicator. Given my role though, I've taken a more formal approach, which was over the years, to have formal research strategies with indicators of performance, so, an annual review of research output, a review of research degrees, and degrees under progression. Fairly mechanistic things.'

### **7.5.3 Effective and non-effective research leaders**

When asked about the attributes of research leaders interviewees provided a variety of rich responses. Effective or good research leaders were described as people who are interested in another person's research and who researchers can approach informally to discuss their research. One respondent, for example, commented upon a good leader who sat and talked to him about research 'like a Dad, for twenty minutes'. The need for someone who supports and facilitates less experienced colleagues to undertake research was mentioned by Ian Glass.

'Our school is segmented into highly active researchers... who don't really need a leader, and then people are kind of coming up from the rank, and they don't need a leader. They need a supporter, and a mentor, and a facilitator.... But the people who have no experience of research, need one to one by their side, helping them along, rather than a big high status professor, or reader, or whatever, leading. Good leaders, can be really good and make a difference, but a poor leader...can be a disaster.'

The concern for others by research leaders was indicated in other ways by respondents. Effective leaders were widely considered as people who were capable of encouraging and motivating individual staff to research and who protected researchers. Amongst the personal attributes of effective leaders the need not to be bombastic; to have drive, sensitivity, be trustworthy and be able to inspire confidence.

The importance of technical and subject expertise was also recognised. For example effective leaders were said to need to understand the research process and university processing systems, to be able to distinguish good and bad research practice and to be in the same field and have an output in that field. Finally, a range of management competencies were stated to be required to be effective. These included being strategic and linking the external and internal worlds; having a vision of research needs; setting, translating and communicating the research agenda and convincing others to follow in that direction; creating the conditions for research; being able to assess the research capabilities of individuals and seeking to add value from research to other activities.

Claire Stone commented that 'there needs to be a critical mass of people to have a leader. In other words, if there's one person doing research, you don't need a leader. You need a certain number'. She proceeded

'..and the critical mass in the research centre, needs a leader. Because it needs a PR person. It needs someone organising the bids. It needs someone keeping their eye on tenders and bids to bring the money in, and it needs someone to farm out, so it needs a manager, it needs a director. And it needs someone committed to it and a champion.'

Ian Glass said

'I would like some sort of professorial figure that's actually going to do it. ....But it takes a very special sort of individual, and I don't think it's something you can train. I don't think it's something that's got anything to do with structures. You've got to feel valued, and it comes back to encouragement. If you don't feel that what you're doing is valued by the university, that's a problem. I've never felt that, but I know colleagues who have.'



When asked for an example of effective/good research leaders in hospitality management two internal candidates were identified. These included Bob Steele. Claire Stone commented that

'... the common denominator of both of them is...they're both very encouraging, and both very professional, and both always achieve deadlines and targets. They're well organised, they're both good at admin actually, and they're both experienced. The difference is in the way they deal with people...their kind of personalities. Bob's much more serious, calmer, quieter, and John's more bolshie. More charismatic, louder, kind of laugh a minute. One's much more serious but they both get the job done. Personality is very, very important. Their own background. How they came to do research. Their view of the world. John believes everybody can do whatever they want if they've got the support. Bob has a totally different view. He believes some people will never be capable of research, leave them alone, there's no point. And he believes you have to have the intellect and capability. And it's not the case that everybody can do it. No matter how much they want to...'

Bob Steele saw a good leader as

'...someone who's evidently very capable, in terms of having an excellent track record of research from funded research projects, to journal publications and so on, who has provided people with opportunities in working collaboratively and has a knack of working collaboratively.. It's never presented as...look I'm the expert, you're the follower, I'll take you through it, you follow me, next time you can do it on your own... one of the things I should have mentioned is respect as well. That kind of mutual respect. A good leader isn't one that expects respect.'

Ian Glass said

'John gets pretty close to a good research leader.... John's problem's the same as everybody's problem in that role in 85% of the time he was out of the building doing his things, and when you've got so much of your own stuff to do, it's very difficult to find the time for everybody else.'

Grace Gold said being a good leader is 'about the balance of self interest and whether or not you're an individual or whether or not you're a company worker'.

Some respondents stated that they did not think there was such a thing as a poor research leader. Bob Steele, for example, believed that people were either research leaders or they were not. Similarly Charles Clay said

'...I don't think you can have such things as bad leaders. Bad leaders are people who have leadership forced upon them. A leader's a leader. You don't get told you're a leader. Because leaders emerge from the crowd. What's bad is when somebody gets allocated a management role for something which really should be a leadership role. A bad leader is essentially someone who you were told to follow, and basically no-one trusts them, because they're told...you are the

manager of research. And that would be the worst possible way to try and manage research.'

Others, however, felt that there could be a poor research leader. Some considered a poor leader as someone who had none of the attributes of a good leader. Claire Stone considered 'a poor leader could be somebody who didn't do anything. Or is damaging, or too critical, or treats people unequally or inconsistently'. Grace Gold said

'... a bad leader in this context would be somebody who looks after themselves, does their own publication record. Somebody who doesn't try and facilitate, but also somebody who creates an elite, because that jump from nothing to something, to research with a big 'R' is very, very difficult, given the context of pressure of teaching we have here. And it's also not possible, unless people are willing to work beyond their contracts.'

Interestingly when asked for examples of a poor leader John was identified who had been described by others as a good leader. Peter Irons said of him.

'He's a charismatic character. He's a strutting peacock, godly like figure. I refused to have him for my supervisor, because he's not my kind of person, and I don't see him as a leader. ...but then you could also argue that people don't get to the top by being kind and considerate...There's an argument isn't there, that you become head of a company by becoming ruthless. If you're not ruthless, if you care for other people, then you never get there, because you're too kind and willing, so.....I would say that John is a bad leader because of the traits he has got *i.e.* he's bombastic, he won't listen to other people, he's out for self gain, he's not in it for the good of the community and he's out to shaft people. Now I don't think that's a good way to be.'

It was claimed that a good researcher often becomes research leader but not necessarily a good research leader. Ian Glass, for instance, said:

'A poor research leader usually is somebody....who can have a high profile. They can be respected as a researcher, but it's someone who is not interested in what everybody's doing. It's somebody who's self-centred. And you can't be self-centred and be a good research leader, because usually people become research leaders, because they're good researchers. A lot of good researchers, are good researchers, because they're downright selfish. So what you've got is an immediate clash, in that the reason for promoting somebody is often their downfall.....Whenever people talked to you...they said....X is in charge of research at your place...that must be exciting. And you feel like turning round and saying, no the guy's an idiot. But you can't, because the guy's got a huge profile because of what he does, and he's got this position, and really doesn't want it. ....but really a lot of the best researchers, are best left to get on with it. And the last thing you want to do...it's a disservice to them and to their staff, is to promote them to a position of leadership. I would much rather have a leader who was a reasonable researcher, who is interested in people, and who can communicate.'

Similarly Charles Clay said:

'Some people always plough a lone furrow on their research, be it for commercial research, like John, or to a certain extent, heavy academic research, because you do still have the beards, and the cords, and comfy shoes, and these people are basically not natural leaders. They're not natural orators or communicators, but they're damned good researchers. Now I think there's a role for team research, and you need to have the right people who can lead and cluster these people together and get the right balance.'

## **7.6 Research leadership**

### **7.6.1 Research leadership relationships and the participants involved**

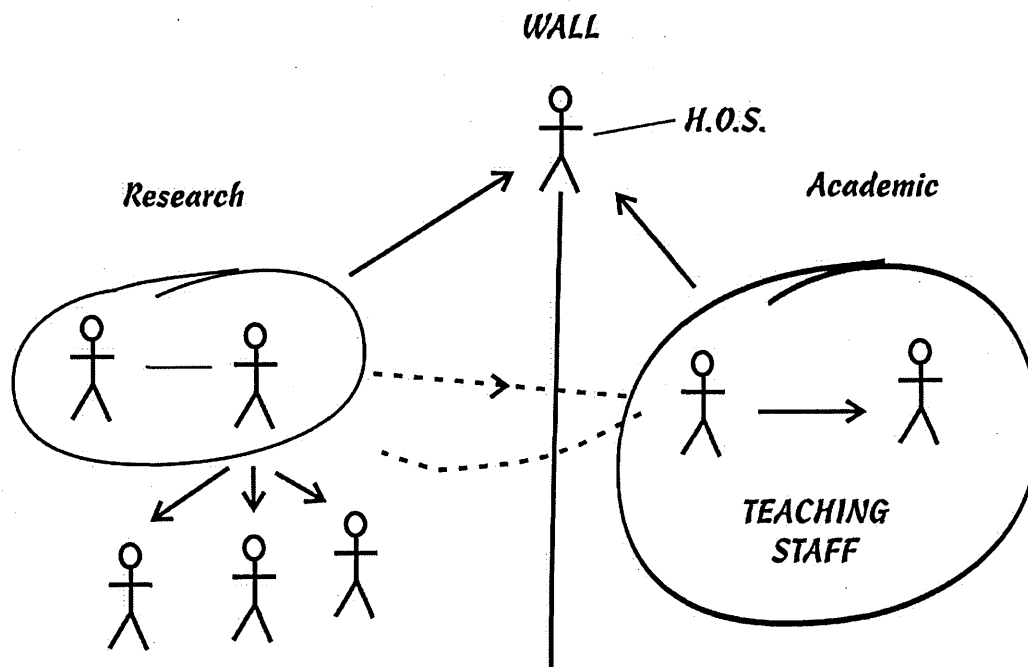
One particular pattern emerged when interviewees were asked to indicate verbally and diagrammatically the different people they considered were involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at Sturridge and their relationships. Both senior and junior academics identified two distinct 'camps' of people. In Camp A were the researchers and in Camp B were the non-researchers. The researchers were highly involved in the research activity but still do some teaching. In the main these people worked in teams under the auspices of a research centre and were associated with the RAE. The non-researchers were mainly teachers some of whom were budding researchers who had a desire to contribute to research. Others were pursuing a research qualification and foresaw, as they developed in the field, that research may become more important for them. In all cases these academics only had research as a small part 'tagged on' to their role. They had very limited time to undertake research due to their large teaching loads. The non-researchers also included what one senior academic called the 'no hoppers'. These were people who had no desire to research and who didn't attend research meetings. They were said by one senior academic respondent to be 'a very small minority, but those individuals are probably the ones who are crappy teachers. Don't do any admin. Take holidays from June to October you know, and until they go'.

Peter Irons provided a clear pictorial representation (Figure 7.3) and accompanying vivid description of how he saw these camps.

'You've basically got two streams, and a brick wall down the middle. So you've got this brick wall here, with the Head of School sitting on the top of it, shouting down to either side. This is the academics. They're all reading their books and doing their scholarly activity, and getting on with that, and trying to climb over the brick wall, but very rarely will this side let them in. There's a core of pally researchers...with all their little worker ants underneath, doing the research with even students doing dissertations which they can get them to feed into this pull-in,

which they can then produce into journals or what have you. Every now and again, they decide, there's somebody over there (in Camp B) that we might just need. So they do a raiding party across the wall, to try and get a person. They pull them over. See if they're any good to them. If they're not, drop them back down again, and carry on the way they are. That's the only time they really go over this wall. They very rarely go over the wall to give us information, to tell us what research they're doing, and how that can feed into our teaching.'

**Figure 7.3** Peter Iron's representation of those involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research at the University of Lethbury



He also said of certain people in Camp A.

'These people here see themselves as godly like figures who don't need to go over this....they don't want to go over this side of the wall, and if they do get a teaching load, or the teaching load isn't right, they'll quickly buy themselves out of it. They've got to try and remain on this side their brick wall, on this side of the wall.'

Annette De Silva commenting on the camps said

'I don't think that there are any barriers to changing camps. I don't think there's any....you're not coming into this clan, or, you're not suitable or you're not academic or anything like that. I don't think there's any specific barriers, but the barrier is in terms of perhaps a psychological one in terms of not knowing how to go about it, or what you need to do. And also having the barrier of the commitment and perhaps where the priority is placed.'

One interviewee discussed this priority further and suggested that academics had to decide which career path to take. Either they could go in one direction within Camp B and become a course leader followed by a subject team leader or they could go towards research and consultancy in Camp A. These camps were not seen as a good thing by some senior academics. Claire Stone was one of these.

'We all divide in our school between the researchers and the non-researchers, which I cannot stand. I've walked into the learning centre, and they've said....here comes Claire. She's another one of our researchers. And I said...not a researcher, I'm a lecturer and I do research. I think we should all be involved in research. They say there's the researchers and there's jealousy. They always look after the researchers. If you went into our school and asked anybody to list the researchers, they'd all come up with the same 5 people. It's not seen as everybody does it. It's seen as they are the researchers. And there's a real lack of dissemination and sharing.'

The exclusion of some academics from the research centres and their isolation was recognised by Ian Glass

'...we had a big push about five years ago with this centre for research in ..... A lot of staff turned round and said.....that's not what I'm doing....and immediately felt excluded from it. So what you've actually got are a number of centres where it's focused under, and then you've got a number of people ploughing quite lonely furrows on their own. I'm not a great believer in specific centres, because they can exclude more people than they include. If you use them to drag people in, brilliant. But we haven't here. We've used it to push people out. And it's not a deliberate policy. It's because of the way in which research is managed, basically..... People know they're going to get favourable treatment if they fit into one of the centres and if it's going towards the RAE. You know that if you're going to do your own lonely little furrow, you might have less support.'

Even when people were in particular centres criticisms existed. Jack Boardman claimed that between centres 'there is really no relationship at all, and it's extremely sad and they've become such distinct entities.'

In terms of the research leaders two categories were identifiable. There were the officially appointed research leaders/managers who between them were involved in writing bids, helping with research proposals, managing postgraduates research, income generation, helping with papers and providing some direction and some support in terms of where the school wants to go. These would be principal lecturers or professors. It was said by one senior academic that 'to lead research' would be in their job description. A Visiting Professor was identified who assisted with writing and generating bids and income. When asked about how much time was spent on research leadership one of these leaders said that he would not want to quantify it as there are the formal things

which people see but then the things people don't see which he suggested might include redrafting documents.

Informal research leaders were also identified. These provided encouragement and help and could be someone interested in someone else's research or just friends for research conversation. These informal leaders were basically individuals respected by a researcher. Also in this category was a senior lecturer bringing in significant amount of annual income who also facilitated and supported others in research.

Charles Clay did not distinguish between the formal and informal research leaders and indicated they could be either. He said 'as far as I'm concerned, the leaders would be the people that do, who are recognised by others, in the team, as participating in the research, and communicate that research.'

### **7.6.2 Defining research leadership**

Interviewees definitions of research leadership varied but the majority of definitions focussed on one of six aspects: the leader, level, the people involved, the purpose and the functions of research and, finally, action which can be encapsulated as influence. Some, such as Claire Stone, equated research leadership with job titles such as Professor, Chair, Reader, Head of Research, Director of Research and Research facilitator. In contrast, Bob Steele related research leadership to its purpose. He believed that too much of the purpose of research leadership had been about meeting targets and to achieve the goals that others have set. He did not always regard these as legitimate but nevertheless were difficult to get out of. Function oriented definitions were quite common. For instance Peter Irons said

'...leadership is ...about taking something forward, and taking everybody on board, with you, to whatever ends it might be ... and by doing that, you've got to communicate, you've got to manage the team, manage the budget... Not just being somebody that sits at the top of the pile, as it were, and you all look up to them. To me, you look up to them, not purely based on the research they've done, but in terms of leading ...or managing the team.'

Ian Glass also adopted a functional stance. He believed that

'Leadership in research is something different to leadership with a department, where you all need to be heading in the same direction, you need to have the same vision. With research, it tends to be a disparate group of people, doing their own thing to some extent, and what you've got to do is to maximise people's output. If I was in charge of research, I would rather have 20 people active working, in 20 different areas within hospitality, than have 5 people really working to a focus,

and the others feeling a bit disengaged from it. In an ideal world, the leadership represents the researchers, when it comes to teaching deployment, and admin deployment, so they're almost a buffer zone. In terms of staff and research students, they are different animals fundamentally. Research students tend to need more leadership. Staff tend to be more self motivated. They tend to have a greater knowledge base. I see the leader as basically a facilitator. They exist to give the researchers and their supervisory team, the time and the resources to work with.'

Another approach taken when attempting to define research leadership was to focus on people – leaders and others. Claire Stone, for example, used named individual formal research leaders to explain research leadership. Similarly Charles Clay also focussed on the formal leader in his definition but also those being led. He stated:

'You develop the strategy and then leadership is about getting the following. It's about bringing people along in the right direction and convince them there is a way, and this is the right way...and that's quite different from managing research. Managing research can be resourced. It can be a structural issue, but leadership is about the individuals involved... It's that encouraging, it's motivating, using essentially personality and encouragement to get the best out of the team that's available. Leading the team and having a clear direction, and convincing the team to follow in that direction.'

Two respondents referred to levels when defining research leadership. Steven Slater suggested it came in three levels: the individual or operational level whereby individuals have 'the direction and the motivation to go on and do' research; the supervisory or deployment level 'to get the research done' and "leadership in the co-ordinating role... and actually putting it into the vision of the school, so the school is moving in one direction". Another reference to levels came from Annette de Silva who considered that at one level there was low level research leadership which was fairly informal, low key and individual. This she called leadership with a small 'l' and in contrast there was leadership with a big 'L' which was more overt and general leadership.

From the definitions a number of verbs were commonly identified as being associated with research leadership indicating that respondents saw leadership as action centred. Such words as encourage, support, co-ordinate, facilitate, nurture, direct, guide, inform, organise, motivate, criticise, push, create conditions, protect were recognised. It was also noted that in explaining research leadership respondents referred to leadership in the context of people (researcher), the process of research and the outputs of research. Some respondents were unclear about whether research leadership was the same or different to research management as illustrated by the following from Bob Steele.

'The motivation and support that's very similar to management. To some extent, the co ordination side of it, is very similar to management. Having said that, it's a very different sort of management, .... whether it's leadership in research, or whether it's management in research. The terms ...could be used, to sort of interchange the terms, but I think the complexities of research, you need that understanding to be able to lead it, and give it the direction and the vision, as against the general management of a school, or course, or whatever.'

But some did see differences. Claire Stone said 'I think leading's a bit stronger and a bit more pushing people. I think leading's a bit more like the general really, more proactive. Managing is kind of managing a process that's already there'. Charles Clay thought 'the two things are quite different. At the moment, research.....been managed, and process driven. I think it needs leadership from the point of view of people being encouraged and nurtured through to get involved in research'. Grace Gold reflected

'..in the institutional context, management is about managing resources, being the wheeler dealer, facilitating people to do whatever... it's about manipulating deployment, it's about encouraging. My experience of leadership might be in terms of setting an exemplar for others. And one of the ideas of having ( a titled research leader) was that they would act as an academic leader. Now, when I advertised, I specifically asked for somebody who would foster and encourage leadership. Research. You know and I was expecting buddying up and general support, confidence building really.'

Finally another distinction occurred in the way respondents defined research leadership. Most interviewees defined it with reference to both words while a few defined leadership and then implied that this could be applied to research.

### **7.6.3 The feasibility and need for research leadership**

Responses indicated that research could be led at Sturridge. Reference was made by Ian Glass to the existence of an 'opportunity for research leadership'. However while stating that research could be led he also went on to say that 'I haven't seen much evidence of it to be absolutely honest' and 'I've never really felt that I've been led in research'. This was because he explained he had received what he wanted (encouragement) from leadership from a colleague rather than from a recognised leader. However he acknowledged

'I think it can be led, and certainly I've come across examples with other people where it has been very effectively led, but it tends to be very informal, the people who are the best research leaders, are not necessarily the best researchers. And it tends to be encouragement based.'



However with reference to past leader incumbents, the expectations of research leaders, the nature of the university and the nature and number of individual academics Grace Gold said I 'think it can be managed I don't know if it can be led'. Charles Clay whilst saying research can be led agreed with this last point. He also said 'whether people are capable of being led is a different kettle of fish'.

The need for research leadership was seen as strong amongst most interviewees at Sturridge. These were not the senior academics but essentially the junior or new academics. They recognised that leadership was needed so that research contributed value to the school through its outputs which should include contributing to teaching. Senior academics considered that leadership from someone else was not required. Claire Stone said

'And some of the people that I work with who do research, don't necessarily need a leader. They would still do it without a leader. They need someone to work out the hours, and do the admin, and do the expense forms, but research is so hard, you've got to be self motivated, and lead yourself, or motivate yourself.'

In contrast, Bob Steele's view was that he was 'moving away from thinking we need research leadership'. He believed now what was needed was facilitation, help and support. Annette de Silva, a new academic also recognised these needs, which she equated to leadership, for herself.

'I'm thinking scholarly activity, publications, journals and that sort of thing. Then it would help if it was led, because it would give, certainly people like myself, who've not previously been involved in it, and perhaps not open to it, and have this psychological fear, of what do I do, how do I do it.'

One view from Charles Clay was that all needed to be led in research whether they were doing it or not as all need to understand the value of it being done.

'So this idea where everyone's pulling together because everyone sees the value of it. And I don't think you can manage that. It has to be led. You have to get the confidence of the people who you're working with, to get them to follow, but you've got to give something back, and you've got to like feed the ones, and bring everyone on....cos I don't think.....you've got to have the majority of the people playing the game, if the game's going to be attempted. It's no good, just a small clique of people doing it. Everyone's got to like see the value of it. At the moment, not everybody sees the value of it, from a commercial point of view, or academic point of view.'

He advocated that all should be involved in the research game. 'Game' being a word used by others when talking about research.

#### 7.6.4 Approach to research leadership

When asked to describe the approach to research leadership at Sturridge a variety of responses were given. However there was a marked negativity amongst most junior academics. Adjectives such as *ad hoc*, unsystematic, fragmented, unplanned, short term, piecemeal, minimal were used. Ian Glass described it as 'bureaucratic, unintentionally exclusive, very dependant on the personality of the person involved, and perhaps ultimately dissatisfying'. Two respondents said there was no hospitality management research leadership whereas another, Jack Boardman, said 'it was patchy, and it still is, ... it's passive leadership, if that's the correct way to describe it at the moment. It's responsive. So in a sense, it's not really leadership is it?' Charles Clay considered that there was no natural research leadership or self established leadership. In stark contrast one senior academic saw it quite differently. Claire Stone claimed 'it's very organised. Very strategic. Very tactical. Very clear lines. And to be fair to the Head, money where her mouth is'. While the HOS said research had been adversely affected by asking a research leader to lead research and business development and said (while) 'I think it's been a success, we're probably at a bit of a crossroads at the moment .. we're now recognised as making a significant contribution to the RAE and as having a very active research culture'. She continued '....we've got a very credible record, but we're not sort of the traditional university type level of research and there are a lot of staff, as I've already said, in this School, who don't do anything. But that's sort of 40 years of lack of investment. And now it's a bit like turning an oil tanker'.

#### 7.6.5 Good and poor research leadership

Few examples of good research leadership were offered. Charles Clay in referring to a previous university said

'I can think of numerous things that I thought were good. I can remember there were some business research units which were set up, where there was a group of full time staff, research assistants, and research students, all working with some degree of synergy, and a combination of academic and PhD research topics. Publishing articles, commercial projects, all at the same time, and I always aspire to getting a unit together like that. I've seen that at numerous universities, and for that to be successful, it has to have good leadership. It has to have someone basically with a vision, with the ability to go out and attract research projects, and the right calibre of research staff. To be able to put something like that together is by definition, surely, good research leadership. I believed it might be happening (in hospitality) at Y University....they had a good academic team, and they had plenty of resources, good location and a name, *etc.* meant they could attract an awful lot of commercial work. But it doesn't seemed to have happened as greatly

as it could have done. I can't really think of anywhere else which has really set the world on fire. Maybe because there's too much churn. There's too many people moving around too much. Hospitality departments are always getting moved from one school to the other, so there's never any like stability there, and I think you need some degree of stability because it's a long term plan.'

The examples of poor research leadership given related to Sturridge and only came from non-senior academics. Steven Slater said

'There is freedom. The bit that compounds it all is the deployment, and the lack of transparency with deployment between staff. You've got some that have a full teaching load. And others that all you see bought out of another module, ...teaching is 3 hours of contact a week. Not that difficult really, compared. But you don't get the balance of the argument...saying..hang on...produced these papers .. they're doing this. And that's where I think the outcomes for the research are important. Because you can actually balance it and say you have a lot of teaching, but they've had a smaller amount of teaching, but they've also produced this.'

He went on to describe one leader.

'He's got the interest in it, because it linked into a lot of the stuff that he was writing about, and publishing. But he hadn't got the time to sit down and a] badger me to say...where is it...but b] actually to say ... there's a bit more information, how about this...come and have a coffee, we'll have a chat. How's life that kind of thing. And that bit was missing, and I think that's probably a fair example of poor leadership.'

Another example was from Peter Irons

'But nothing's ever been spelt out. So in terms of the research leadership, it's been poor. And the management of that has been quite poor, ...they've managed the research, or their own little pool of research, and that little core of people, but the rest of the thing hasn't been managed. The bits around the periphery.'

#### **7.6.6 Influence of context on research and research leadership**

Context was said by most interviewees to matter and had an influence upon the conduct of research and upon research leadership. Context was explained in different ways and most respondents identified a number of elements within their conception of context.

One interpretation considered there to be two contextual ingredients. The first of these related to the real focus upon research rather than the rhetoric. It was argued that in new universities it was often more rhetorical than real but vice versa in pre-1992 universities. Secondly, reference was made to the context in subject terms. Hospitality management was considered different to other subjects, including tourism, in the sense that academic staff had fewer PhDs and had different skills and perspectives. Hospitality management

was said to be less research based and more vocational than other disciplines. On this Steven Slater stated

'..you've got disciplines which are very much research based; the sciences, the humanities and education. Very much research led I suppose with the vast majority of the lecturing staff there have got PhDs, and that hospitality is seen as.....what are they messing (about with research for)..... so I think there's a barrier there. And I think when you go into that wider context, that's quite an issue. It's almost....well...this is an academic field and you're a vocational thing, and I think that does form a big issue.....university wide, it's a big issue....it (context) makes it (research leadership) more difficult from a co-ordinators role, a leader's role, to...you're not on an even playing field. You've got a fight before you can get to the other level, and probably makes it more difficult to actually have a voice at university level.'

Students were regarded as a contextual element at Sturridge by Bob Steele and although not a critical issue, he regarded them as budding researchers. This was a view of other respondents but Bob Steele believed that not all would see them this way. This was indeed the case with one respondent saying she didn't regard them as such and another who said 'they don't care a monkey's about research'. Another respondent saw them as 'budding industrialists rather than researchers'. One respondent occasionally regarded particular students as budding researchers whilst Ian Glass said he was beginning to regard them as embryonic researchers.

'They never were (regarded as budding researchers) in the past, but now certainly there is an informal process by which the stars are identified, with a view of finding them something to do. And we've actually got one of last year's graduates, now working as a part time lecturer, well, one in hospitality and two in ..(a related area) actually with a view really of keeping them in hand, so that we can feed them into PhDs or MPhils at a later stage. So yes, we've wasted students as a resource, or graduates as a resource in the past but now we're getting a bit more in line with it.'

As Steven Slater's view above indicates the influence upon research leadership largely resulted from the influence of context upon research. The values and attitudes to research within one context, work deployment and the other work priorities *e.g.* teaching, and the nature of staff were all considered factors which impinge upon the conduct of research and in turn have an affect upon research leadership. Different leadership challenges exist in different contexts as Charles Clay implied.

'The structure will basically impinge on the ability of people to lead *per se*. Structural changes and the people within the environment, the organisation, will change the ability for you to lead. We've had a lot of staff change, and you've also got the people who don't want to be led, just do their own thing.'

With reference to research leadership at Sturridge Jack Boardman felt 'there is a need for a kind of contextual influence (coordination of school and university missions and goals) on research leadership'.

Interviewees perceived that differing contexts existed between new universities and traditional universities and this in turn affected research and research leadership in different ways. Reference was made by respondents to the greater emphasis on research in traditional universities and the domination of the stress inducing RAE.

Boardman said

'It's completely different to our place, where the RAE is important, but it's not the main driving force. So, our university is applied teaching and learning. Applied research - it's not relevant or valuable unless it's applied to industry, and I think that's fine. But our school's so strong a culture, that the school would have more of an impact on my working life in research than the university. The university neither impedes or...it doesn't stop me doing research and it doesn't make me do research, because it's devolved to the faculty and school, and day to day. The biggest influence, is...how much teaching I'm doing. And my teaching is still protected, because I keep doing research.'

More emphasis was placed on teaching in new universities claimed respondents and one claimed it was a completely different world to the old universities.

## **7.7 Summary**

This chapter reports and presents data about research, research leaders and the leadership of research undertaken by academics interested or involved in hospitality management research within the University of Sturridge.

This post-1992 university is a teaching led-institution. Nevertheless research was still considered important and hospitality management research was conducted. Particular emphasis was placed upon the link between research and teaching here. While themes were identifiable conceptions of research varied amongst the respondents. The evidence from respondents at this university was that research by academics can be led and research leaders were needed.

The majority of the respondents' definitions of research leadership focussed on one of six aspects: the leader, level, the people involved, the purpose and the functions of research and, finally, action which can be encapsulated as influence. Hospitality management research leadership at the University of Sturridge was associated with leaders but not exclusively. It was heavily influenced by the formal research leader and

also by the context, culture and staffing complement. The hospitality management research respondents were generally modestly qualified. Only two of the eleven respondents had doctorates and four others had masters degrees. Academics were frequently said to lie in one of two groups or camps. Camp A contained the researchers and camp B the teachers. Some, mostly those in camp A, regarded the formal research leader as effective whereas others, mostly from camp B, did not. The formal leader was considered by many respondents as a leader of hospitality management rather than a leader of academics in research. The formal leader was considered to be remote by many respondents, especially those in camp B. These respondents had a need for a people based leader and therefore because of this informal research leaders were evident. These informal leaders existed in both camps.

From the research the organisation and/leadership of hospitality management research in this university was not that advanced and the concept of a research strategy was not often mentioned. The short history of hospitality management research at Sturridge may have, in part, accounted for this situation.

The next chapter will proceed to analyse, interpret and discuss the findings presented and reported in this and the previous chapter relating to the pre-1992 and the post-1992 university.

## **CHAPTER 8 THE ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS**

### **8.1 Introduction**

Having presented and reported research findings for the pre-1992 and the post-1992 university in the previous two chapters the purpose of this chapter will be to analyse, interpret and discuss these findings. The analysis will be aided by reference to the theoretical propositions which led to the original objectives and design of the primary research. In the beginning this study was based on the notion that research was important to most universities and that because of this importance and the general changes taking place in higher education the leadership of research has become of key significance. This significance was considered especially in relation to the nature of the leadership of academics in research at a subject based level. From the theoretical propositions arguments were developed and evidence provided which claimed that there were disagreements over the nature and role of research and that our knowledge of research leadership is scant, often anecdotal and limited to the experiences of officially appointed leaders. The need for empirical research leadership studies was advocated.

From the literature review a number of research questions were generated which in turn led to the development of a set of primary research objectives (see chapter 5). These objectives will be addressed in this chapter and are:

1. To establish what individual academics involved in hospitality management in two UK universities (a pre-1992 and a post-1992 university) understand by research and, more specifically, hospitality management research.
2. To determine the priority placed upon research by these academics, their reasons for this and their motivations for engaging in research.
3. To determine the identity, activities and characteristics of hospitality management research leaders and the nature of hospitality management research leader relationships.
4. To establish how hospitality management academics conceive of research leadership and, more particularly, hospitality management research leadership.
5. To ascertain the nature of the contexts in which hospitality management research within these two universities is undertaken and evaluate the influence of context and other factors upon research leadership.

The first of these objectives will be addressed in sections 8.2 and 8.3. Section 8.4 will address the second objective and section 8.5 the third objective. Finally, section 8.6 will be directed to the last two objectives.

## 8.2 Conceptions of research

An awareness of what academics regard as research is fundamental to considering the practice of the leadership of university academics in research. Research has been described as a complex phenomenon (Brew, 2001) which is borne out by explanations provided by both sets of respondents at the pre-1992 university (the University of Lethbury) and the post-1992 university (the University of Sturridge). A wide range of conceptions of research were offered by respondents within each university and across them both. However some general perspectives can be identified from the particular way respondents explained research in each university and by comparing responses across both institutions.

These perspectives can be divided according to how respondents defined research, how they analysed research or how they referred to other concepts to explain research. In other words respondents used definitions to explain the nature of research, overtly referred to types of research to explain of what it consists, or related research against other concepts.

The first of these perspectives is the definitional approach. Brew (2001) drew upon a definitional approach in her research on the nature of research. Most respondents at Sturridge and a large minority at Lethbury drew upon a definition to express their understanding of research. Many respondents across both institutions regarded research as an action or process based on the discovery of new knowledge or the manipulation of existing knowledge. This resembles what Ticehurst and Veal (2000) called 'descriptive research' and research in 'its simplest form'. A few respondents, particularly at Sturridge, emphasised that research was concerned with aiding our understanding of something. This has been termed 'explanatory research' (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). A final view, especially espoused by some respondents at Sturridge, was that research should be purposeful and of value not only to the university but to industry. The strong vocational nature of this post-1992 university could be a possible reason for this view that research should be relevant to industry. Some academics have termed this applied research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003).

The second perspective is typological and usually based on simple bipolarities. Respondents in both universities overtly referred to types, and especially at Sturridge to types with two extremities, in their conceptions of research. An example of bipolarities was the distinction between primary and secondary research. Such a typological



approach associated with two poles, is commonly taken in the literature. Wood (1999) and Hussey and Hussey (1997), for example, classify and discuss bipolar types. In a similar vein Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) claim research projects can be placed on a continuum between basic and applied research whereas Ticehurst and Veal (2000) refer to kinds of research approaches or methodologies. Interestingly while this perspective was evident across respondents with varied job titles at Sturridge only lower grade staff referred to types in their conceptions of research.

The third perspective is referred to here as the relative approach. This approach consisted of respondents referring to the nature of research vis à vis other concepts, namely scholarship, consultancy and publication. Amongst those using this approach to explain research opinion differed about whether research was distinct from, overlapped with or related to scholarship and/or consultancy and/or publication. It was clear that the complexities of explaining research for most respondents were made more problematic and were inevitably compounded when scholarship and consultancy were simultaneously raised. Distinctions between particularly research and scholarship, and between, to a lesser extent, research and consultancy, were difficult to identify and explain.

A further important point that emerged from the research conducted at Lethbury, perhaps unsurprisingly given its pre-1992 university status and the long serving respondents who mentioned this, was the need to consider in general terms how both research and researchers had changed over time. The emphasis upon particular kinds of research was different now than previously and collective approaches to research were now as relevant and present as individualism. Additionally the quality, experience and qualifications of researchers had developed.

The conclusion from this analysis is that when considering the general nature and practice of research leaders and research leadership a broad conceptual, dynamic and temporal view of research must be adopted because to be too narrow or time bound may exclude individuals and activities from any debate and actions and may prevent the inclusion of evolving and new kinds and ways of thinking of research. There is some evidence from the findings, particularly at Lethbury (see section 6.4.1 for example), that university research is changing and moving away from the individual pursuit of discovery and creation towards research which is more collective and which is increasingly concerned with the users of research and the utility of research. There is

still much research though that is individual. Similarly while research still seems to be conceived as rooted in the discovery of new knowledge wider thinking is evident. This supports Gibbons *et al* (1994) who claimed research has been shifting from curiosity-driven to interdisciplinary and problem-driven.

### **8.3 Conceptions and distinctiveness of hospitality management research**

Previous discourse has embraced consideration of the role that disciplinary allegiance plays in conceptions of research (Becher, 1989 and Brew 2001). Brew (2001) claims that many academics believe that discipline determines differences in research while Becher (1989) considered that discipline was but one factor amongst a complex set of factors influencing conceptions of research. Verma and Mallick (1999) claim that the diversity of activity underpinning academic disciplines will cause differences in meaning about the concept of research. The analysis above indicates that hospitality management academics do not appear to have greatly different perspectives from those of other disciplines whether they be from business and management (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) and Ticehurst and Veal (2000), education (Brew, 2001), social science more generally (Robson, 1993 and Wood, 1999) or technology (Kumar, 1999). However when it came to conceptions of hospitality management research specifically there were variations of opinion. Most respondents, and particularly those from Sturridge, did not consider that there was any difference between generic and hospitality management research. However some respondents, of varying grades, at Lethbury did see a difference between them due to the influence of the hospitality industry on the nature of research projects or what could be called the 'quick fix' backgrounds of many hospitality researchers.

### **8.4 The importance attached to research**

In principle respondents in both universities considered it important to their universities, to their schools and to themselves for academics to research. This was for a wide range of reasons. Of these reasons research was considered necessary to inform teaching across both universities. At Lethbury reference was especially made to the commercial importance of research and for income. In contrast the Head of School at Sturridge considered it important '... but so long as it doesn't cost too much'. The emphasis upon research in practice appeared greater at Lethbury than at Sturridge. This was reflected in senior respondents at Sturridge claiming it was a teaching-led university while senior respondents at Lethbury referred to it as a research-led university. Additionally the

evidence demonstrated that the Lethbury respondents had more research qualified staff, had more active researchers and had a more sophisticated research strategy and structure.

Respondents at Sturridge did give reasons for personal research. But for the majority any motivations were stifled by one or more barriers. The increased priority on teaching was the main one. While research was still on the agenda in the School, at least for some, there was a view that there was a declining emphasis upon research in the university generally. Some respondents gave the impression that for this and other reasons they had almost resigned themselves to not having research feature either at all or, at best, only in a limited way in their work lives. In contrast, while many obstacles to research existed at Lethbury the range of motivations amongst staff, regardless of job title or length of service, and the obvious passion of all staff when talking about research indicated their strong orientation and desire to research. Ways around some of the perceived obstacles were also cited unlike at Sturridge.

The conceptions and views outlined in sections 8.2, 8.3 and 8.4 serve as an important backdrop to the next two sections about leaders of research and research leadership and have been stated as key factors of relevance to the study of the leadership of university academics in research particularly related to hospitality management (see section 4.9).

### **8.5 Research leaders**

Much of the research on leadership has concentrated on the attributes of the leader (Horner, 2003) and in particular upon the designated leader – that is the one in the formal leadership position (Shackleton, 1995). Because leaders are central to most explanations of leadership one of the key objectives of this research was to investigate where leadership resided related to hospitality management research within the two universities and also the characteristics and activities of these people. From both universities there was evidence of the association between leaders and leadership and of the existence of different types of leaders. Contrasting pictures emerged though at the two universities about who research leaders were and about the expectations others had of formal leaders and of the actual characteristics of these formal leaders.

At Lethbury, the pre-1992 university, formal officially appointed leaders of hospitality management research existed who acted and were accepted by others as role models. These leaders were nearly all professors and had strong personal research records and

were at the forefront of their subject or, to put it another way, led their subject rather than other academics. They were 'traditional research leaders' in that they had become leaders through their own research and scholarship activity and not through directly leading colleagues. They were recognised by their colleagues as experts in their field and their leadership emphasis was leading and advancing their subject rather than overtly and directly leading others. These formal leaders were acceptable as 'remote leaders' to other academics at Lethbury in that, although they had an interest in the research of others and were physically accessible, they were very much self-centred in their personal research. They were very much self-leaders in research and appeared, whether they realised it or not, to act as research leader role models to their colleagues who tended to exhibit self-leadership themselves regarding research and who could therefore, in this sense, have been clones of the formal leaders. The notion of self-leadership may appear to be a contradiction in terms as one might question how an individual can lead themselves. However the findings, particularly from Lethbury, showed that a number of individuals had developed a clear direction for themselves and had developed a set of strategies for leading themselves to higher research and scholarly work performance and effectiveness. The existence of self-leadership especially as an effective way to operate in a team or collective based circumstances, as was increasingly occurring regarding research at Lethbury (see section 8.2), is supported by Manz and Sims (1989) and Milliken (1994). The formal leaders were only involved in the hospitality management research activities of other academics in a minor, and usually then at an arms length, way. For instance, their involvement was more associated with their own profile and that of the university and with vision, strategy and structures. Their people leadership was less noticeable and more indirect. The direct people leaders were either informal leaders or self-leaders. The informal leaders were identified by individual academics (but only two) as people who could guide, support or help them individually. The academics themselves who invariably were self-leaders had their own research goals, self-drive and motivation. This high level of self-leadership in research was probably linked to the highly qualified nature of those, other than the professors, who were interviewed and the culture of the institution. The existence of this high level of self-leadership may be advantageous. Certainly the RAE 2001 evidence indicates that the Lethbury respondents performed well and at a level greater than those at Sturridge. Albeit rather crude but if the RAE scores are taken as measures of productivity then there appears to be a consistency with a previous study (Milliken, 1994) which found that teams with members who experienced high levels of self-

leadership were more productive than those where there was less self-leadership. The notion of 'followers' was therefore less obvious in reality or as a need at Lethbury. All of the above might be expected in an environment with a quite highly empowered academic staff and where academic freedom was prominent. This freedom was strongly expressed in the freedom to choose personal research agenda, the freedom to manage the general pattern of personal working lives and the freedom to prioritise many aspects of work.

At Sturridge, the post-1992 university, a different picture regarding research leaders was evident. Research leaders were mainly informal or unofficial. There was a formal research leader, a professor, who was generally regarded by respondents as remote. This remoteness, as at Lethbury, also involved working on personal projects but, in contrast to Lethbury, also included physical inaccessibility. This leader it was claimed had an indifference to those interested in research but who were basically teachers *i.e.* those in Camp B (see section 8.6). As at Lethbury there was an appreciation and acceptance that the official leader should develop their own expertise and research profile and lead the subject *i.e.* be a traditional research leader. But there was also an expectation and need for someone to directly lead and influence other colleagues in research and facilitate them to undertake research. In Blake et al's (1964) model this was called the 'concern for people' factor. Such a formal leader, with both traditional leader features and characteristics associated with directly leading others, could be called a 'modern leader'. Many academics at Sturridge wanted direction, support, help and a leader who was interested in their research aspirations, activities and needs. This need was recognised widely and especially amongst the newer and less experienced and qualified staff located in Camp B. In an attempt to satisfy this need and overcome the frustrations and tensions that many had with the formal leader informal leaders were often identified and approached. Thus there was stronger evidence of the existence of followers at Sturridge. Self-leaders were only really evident in Camp A which was clinging on to research. Unlike at Lethbury respondents, particularly in Camp B, had limited ability to manage their personal working lives and to prioritise their own activities largely due to the high teaching and administrative loads.

Both sets of respondents at Lethbury and Sturridge devoted much time to analysing what characteristics they considered good or effective research leaders possessed. Their analyses identified that research leaders should combine being a pragmatist and a thinker with being a doer. They also pointed to leaders being leaders because of their

academic experience/superiority. Respondents said leaders required knowledge of both their subject and research and of their institution and its systems. Additionally a range of social, professional, technical and conceptual skills were seen as necessary and effective leaders were also considered to require a range of traits or personality characteristics. Research in psychology is beginning to show that traits do matter to being effective leaders (Shackleton, 1995). A range of traits of effective research leaders were identified by both sets of respondents. The recognition that leaders required more than just traits to be effective is consistent with the work of Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991). Traits may give individuals leadership potential but it is the vision and the ability to implement that potential that matters. In contrast to their perceptions and views of effective leaders respondents were less forthcoming in analysing ineffective leaders. The responses from Lethbury about ineffective leaders were less in number and detail than those from Sturridge. Those at Sturridge tended to highlight personality characteristics with ineffective leaders including being selfish, bombastic and critical. From respondents comments there was evidence that their preference was for research leaders to be transformational rather than transactional. This appeared to be a particular need amongst certain staff at Sturridge.

It could be argued that the judgement of the effectiveness of formal research leaders relates to a comparison of how the formal leaders self determine their roles against the expectations others have of these leaders. From the findings the formal leaders at Lethbury were generally effective as nearly all respondents accepted how the leaders defined their roles and operated. However, the situation at Sturridge was different with many of the respondents in Camp B plus the Head of School considering that their expectations of what they required from the formal leader was in contrast to how the leader defined his/her role. This resulted in suggestions that the formal leader at Sturridge was ineffective.

## **8.6 Research leadership**

The evidence from both universities was that respondents felt that research leadership was needed and that research could be led. While the literature review identified various definitions of both research and leadership no specific definitions of research leadership were found. However respondents in this research offered a number of explanations of research leadership. When it came to exploring the nature of this leadership, research leaders, as previously discussed, played a key role in people's notions of research

leadership at both Sturridge and Lethbury. But the equation of research leadership with only formal leaders was not found to be the case. Moreover research leadership went beyond focussing on identified leaders and comprised of other elements. Of these other elements, groups of people, research purpose, functions or activities and influence were commonly cited by respondents of both universities. The nature of research leadership was also considered different at different levels by respondents at both universities. The notion of environment was also deemed a relevant ingredient of research leadership at Lethbury. As with much of the concern of leadership theory concern in practice at Sturridge also lay in the relationships between people and in particular between the leader and groups of academics involved or wishing to be involved in hospitality research and between academics themselves in these groups.

At Sturridge two main groups of staff were identified related to hospitality management research: the researchers and the non-researchers. These groups were commonly referred to as 'camps'. Camp A consisted of the research activists who tended to have very limited teaching loads whereas Camp B contained the non-researchers and included, firstly, people who were described as teachers but who had a desire to research and, secondly, teachers who had no desire to research and who were referred to by the Head of School as the 'no hoppers' and the 'crappy teachers'. Between these two groups and with specific regard to research there was what was called 'the wall'. The division of staff either side of the wall caused friction and tensions between staff. The formal research leader was less remote and more acceptable to research activists in Camp A, who displayed self-leadership in research, than those academics in Camp B who if interested in research needed research leadership in the form of encouragement, help and support. The division of academic staff into two groups resembles and supports Graen's (1976) thinking about the in-group and the out-group in which the relationship between the leader and each group is different thus affecting the nature of the work in which each group is involved.

At Lethbury there was homogeneity in the qualifications of staff with most staff having PhDs or pursuing them. There was no noticeable existence of a division between staff, i.e. no real evidence of teachers and researchers, and most staff seemed to get along with and be more supportive of one another in their research endeavours. At Lethbury research leadership was more subject focused and, unlike at Sturridge, there was less of a need for people leadership. These features would seem consistent with the university's mission and the role of research discussed in section 8.3.

At both Sturridge and Lethbury there were research professors involved with hospitality management research. These were formal research leaders who were generally viewed as figure heads who pursued their own research and objectives. In addition at both universities there were informal leaders. Who these were though depended upon who was asked. Different respondents considered different people as research leaders. The only commonly identified leaders were the professors. At Lethbury the professors were seen positively and respected and accepted for what they did and there appeared to be no further expectations of them. Some need for research support and encouragement was required at Lethbury, especially for newer academics, but not necessarily from a research professor. Sometimes this was sought and obtained from informal research leaders. At Sturridge many in Camp B and the Head of School felt that the research encouragement, influence and support need of non researchers had not been satisfied. Their need for these seemed strong, as unlike at Lethbury, the staff generally and particularly the 'teachers' are lacking research experience and qualifications in the form of PhDs. At Sturridge a number of respondents said there were factors working against the commencement and completion of PhDs. So the constituency of the staff complement did seem to have an impact upon staff needs and their attitudes to research leadership.

From the explanations of research leadership two key elements of leadership cited in the literature (Middlehurst, 1993 and Shackleton, 1995) were commonly implied by respondents in both universities. These were group and influence. Both universities had formal groups in the shape of research centres while the existence of informal groups *i.e.* camps was also emphasised at Sturridge. Influence at Sturridge was mentioned in the context of affecting the actions of academics towards engaging in research and research qualifications whereas at Lethbury it was more towards the pursuit of taking knowledge forward and toward the leading of people to do specific research. These influences at Lethbury were respectively at the strategic and the tactical level according to one respondent. Goals, another key feature of leadership, were implied at Lethbury but less noticeably at Sturridge. The word strategy was also prominent related to research and its leadership at Lethbury but less so at Sturridge. The Sturridge research strategy seemed to be prioritised more towards research for teaching than anything else and there was much support for the importance of research to teaching. While it might be expected that a research led university would emphasise research strategies and research goals it might have been expected that a post-1992 university would also



strongly emphasise these in its quest to improve its research profile and match those of the pre-1992 universities. However the 2001 RAE gave indications that research performance of Lethbury was better than at Sturridge in the hospitality management area. Another research leadership aspect mentioned at Lethbury was the need for an appropriate environment for research to flourish. Although this was not directly mentioned at Sturridge it was clear that there were issues with people in Camp B with the environment for research. People in Camp B, for example, were envious of some of the rewards (*e.g.* timetable relief, funds for conference attendance) individuals were getting in Camp A from undertaking research. There was evidence that individuals in Camp A were motivated to research, publish etc. as a consequence of these benefits. At Lethbury all staff seemed equally incentivised to research. The benefits being more to do with esteem and self-actualisation.

A number of conceptions of the formal leadership of academics in research can be induced from the findings across the two universities. Firstly, formal leadership could be viewed as non-existent since a number of individual academics were self-motivated or motivated by reward rather than leadership *per se*. Secondly, there is evidence that some formal leadership may be unintentional *i.e.* formal leaders are role models but not intentionally so. Formal leadership could also be regarded as responsive, *i.e.* provided on demand, or proactive. Some signs of the first of these was evident at Lethbury and related to respondents in Camp A at Sturridge. At both universities therefore a paradox appeared to exist as the formal leaders exhibited non-existent and unintentional leadership and some responsive leadership.

According to Kakabadse and Kakabadse (1999) 'any analysis of leadership requires .... an examination of the culture and context of an organisation'. According to the responses context and culture do affect hospitality management research and research leadership at both Lethbury and Sturridge. However there were differences in the contexts of the two universities according to staff responses (although it was stated that there were difficulties in knowing what goes on elsewhere) and my personal analysis of the data collected at both situations. Lethbury was research led, academics were generally research and publication oriented and had or were pursuing PhDs. Lethbury had more formal hospitality management research leaders than did Sturridge. In both universities these formal research leaders were all professors. Postgraduate students were considered more like budding researchers at Lethbury. In contrast Sturridge was teaching led. Research was important but not the number one priority. Staff were often

below PhD qualified and students were not seen as budding researchers. Research seminars did not work at Sturridge with a lack of general attendance and often a failure to focus on research topics. There was evidence that a new research initiative had had to develop unofficially and outside the official recognised research centres. Both universities had research centres which were a bit haphazard and difficult to comprehend in terms of focus and operation but at Lethbury the research centre concept had existed longer. In both universities staff could opt for whichever centre they preferred and membership was voluntary.

### **8.7 Summary and conclusions**

For both the pre- and post-1992 universities research was important. The link between research and teaching was emphasised in both. However while themes were identifiable intra- and inter-university conceptions of research varied. Therefore a broad view of research would benefit analyses of the nature and practice of research leaders and research leadership. Despite these conceptual difficulties the evidence from this investigation is that research by academics can be led and research leaders are needed.

Hospitality management research leadership at both universities was associated with leaders but not exclusively. It was heavily influenced by the nature of the formal leaders and also by the different contexts, cultures and staffing complements. Followers and informal leaders were more evident at the post-1992 university while self-research leaders were more evident at the pre-1992 university. In both cases believing the notion that research leadership lay solely with formal leaders who were at a distance from the main body of academics would be incorrect. Such a view, as Horner (2003) states, 'limits our understanding of what actually happens in the work process' and in this study limits it related to academic research. This research then challenges the idea that research leadership resides with one individual person and suggests that leadership is influenced by organisational members. Similar views about leadership not being restricted to an individual person and situation could be inferred from Gardner's (1990) definition of leadership (see section 4.3).

From the research there appeared to be a more advanced organisation and/leadership of hospitality management research in the old university than the new university. The reason for this could be partly explained by the fact that the old university had a longer history of hospitality research. The key similarities and differences with respect to

research of the two universities and with respect to the research leaders are summarised in Figures 8.1 and 8.2.

**Figure 8.1 Analysis of universities and their contexts**

<b>Old University</b>	<b>New University</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hospitality management research conducted in research led university</li> <li>• Relatively long hospitality management research history</li> <li>• Research strategy commonly mentioned</li> <li>• Staff homogeneous and highly qualified</li> <li>• Some students viewed as budding researchers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hospitality management research conducted in teaching led university</li> <li>• Relatively short hospitality management research history</li> <li>• Strategy infrequently mentioned</li> <li>• Staff not highly qualified and fall into two groups – teachers and researchers</li> <li>• Students not generally viewed as budding researchers</li> </ul>

**Figure 8.2 Analysis of hospitality management research leaders in the two universities**

<b>Old University</b>	<b>New University</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Formal research leaders were subject based and ‘traditional leaders’</li> <li>• Formal leaders accepted as ‘remote leaders’</li> <li>• Self-research leaders were prominent</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Formal research leader was subject based Need for research leaders to be people based</li> <li>• Need for a ‘modern leader’ combining subject and people based orientation or two formal leaders</li> <li>• Research leaders are mainly unofficial</li> <li>• Formal research leader unacceptable for being remote</li> </ul>

## **Part III**

### **CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSIONS AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE**

#### **9.1 Introduction**

From the late twentieth century onwards the emphasis on research as a national resource in the UK has increased with successive governments perceiving links with their pursuit of a variety of economic, social and other objectives. The role of academia in contributing to this resource has come under scrutiny especially by the current Government while higher education institutions with research strategies, which is most of them (Gibbs, 2002), have been forced to evaluate these along with the role and conduct of research. From the widespread and strong concern expressed by many universities regarding the Government's proposed concentration of funds into a few academic institutions it is apparent that research is important to many universities. This importance underlines the need for universities to have some strategic vision of the nature and direction of their research and clear views about such aspects as the organisation of research, research policy and research culture. This need particularly relates to research undertaken in academic departments which is where research most clearly happens and is immediately resourced. Crucial to all of this is arguably the requirement for research leadership and support from research leaders. This is especially so in a competitive and changing world where resources are limited. However understanding of academic research leaders and research leadership has at best been anecdotal and restricted to the knowledge and experiences of official research leaders. This doctoral work took the theme of the leadership of university academics in research and in particular explored two case studies of hospitality management to obtain insights into, and to develop a deeper understanding of, the leadership of hospitality management research undertaken by academics in two universities.

The study was undertaken to make a contribution to the knowledge and understanding of research leaders and research leadership. In doing this it contained research about research and therefore was an addition to what has been described as lacking.

This chapter intends to draw the threads of the previous chapters together and to summarise and make conclusions related to each of the original objectives of this study which were:

- To examine the university and hospitality management education contexts, with reference to the UK, and the concepts of research and leadership.
- To conceptualise and theorise leadership for university research.
- To investigate leadership in hospitality management research at the subject group level and to explore the leadership activities of recognised research leaders.
- To evaluate perceived factors which influence research leadership.
- To field test the relevance of research leadership to the conduct of research.

Conclusions and insights gained from the case studies will be discussed in section 9.2 and these will link back to the theoretical and conceptual foundations of the study (as set out in chapters 2-4).

Wider implications of the research will be stated in section 9.3 especially those related to professional practice. Section 9.4 will reflect upon the research design and the methods employed. Finally, the last part (section 9.5) will make some suggestions for further research in the field of research leadership in universities.

## **9.2 Conclusions**

The first objective of the study was to examine the university and hospitality management contexts, with reference to the UK, and the concepts of research and leadership. This objective was achieved mainly by the literature review. The review indicated that context is an important element in certain theories of leadership (see section 2.1 and chapter 4). The assumption formulated in this research was that context is likely to shape the leadership of university academics in research. Context was interpreted in this study as being both the university context and the hospitality management education and research contexts. The conclusion from the review was that while there are some similarities in purpose and activity, universities and university contexts differ. Furthermore, it was suggested that university contexts are dynamic (McNay, 1995 and Ramsden, 1998). The implications of this will be discussed further in 9.3.

The hospitality management education and research context was also explored in the literature review (see sections 2.4 and 3.7). The hospitality management industry is served by a small but distinctive part of higher education in the UK devoted to hospitality management. Hospitality management education is mainly, but not exclusively, provided in the new universities. To date it has been largely vocationally

orientated (Airey and Tribe, 2000) and reflects hospitality managers, their work and their industry. Higher education providers recognise the needs of the hospitality industry but have to balance these against the needs of the student. For these reasons traditionally hospitality management academic staff have tended to have a blend of practical experience and academic qualifications and have had the task of addressing the graduate employee requirements of employers and the educational standards of universities. These coupled with the pressures to undertake research have created tensions for hospitality management academics between teaching, research and industrial liaison. Nevertheless towards the end of the 1990s hospitality management research was claimed to be in a mature state (Lockwood, 1999). However, only a few years later the quantity and quality of hospitality management research is threatened as universities grapple with funding shortages, pursue the Government's target of getting 50% of young people in higher education, increasingly emphasise non-research income generation and reconfigure their internal structures. In such changing circumstances effective academic research leadership is vital for research goal achievement, especially through the work of research groups, and for influencing others both in and out of universities.

An important question for the study concerned conception of research itself, as this was argued to be important to the nature and direction of research leadership. The literature review concluded that there were differences of opinion over the meaning of research. It was found to be a complicated concept with close linkages to other concepts, such as scholarship and teaching. This conclusion was confirmed by explanations provided by both sets of respondents in the pre-1992 university and the post-1992 university studied in this research. A broad range of conceptions of research were offered by respondents within each university and across them both. However, some general perspectives were identifiable and these were categorised according to how respondents defined research (the definitional approach), how respondents analysed research (the typological approach) or how respondents referred to other concepts to explain research (the relativist approach) (see section 8.2).

The basic argument that developed from the literature review and then further from the primary research was that the leadership of academics in research within a given space, such as in a subject group, should be based upon agreement over the nature and functions of research as it relates to that space (section 3.2). This may require the

acceptance by those who are relevant of a range of conceptions and purposes of research for the effective pursuit of research objectives.

The literature review also showed that various perspectives have been taken in trying to define the leadership concept and as a consequence many theories, theoretical frameworks and models have been proposed. Because of the complexities of leadership it is concluded both from the literature review and the primary research that the use of more than one theoretical perspective and framework to describe and understand a particular situation is beneficial. This argument would seem strong for a situation associated with research which in itself is complicated. The frameworks of leadership theory developed by Pittaway, Carmouche and Chell (1993) and Mullins (1999) appeared particularly useful to this research for the reasons given in section 4.4. Finally, the literature review refers to models of leadership but these are criticised by Simkins (2004) for not offering a systematic way of relating theories to one another, of identifying key themes and then relating them to one another. Instead he offers dual views (traditional and alternate) of leadership which he claims provide a different way of thinking about leadership. Simkins (2004) approach was deemed beneficial, along with the relevant primary research findings, towards the conceptualisation and theorising of research leadership.

The second research objective focussed upon conceptualising and theorising leadership for university research. The literature review showed that there are various definitions and theories of leadership. Leadership has been described as a process involving an individual, *i.e.* a leader, who influences the activities of others within a group toward goal attainment. Much of the research upon leadership and many of the theories of leadership focus on the leader to gain understanding. In most instances this leader is associated with being the formal appointed leader.

The case studies of hospitality management research leadership reinforce some of the previous and more general thinking about leadership. Firstly, 'group' and 'influence' are as relevant to hospitality management research leadership as in the analysis of leadership undertaken by Shackleton (1995) and others. Both the case study universities had formal research groups (centres) while the existence of informal groups was emphasised at the post-1992 university. Research leadership at both universities was viewed in terms of influencing the behaviour of academics in research. Goals, another key feature of previous work on leadership in Kakabadse and Kakabadse (1999), were

implied at the pre-1992 university investigated but less noticeably at the post-1992 university. Two other key elements of research leadership commonly emphasised were research strategy and the need for an appropriate environment for research to flourish. Given the pronounced and widespread changes currently affecting and occurring in higher education the clear conceptualisation of leadership for research and the recognition of specific foci for research leadership will become increasingly important. Such actions will contribute to more effective research leadership, which has recently been described as 'the most difficult task to undertake in the structure of university-based research' (Bushaway, 2003 p.146).

The research also offers some different perspectives on the leadership of academic research in universities. Research leadership was context based and lay particularly in the expectations and requirements of others rather than solely through the actions of formal leaders. This seemed to be because academics needed advise, support and help in changing educational settings and also because formal leaders were largely preoccupied with the pursuit of their own research and with leading their subject rather than with the leadership of their colleagues. This leadership emphasis on the expectations and needs of others contrasts with much of the previous theory on leadership which tends to focus on leaders rather than those who may be led. It implies that concepts of academic research leadership require specific reference to those who require leadership in research. Formal leaders were mentioned by respondents in the case study institutions and, as with previous theory, this research emphasised the attributes and the role of formal leaders. The contribution of formal leaders to future university-based subject research appears essential.

From the research findings while there were formal leaders in post the formal leadership of academics in research was limited and a number of individual academics were self-motivated or motivated by reward rather than leadership *per se*. Furthermore some formal leadership appeared accidental *i.e.* formal leaders were role models, but not intentionally so, and responsive, *i.e.* provided some leadership to others on demand. Little was proactive. At both universities therefore a paradox appeared to exist as the formal leaders exhibited limited and unintentional leadership of people and some responsive leadership.

At both universities, formal officially appointed leaders (normally professors) of hospitality management research existed who others perceived as role models. This was



accepted by academics at the pre-1992 university but not by many at the post-1992 university. These leaders led their subject rather than other academics. They were 'traditional research leaders' in that they had become leaders through their own research and scholarship activity and not through directly leading colleagues. They were recognised by their colleagues as experts in their field and their leadership emphasis was leading and advancing their subject rather than overtly and directly leading others.

To counteract this paradoxical situation other approaches were adopted in both universities. Informal research leaders were quite commonplace in both the pre- and post-1992 universities. An informal research leader was someone who another academic recognised as their leader in research, or who influenced another academic in research, who was not the formally appointed research leader. Self-leaders in research also existed in the pre-1992 university and amongst the researcher activists of the post-1992 university. These self-leaders had visions and values which were consistent with those of their colleagues and they adopted approaches for leading themselves in research which aimed at higher performance. An explanation for the existence of self-leaders is their experience and subject expertise which make it difficult for anyone else to challenge them. The conclusion drawn from this research is that academics accept the existence of formal, informal and self-leadership of research and some respondents specifically stated they wanted informal leadership to merge with formal leadership. The over concentration upon formal research leadership would therefore be short-sighted and restrictive and an approach which combines formal and informal leadership and which also recognises and, indeed, promotes self-leadership in individual projects is advocated.

In the post-1992 university two main groups of staff were identified related to hospitality management research; the researcher activists, in what was commonly called Camp A, and the non-researchers in Camp B. Between these two groups and with specific regard to research there was what was called 'the wall'. The division of staff either side of the wall caused friction and tensions between staff and resembles Graen's (1976) thinking about the in-group and the out-group in which the relationship between the formal leader and each group is different thus affecting the nature of the work in which each group is involved. The existence of such groups may be inevitable in the future in some universities as more and more specialisation in teaching and learning, course management, research or other activities occurs. However in the interests of harmony and better performance an awareness and understanding amongst all

academics about the role and activities of each group and the contribution of each group to the whole in such situations would seem paramount. Furthermore the opportunity for transferability of individuals between groups would seem important.

At the pre-1992 university there was homogeneity in the qualifications of staff with most staff having PhDs or pursuing them. There was no noticeable existence of a division between staff, *i.e.* no real evidence of teachers and researchers, and most staff seemed to get along with and be more supportive of one another in their research endeavours.

It was argued in the literature review that the complexities of leadership are such that no one theoretical perspective or framework will adequately and completely enable an understanding of a particular situation. However certain ideas and theories would seem pertinent to the leadership of research in universities. These are leadership as a relationship between leaders and others, including academics, and the disciplinary subject, leadership as being functionalist and leadership as being situational. These theories were evident in practice related to research leadership from the primary research where respondents offered various explanations of research leadership. The use of the term 'followers' was not generally supported in the case studies; one senior respondent summed up the views of many saying that 'followers' was a patronising term to use related to academics. Research leaders played a key role in people's notions of research leadership at both the case study universities. But as stated above the association of research leadership with only formal leaders was not found. Moreover research leadership went beyond identified leaders and comprised of other commonly cited elements. The relevance of groups, influence and research purpose have already been mentioned in this section. Hospitality management research leadership was influenced by the nature of the formal leaders and also by the different contexts, cultures and staffing complements. This research challenges the idea that research leadership resides with one individual person and suggests that leadership is influenced by organisational members.

From this study research leadership in universities can be theorised as:

- **Being concerned with leading people.**
- **Being concerned with leading the subject.**
- **Being concerned with processes involving groups, influence, goals, strategy and environment.**
- **Involving formal, informal and self leaders.**

- Being best explained through informal leaders and self leaders when people leadership is being considered.
- Being best explained through formal leaders when subject leadership is being considered.
- Being more of an issue for others (academic colleagues) than formally appointed research leaders.
- Consisting of many research leadership relationships.

The third research objective in this study was to investigate leadership in hospitality management research at the subject group level and to explore the leadership activities of recognised research leaders. The leadership activities of the recognised or formal officially appointed research leaders were different to those expected by the researcher. These leaders were 'traditional research leaders' in that they had become leaders through their own research and scholarship activity and not through directly leading colleagues. The formal leaders were research professors involved with hospitality management research. They were generally viewed as figure heads who pursued their own research and objectives. They were recognised by their colleagues as experts in their field and their leadership emphasis was leading and advancing their subject rather than overtly and directly leading others. They resembled what Bushaway (2003) calls 'champions of research'. Leading their subject included undertaking research and then publicising it through writing and/or through conference presentations. These writings in turn may influence others by shaping their opinions or beliefs. Hence indirectly it could be argued that they may be leading people.

Describing and understanding research leaders and leadership of hospitality management academics is about people (leaders and individuals), relationships, the situation (context) but also about the subject. Structure appears less relevant as evidenced by the lack of job descriptions and formal expectations of research leaders and by lack of authority and clear lines of responsibility.

Hospitality management research leaders seem to have to be people leaders (provide encouragement/support *etc.*), be researchers/publishers in their own right (*i.e.* subject leaders based on their own research), as well as increasingly be fund raisers (business development and contract getters) and also be figure heads. Evidence shows that they are also teachers. They are also frequently external examiners and involved in other external activities. Research leaders then have to be able to function effectively both internally and externally. Therefore to expect only one individual in an institution for a

subject, like hospitality management, to be a research leader is arguably unrealistic. Thus a leadership model which extends beyond one leader would seem desirable.

The fourth objective of the study was to evaluate perceived factors which influence research leadership. Hospitality management research leadership was heavily influenced by the nature of the formal leaders and also by the different contexts, cultures and staffing complements. Many respondents in this research were convinced that context was important to the conduct of research and to research leadership. They also pointed to the complexity of the concept of context because of the range of factors it incorporates (see section 6.6.6 and 7.6.6). However the key elements incorporated within the term 'context' could be summed up as firstly, the type and orientation of the institution and secondly, the influence of the subject of hospitality management.

It has been claimed that 'any analysis of leadership requires .... an examination of the culture and context of an organisation' (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999). According to the primary research findings context and culture do affect hospitality management research and research leadership at both the researched universities. The changing contexts of universities have brought many challenges to universities and have put the spotlight on leadership in universities as leadership is involved with change (Kotter, 1990 and Middlehurst, 1993). The future pursuit and funding of research are key issues confronting UK universities and are central to much discussion. The traditional belief of many has been that university academics are employed to research as well as teach (King, 2004). However, there are tensions arising from increasing student numbers and other demands. The hospitality management area of study has not escaped such tensions and just as hospitality management research is maturing the pressures to reverse this are growing. Effective research leadership in such circumstances appears crucial to move research forward in a significant manner. Leadership may help combat any threats arising from arguments over the contested space which research occupies and facilitate the generation of research income or the defence of non-income generating research. It can be theorised that the dynamic nature of a given university context also requires that leadership approaches may require adjustments as context alters.

From the research there appeared to be a more advanced organisation and/leadership of hospitality management research in the old university than the new university. The reason for this could be partly explained by the fact that the old university had a longer history of hospitality research. The key similarities and differences with respect to

research of the two universities and with respect to the research leaders were summarised in Figures 8.1 and 8.2 in the previous chapter. There were differences in the contexts of the two universities. The pre-1992 university was research led, academics were generally research and publication oriented and had or were pursuing PhDs. This university had more formal hospitality management research leaders than did the post-1992 university. In both universities these formal research leaders were all professors. Postgraduate students were considered more like budding researchers at the pre-1992 university. In contrast the post-1992 university was teaching led. Here research was important but not the number one priority. Staff were often below PhD qualified and students were not seen as budding researchers.

From this study research leadership in universities can be theorised as:

- **Varying according to university context *i.e.* whether pre- or post-1992 university.**
- **Needing to vary according to the nature of the staffing complement.**
- **Needing to be dynamic as context alters.**

The final objective of the study was to field test the relevance of research leadership to the conduct of research. From the evidence in this research leadership was important to hospitality management research in both the pre-and post-1992 universities.

As the following quotations demonstrate from respondents at the research-led university the relevance of research leadership to the achievement of research goals was perceived important in both strategic and in personal terms.

'... We operate in a world with limited resources, and we operate in a world which is competitive. And with that in mind, universities can only operate by having some strategic intent of where they want to take their research, and that strategic intent therefore, has to be supported by some kind of leadership and direction, and that strategic intent cannot be so tight that it actually stifles initiatives or prevents people going forward. If we spun off in all directions in the huge field of tourism and hospitality and (related subjects), we would probably make very little impact on the research world, and for that reason we do have a fairly broad strategy of the direction that we want to go in research terms. If we as a team had people who were simply only doing their own thing, we would have less impact on the world of research, and would be less effective in meeting the research agenda of this university.'

'It (research) does need somebody to lead it because for people who haven't done any before, or very little, you need some guidance, and a leader would give you that guidance.'

So there was evidence that research leadership was needed and in both universities it was thought that research could be led. As a consequence of this study it is believed that research leadership is important to the achievement of research goals in other universities

Finally, from the above there are similarities between research leadership and other views of leadership forms but there are important differences. The following view of research leadership, shown in Figure 9.1, emerges from this research:

**Figure 9.1 The view of research leadership**

<b>The view of research leadership</b>
Leadership is both formal and informal and varies according to social systems
Leadership is dispersed
Self-leadership is a feature of academic researchers
Leadership is complex and consists of many relationship patterns
Leadership is concerned with the leadership of people and the leadership of the subject
Leadership is different from management but there are overlaps
Each leader possesses different characteristics and offers different services
Leadership is important to the undertaking of research
The context of leadership is complicated but is crucial

In conclusion this research is not about empirical generalisations but is about repositioning collected data in relation to theory. This research achieves this and is believed to make a valuable contribution to a recent and important emergent area of study. It also makes an original knowledge claim relating to the nature of research leadership in university contexts. It is anticipated that it will enable the practice of research leaders, particularly those in hospitality management, to be enhanced and our understanding of research leadership to be improved.

### **9.3 Implications for professional practice**

This research has a number of implications for practice. These can be divided into implications for universities in general, implications for particular types of university and implications for those with executive responsibilities for subject-based research in universities.

It was argued in Part I that leadership is important for the advancement of research in universities. Evidence from the case studies supports this argument. Respondents from both the studied universities stated that research leadership was needed and that research could be led. The implication for universities from this is that they can enable the achievement of research outputs and objectives through the recognition of the need for, and promotion of, research leadership and also through the realisation that academics believe that it is feasible to lead research.

While a number of tenets in the general leadership theory appear to hold true for research leadership in universities findings from the case studies show that there are some specific and important differences when conceiving and theorising research leadership. These differences are detailed in section 9.2. The recommendation here is that those interested in research leadership in universities should reflect upon these differences. The fact that there are differences indicates that professional practice related to research leadership which is based on general views of leadership may be inappropriate and may require change.

This research may encourage other academics and research leaders to reflect upon their own university research leadership context. Differences were found regarding the leadership of research between the pre-1992 and the post-1992 universities studied here primarily for the reasons given in section 9.2. Thus the implication is that others in similar types of university may exhibit similar research leadership characteristics to the equivalent type studied here and would probably gain from reading and drawing upon the relevant findings herein.

For those with executive responsibilities for subject-based research in universities there are a number of implications for practice. The starting point for controlled and effective research within a given space, like a faculty, division or academic subject group within a university, would seem to be a clear, unambiguous and consistent understanding of what research means to those academics and others occupying that space even if it means the acceptance of a range of conceptions. Furthermore agreement between people in a given space about the reasons for undertaking research is important. Without this understanding and such agreement conflicts may occur, people may work at cross purposes, other dysfunctional consequences may arise and effective research leadership may be hampered. It is recommended, therefore, that discussions take place between

people in given spaces about the nature and purpose of research as it relates to that space.

University research is changing and is moving away from the individual pursuit of discovery and creation towards research which is more greatly concerned with the users of research and the utility of research (Adams, 2000). Research has been claimed to be shifting from a curiosity-driven to an interdisciplinary and problem-driven focus (Gibbons *et al.*, 1994). Some of the consequences of these shifts have been the need for more investment in research training, teamwork, management, facilities and the like and a greater emphasis upon research funding and income generation. As the potential rewards from research have been recognised other research organisations have entered the fray. This research indicates that the need for overt and clear research strategies in universities, and the need for a clear view of the nature and role of research leadership, is paramount. The existence and operationalisation of a university, and where appropriate a Faculty or School, research strategy can have a key influence upon subject-based research leaders and the way they lead.

A further implication of this research for those with executive responsibilities for subject based research in universities is that they should recognise and accept that different forms of research leadership are likely to exist and can be desirable. The case studies indicated that formally appointed research leaders were appropriate for leading the subject of hospitality management. This may be the situation in other universities, and for the leadership of research in other subjects, but it should not be assumed to always be the case. The failings of formal research leadership in the university case studies for directly leading academics have implications. One implication is that a planned approach to the leadership of academics in research requires that the role and practices of formal research leaders be given attention. This attention might include the development of clearly defined job descriptions for formal research leaders and then the appointment of suitable people to fulfil the requirements of the defined jobs. Another suggestion is the design of specific research leadership development programmes. An example of one of these is the new joint initiative of the Association of Business Schools and the British Academy of Management for Directors of Research scheduled for 2004 and 2005 (see <http://www.the-abs.org.uk/training.html>).

The research showed that informal leadership serves an important role in universities with regard to leading academics in research. This may be due to the failings of formal



research leadership in this regard. Even if the formal leadership of academics in research is satisfactory the informal leadership of academics is considered valuable and warrants recognition and support.

Another significant finding from this research was the existence of self-leaders in research. Self-leadership can be an effective way to operate in a team or in collective based circumstances where there is a common vision and common values. The recognition and promotion of self-leadership in such circumstances and for certain individual projects is advocated.

It is important to understand the relationships between research leaders, others, including academics, and their subject. It is also important to appreciate that from this study these relationships are perceived differently by different people associated with the same subject. This is relevant from the perspective of understanding that lines of communication, responsibility, motivation, support *etc.* do not solely exist between formal leaders and other academics.

For those seeking to promote research at subject group level, whether they be leaders or not, a number of transformational and transactional approaches are discussed and identified in chapters 4, 6 and 7 and may be of assistance for those reflecting upon how to lead research in addition. Similarly many insights are provided in this research related to the characteristics of effective research leaders. Effective research leaders were perceived to require a blend of subject expertise, technical skills, particular personal attributes and management competencies.

#### **9.4 Reflections upon the primary research design and the methods employed**

As a result of carrying out the primary research there were a number of reflections about the research design and methods. Many of these were first highlighted in Ball and Horner (2003). Firstly, there was almost total acceptance by the interview respondents (only one person declined to participate) that researching university academic leadership was legitimate and worthwhile. Furthermore the willingness with which academics involved with research are prepared to participate in research themselves was noticeable. Many respondents believed that the 'research wheel' may turn full circle and that while in this study I was the researcher and they were the researched, in the future these roles may be reversed. Another observation was how academics make good subjects for qualitative research. It was found that they like to talk about

themselves, talk into tape recording machines and freely give their views and opinions. Moreover it was often difficult to close the interview. The consequence of this was that transcripts were long and detailed. It was also noticed that there was an automatic acceptance that ethical practices would be pursued by the researcher. Ethical statements made by the researcher were generally dismissed as unnecessary and all the academic participants were very trusting of another academic interviewing them.

Some pointers for other researchers undertaking similar work emerged. The researcher needed to be aware of the dynamics even during the data collection process *e.g.* one potential respondent transferred in difficult circumstances to another university during the period when the researcher was conducting the interviews. Also, arranging lengthy interviews with academics is a difficult and time consuming business given their busy working lives. Another important observation was that the confidentiality of individuals/institutions was important to many respondents and must be respected. Respondents often referred to others by name during interviews when discussing leadership. These names had to be adjusted in the writing up. Consideration also needs to be given to the amount of prior information respondents are given in this type of research. Too much warning might lead to pre-prepared and, perhaps, to politically correct or academically researched answers. A further point was that there is a need, even with academics, to avoid conceptual jargon associated with particular research topics. It should not be assumed that because the respondents are academics that they will understand the terminology related to the topic being investigated or to terms used frequently in the university context *e.g.* RAE. Collecting data from academic respondents who are known to the researcher may improve access and response rates but there are issues for the researcher. These include not making assumptions about one's knowledge of the respondent; or assuming that the respondent will talk any more freely and openly than a respondent who is unknown. Finally, Ethnograph v5.0 was found to be a potentially useful tool for analysing qualitative data. However, even though the researcher collected more than 200,000 words from the 20 interviews, with hindsight the decision to use this software may not have been taken for this number of transcripts and words given the large amount of time needed to learn how to manipulate and then use what was for the researcher a new package.

## **9.5 Recommendations for further research**

This research commenced by stating that research on research was lacking and that that on research leadership is limited. This is despite the importance of research leadership

presented in the literature review and supported in the primary research in this study. This dissertation is one step forward toward changing this situation. In the process of completing this dissertation several issues and areas have emerged which would benefit from further research. These include:

1. A replication of this research in other subject areas to determine whether similar findings exist.
2. An investigation of hospitality management research leadership in other countries to pursue whether context has an international dimension and, if so, whether and how this affects research leadership.
3. A study of the efficacy of research leadership upon research performance in universities.
4. Research into other issues related to research leadership *e.g.* rewards and remuneration, incentives, external (industry) perceptions, institutional pressures, and students attitudes.
5. Comparative research into the roles and expectations of subject research leaders and other middle management academic leaders.
6. A study into the gender and ethnic dynamics of the leadership of research. This research did not seek to explore whether there were any gender or ethnic issues associated with research leadership even though it was recognised that these may be important. The actual gender and ethnicity of respondents in this study were disguised.

## REFERENCES

- Adams, J. (2000) The Future of Research. In Scott, P. (ed.) (2000) *Higher Education Reformed*, London: Falmer Press.
- Airey, D. and Tribe, J. (2000) Education for Hospitality. In Lashley, C. and Morrison, A. (eds) *In Search of Hospitality: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates*, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Allen, M. (1988) *The Goals of Universities*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press, 10-11.
- Argyris, C. (1979) How normal science methodology makes leadership research less additive and less applicable. In Hunt, J. G. and Larson, L. (eds) *Crosscurrents in Leadership*, Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Armstrong, P. and Dawson, C. (1996) *People in Organisations*, Huntingdon: ELM Publications.
- Ball, C. (1992) Teaching and Research. In Whiston, T. G. and Geiger, R. L. (eds) *Research and Higher Education*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Ball, S. (1995) Enriching student learning through innovative real-life exercises. *Education and Training*, 37, 4, 18-25.
- Ball, S. (2001) The Leadership of University Hospitality Management Research, *Proceedings of the Tenth Annual CHME Hospitality Research Conference* held at South Bank University, April, South Bank University, London.
- Ball, S. D. (2002) Leading University Academics in Hospitality Management Research, in Vukonić, B. and Čavlek, N. (eds) *Rethinking of Education and Training for Tourism*, Graduate School of Economics and Business, University of Zagreb, 23-44.
- Ball, S. (2004) The research and teaching connection in hospitality management education. In *LINK (Learning through Innovations, Networks and Knowledge) Newsletter*, Issue 9, February.
- Ball, S. and Horner, S. (2003) Researching academic leadership in universities: Two doctoral studies with relevance to hospitality management education, *Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual CHME Hospitality Research Conference* held in Sheffield, April, Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield.
- Bannister, D., Burman, E., Parker, I., Taylor, M. and Tindall, C. (1994) *Qualitative Methods in Psychology: A Research Guide*, London: British Psychological Society.
- Bareham, J. (2001) Academic leadership or keeping the lid on things? Paper presented at the *Fourth Annual CHME Teaching, Learning and Assessment Conference* held at Sheffield Hallam University, November 2001.
- Barnett, R. (1990) *The Idea of Higher Education*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Barnett, R. (2000) Reconfiguring the university. In Scott, P. (ed.) *Higher Education Reformed*, chapter 7, London: Falmer Press.

- Bass, B. M. (1985) Leadership: Good, better, best. *Organizational Dynamics*, Winter, 26-40.
- Bass, B. M. (1990) *Bass and Stodgill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research and Managerial Applications*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B. J. (1994) *Improving Organizational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership*, Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Bassey, M. (1999) *Case Study Research in Educational Settings*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Beare, H., Caldwell, B. J. and Millikan, R. H. (1997) Dimensions of leadership. In Crawford, M., Kydd, L. and Riches, C. (eds) *Leadership and Teams in Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University Press, 24.
- Becher, T. (1989) *Academic Tribes and Territories: Intellectual Enquiry and the Cultures of Disciplines*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Bell, C. (1977) Reflections on the Banbury restudy. In Bell, C. and Newby, H. (eds) *Doing Sociological Research*, London: Allen & Unwin, 47-66.
- Bell, J. and Harrison, T. (1998) *Leading People: Learning from People*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Bennett, R. (1997) *Organisational Behaviour*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, London: Financial Times Pitman Publishing.
- Bennett, N., Crawford, M., and Cartwright, M. (2003) *Effective Educational Leadership*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Bennis, W. and Nanus, B. (1985) *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge*, New York: Harper Row.
- Blake, R. R., Shepard, H. A. and Mouton, J. S. (1964) *Managing intergroup conflict in industry*, Houston TX: Gulf Publishing Co.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986) The forms of capital. In Richardson, J. G. (ed.) *Handbook of Theory and Research for the Sociology of Education*, New York: Greenwood Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1988) *Homo Academicus*, Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Boyer, E. (1990) *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities for the Professoriate*, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Princeton, NJ, University of Princeton.
- Breen, R. and Lindsay, R. (1999) Academic Research and Student Motivation. *Studies in Higher Education* 24, 1, 75-93.
- Brennan, J. (1999) What kind of university? In Brennan, J., Fedrowitz, J., Huber, M. and Shah, T. (eds) *What Kind of Univeristy? International Perspectives on Knowledge, Participation and Governance*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Brew, A. (1999) Research and Teaching; changing relationships in a changing context. *Studies in Higher Education* 24, 3, 291-301.

- Brew, A. (2001a) *The Nature of Research: Inquiry in Academic Contexts*, London: Routledge.
- Brew, A. (2001b) Conceptions of research: a phenomenographic study. *Studies in Higher Education*, 26, 3, 271-285.
- Brotherton, B. (ed.) (1999a) *The Handbook of Contemporary Hospitality Management Research*, Chichester: Wiley.
- Brotherton, B. (1999b) Towards a Definitive View of the Nature of Hospitality and Hospitality Management. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11, 4, 165-173.
- Brotherton, B. and Wood, R. (1999) Hospitality and Hospitality Management. In: *In Search of Hospitality: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates*, Lashley, C. and Morrison, A. (eds), Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Brown, R. (2002) Research and teaching – repairing the damage. *Exchange*, Issue 3, Autumn, 29-30.
- Bryman, A. (1988) *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*, London: Unwin Hyman.
- Bryman, A. (1992) *Charisma and Leadership in Organizations*, London: Sage.
- Burns, J. M. (1978) *Leadership*, New York: Harper and Row.
- Bush, T. and Coleman, M. (2000) *Leadership and Strategic Management in Education*, London: Sage.
- Bush, T. (1997) Collegial models, in Harris, A., Bennett, N. and Preedy, M. (eds) *Organizational Effectiveness and Improvement in Education*, Buckingham: Open University Press, 68-79.
- Bush, T. and Glover, D. (2003) *School Leadership: concepts and evidence*, London: National College for School Leadership.
- Bush, T. and Middlewood, D. (1997) *Managing People in Education*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Bushaway, R.W. (2003) *Managing Research*, Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Cameron, K. and Tschirhart, M. (1992) Postindustrial environments and organizational effectiveness in colleges and universities. *Journal of Higher Education*, 63, 1, 87-108.
- Clare, J. (2003) Universities need not do research, *Daily Telegraph*, 4 June, 1.
- Clare, J. (2003a) Who really is top of the league, *The Daily Telegraph* June 25, 17.
- Clarke, J. and Newman, J. (1997) *The Managerial State: power, politics and ideology in the remaking of social welfare*, London: Sage.
- Coffey, A. and Atkinson, P. (1996) *Making Sense of Qualitative Data*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2000) *Research Methods in Education*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, London: Routledge-Falmer.

- Coleman, M. and Briggs, A. R. J. (2002) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Conrad, L. (1998) Enhancing research through academic staff development. *The International Journal for Academic Development*, 3, 2, 114-123.
- Crystal, D. (ed.) (2003) *The New Penguin Encyclopaedia*, London: Penguin Books.
- Damordarana, L. and Wilson, A. (1995) *Developing a Research Centre Training Strategy*, Loughborough: ESRC and the Association of Directors of Research Centres in the Social Sciences.
- D'Andrea, V. and Gosling, D. (2002) University education. In Gearon, L. (ed.) *Education in the United Kingdom*, London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Davis, C. (2003) Is research cull on cards? *The Times Higher* 17 January, 9.
- Decrop, A. (1999) Triangulation in qualitative tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 20, 157-161.
- Delamont, S. and Atkinson, P. (1995) *Fighting Familiarity*, Cresskill, NJ: Hampton.
- Delamont, S., Atkinson, P. and Parry, O. (2000) *The Doctoral Experience. Success and Failure in Graduate School*, London: Falmer Press.
- Deem, R. (2003) Gender, organisational cultures and the practices of manager-academics in UK universities, *Gender, Work and Organisation*, 10, 2, 239-259.
- Deem, R., Fulton, O., Hillyard, S., Johnson, M., Reed, M. and Watson, S. (2001) *New Managerialism and the Management of UK universities*, Full report of Research Results, ESRC funded project 1998-2000 (Grant no R00023 7761).
- Denzin, N. K. (1978) *The Research Act*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Dey, I. (1993) *Qualitative Data Analysis*, London: Routledge.
- Dill, D. and Sporn, B. (eds) (1995) *Emerging Patterns of Social Demand and University Reform: Through a Glass Darkly*, Oxford: IAU Press/Elsevier.
- Dopson, S. and McNay, I. (1996) What is a University? In Warner, D. and Palfreyman, D. (eds) *Higher Education Management - The Key Elements*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. and Lowe, A. (1991) *Management Research; an Introduction*, London: Sage.
- Fidler, B. (1997) School Leadership: some key ideas. *School Leadership & Management*, 17, 1, 23-37.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1967) *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fiedler, F.E. and Garcia, J.E. (1987) *New Approaches to Effective Leadership, Cognitive Resources and Organizational Performance*, Chichester: Wiley.
- Fox, M. F. (1992) Research productivity and environmental context. In Whiston, T. G. and Geiger, R. L. (eds) *Research and Higher Education*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

- Fuller, J. (1983) Hotel Management Education, in Cassee, E. And Reuland, R. (eds) *The Management of Hospitality*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Gardner, J. W. (1990) *On Leadership*, New York: Free Press.
- Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowotny, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P. and Trow, M. (1994) *The New Production of Knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societies*, London: Sage.
- Gibbs, G. (2002) Institutional strategies for linking teaching and research. *Exchange*, Issue 3, Autumn, 8-11.
- Glaser, B. G. and Strauss, A. L. (1967) *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*, Chicago: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Glatter, R. (1997) Context and capability in educational management, *Educational Management and Administration*, 25, 2, 181-92.
- Goddard, A. (2002) Selective funding attacked by UUK, *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, February 1, No.1523.
- Graen, G. (1976) Role-making processes within complex organisations. In Dunnette, M. D. (ed.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Green, M. (ed.) (1988) *Leaders for a New Era: Strategies for Higher Education*, New York: Macmillan.
- Grint, K. (1999) *The Arts of Leadership*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gronn, P. (1999) *The Making of Educational Leaders*, London: Cassell.
- Gunter, H. M. (2001) *Leaders and Leadership in Education*, London: Paul Chapman.
- Hakim, C. (1987) *Research Design*, London: Allen and Unwin.
- Hammersley, M., and Atkinson, P. (1983) *Ethnography: Principles in Practice*, London: Tavistock.
- Hampton, A. (1999) Qualitative Data Analysis and Interpretation. In Brotherton, B. (ed.) *The Handbook of Contemporary Hospitality Management Research*, Chichester: John Wiley & Son, 287-303.
- Harris, I. (1995) Research-related staff development. In Smith, B. and Brown, S. (1995) *Research, Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, chapter 11, London: Kogan Page.
- Hattie, J. and Marsh, H. W. (1996) The relationship between research and teaching: a meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 4, 507-542.
- Henkel, M. (2000) *Academic Identities and Policy Change in Higher Education*, Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.
- Higher Education Funding Council for England (1998) *Review of Hospitality Management Education*, April 98/15, Bristol: HEFCE.
- Holloway, I. and Wheeler, S. (1996) *Qualitative Research for Nurses*, Oxford: Blackwell Science.



- Holt, G., Boyd, S., Dickinson, B., Loose, J. and O'Donnell, S. (1999) *Education in England, Wales and Northern Ireland: A Guide to the System*, Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research.
- Horner, M. (2003) Leadership theory reviewed. In Bennett, N., Crawford, M., and Cartwright, M. (2003) *Effective Educational Leadership*, chapter 3, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Hussey, J. and Hussey, R. (1997) *Business Research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*, London: Macmillan Business.
- Jary, D. and Parker, M., (1998), *New Higher Education*, Staffordshire: University Press.
- Jha, A. (2002) Out on their own. *Guardian Education*, 11 June, 9.
- Johns, N. and Lee-Ross, D. (1998) *Research Methods in Service Industry Management*, London: Cassell.
- Johnston, R. J. (1996) Managing how academics manage. In Cuthbert, R. (ed.) *Working in Higher Education*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press, 101-118.
- Jordan, F. (2003) *A Case Study of the Teaching/Research/Consultancy Nexus from the Student Perspective*, LTSN Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism, June.
- Kakabadse, A. and Kakabadse, N. (1999) *Essence of Leadership*, London: International Thomson Business Press.
- Kelly, J. R. (1980) Leisure and quality: beyond the quantitative barrier in research. In Goodale, T. L. and Witt, P. A. (eds) *Recreation and Leisure: Issues in and Era of Change*, Venture: State College Pennsylvania, 300-314.
- King, A. (2004) More and more undergraduates are being taught less and less. *The Daily Telegraph*, 13 January, 20.
- Kippenberger, T. (2002) *Leadership Express*, Oxford: Capstone Publishing.
- Kirkpatrick, S. A. and Locke, E. A. (1991) Leadership: do traits matter? *The Executive*, 5, 2, 48-60.
- Knight, P. T. and Trowler, P. R. (2001) *Departmental Leadership in Higher Education*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Kotter, J. P. (1990) *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management*, New York: Free Press.
- Kumar, R. (1999) *Research Methodology*, London: Sage.
- Kvale, S. (1996), *Interviews. An introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*, London: Sage.
- Lee, T. W. (1999) *Using Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research*. London: Sage.
- Leithwood, K. A. (1992) The move towards transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership*, February, 68-72.
- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Linton, R. (1936) *The Study of Man*, New York: Appleton-Century.
- Lipham, J. (1968) Leadership and administration. In Griffiths, E .E. (ed.) *Behavioral Science and Educational Administration*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Litteljohn, D., (1990) Hospitality research: philosophies and progress. In Teare, R., Moutinho, L. and Morgan, N. (eds) *Managing and Marketing Services in the 1990's*, London: Cassell.
- Litteljohn, D. and Morrison, J. (1997) *Hospitality Management Education Report*, Council for Hospitality Management Education.
- Lucas, L. (2001) The research game in academic life. *Paper given to BERA Higher Education Special Interest Group* 15<sup>th</sup> January 2001, University College, London.
- MacGilchrist, B., Myers, K. and Reed, J. (1997) *The Intelligent School*, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Manz, C. C. and Sims, H. P. Jr. (1989) *Superleadership*, New York: Prentice Hall Press.
- Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. (1999) *Designing Qualitative Research*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Mason, J. (1996) *Qualitative Researching*, London: Sage.
- McFee, G. (1992) Triangulation in research: two confusions. *Educational Research*, 34, 3, 215-219.
- McNay, I. (1995) From the collegial academy to the corporate enterprise: The changing cultures of universities. In Schuller, T. (ed.) *The Changing University?* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- McNay, I. (1997) *The Impact of the 1992 Research Assessment Exercise on Individual and Institutional Behaviour in English Higher Education*. Summary, Report and Commentary. Chelmsford: Centre for Higher Education Management, Anglia Polytechnic University.
- Middlehurst, R. and Elton, L. (1992) Leadership and management in Higher Education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 17, 3, 251-264.
- Middlehurst, R. (1993) *Leading Academics*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. (1994) *Qualitative Data Analysis*, London: Sage.
- Milliken, J. P. (1994) *The role of self-leadership in empowered work teams*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, Arizona State University, Tempe.
- Moses, I. (1985) The role of the head of department in the pursuit of excellence. *Higher Education*, 14, 337-354.
- Mullins, L (1999) *Management and Organisational Behaviour*, 5th edition, London: Financial Times Pitman Publishing.
- Neumann, R. (1992) Perceptions of the teaching-research nexus: a framework for analysis. *Higher Education*, 23, 2 159-171.
- Newman, J. (1852) *The Idea of a University*, London: Dent (1965 edition).

- Ogawa, R. T. and Bossert, S. T. (1997) Leadership as an organizational quality. In Crawford, M., Kydd, L. and Riches, C. (1997) *Leadership and Teams in Educational Management*, Buckingham: Open University, 9-23.
- Oliver, P. (1997) *Teach Yourself Research for Business Marketing and Education*, London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Pittaway, L., Carmouche, R. and Chell, E. (1998) The way forward: Leadership research in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 17, 407-426.
- Pritchard, C. (2000) *Making Managers in Universities and Colleges*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Punch, M. (1998) Politics and Ethics in Qualitative Research. In Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (eds) *The Landscape of Qualitative Research*, London: Sage.
- Ramsden, P. (1998) *Learning to Lead in Higher Education*, London: Routledge.
- Ramsden, P. and Moses, I. (1992) Associations between research and teaching in Australian higher education. *Higher Education*, 23, 273-295.
- Remenyi, D., Williams, B., Money, A. and Swartz, E. (1998) *Doing Research in Business and Management: an Introduction to Process and Method*, London: Sage.
- Ribbins, P. (1997) *Leaders and Leadership in the School, College and University*, London: Cassell.
- Ritchie, J. (2003) The applications of qualitative methods to social research. In Ritchie, J. and Lewis, J. (eds) *Qualitative Research Practice – A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*, London: Sage.
- Ritchie, J. and Lewis, J. (eds) (2003) *Qualitative Research Practice – A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*, London: Sage.
- Robson, C. (2002) *Real World Research*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Rossmann, G. B. and Wilson, B. L. (1985) Numbers and words: Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single large-scale evaluation study. *Evaluation Review*, 9, 627-643.
- Sandiford, P. and Seymour, D. (2000) The Early Stages of Qualitative Data Analysis. *Proceedings of Ninth Annual CHME Hospitality Research Conference*, University of Huddersfield, 26-27 April, 33-42.
- Sanyal, B. S. (1995) *Innovations in University Management*, Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2003) *Research Methods for Business Students*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Schon, D. A. (1984) Leadership as reflection-in-action. In Sergiovanni, T. and Corbally, J. (eds) *Leadership and Organizational Culture*, Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Scott, P. (2001) Conclusion: Triumph or Retreat. In Warner, D. and Palfreyman, D. (eds) *The State of UK Higher Education: Managing Change and Diversity*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

- Seale, C. (1999) *The Quality of Qualitative Research*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Seidel, J. (1998) *The Ethnograph v5.0 – A User's Guide*, London: Scolari Sage.
- Shackleton, V. (1995) *Business Leadership*, London: Routledge.
- Simkins, T. (1999) Values, Power and Instrumentality. *bemas*, 27, 3, 267-281.
- Simkins, T. (2004) *Leadership in Education: 'What works' or what makes sense*. Professorial lecture given at Sheffield Hallam University, 21 June.
- Slowey, M. (ed.) (1995) *Implementing Change from Within Universities and Colleges*, London: Kogan Page.
- Smith, R. (1980) *Development and Management of Research Groups: A Guide for University Researchers*, London: University of Texas Press.
- Spencer, L., Ritchie, J. and O'Connor, W. (2003) Analysis: Practices, Principles and Processes. In Ritchie, J. and Lewis, J. (eds) *Qualitative Research Practice – A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*, London: Sage.
- Stake, R. E. (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*, London: Sage.
- Stake, R. E. (1998) Case Studies. In Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (eds) *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials*, London: Sage.
- Stodgill, R. M. (1950) Leadership, membership and organisation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 47.
- Stoney, C. and Shaw, M. (1994) Introducing innovative teaching/learning and assessment strategies into a modular scheme. *Proceedings of Innovations in Learning and Assessment in Hospitality Management Education Conference*, Leeds Metropolitan University, November.
- Sutherland, S. (1994) The idea of the university? In National Commission on Education and Council for Industry and Higher Education (1994) *Universities in the Twenty-First Century: A Lecture Series*, London: The National Commission on Education.
- Taylor, S. and Edgar, D. (1996) Hospitality research: the emperor's new clothes? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 15, 3, 211-227.
- Taylor, S. and Edgar, D. (1999) Lacuna or lost cause? Some reflections on hospitality management research. In Brotherton, B. (ed.) *The Handbook of Contemporary Hospitality Management Research*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Tesch, R. (1990) *Qualitative Research: Analysis Types and Software Tools*, Lewes: Falmer Press.
- The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (1997) *Higher Education in the Learning Society: Report of the National Committee*, London: HMSO.
- Thomas, R and Harris, V. (2001) Exploring connections between teaching and research in hospitality management. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20, 245-257.
- Ticehurst, G. W. and Veal, A. J. (2000) *Business Research Methods: A Managerial Approach*, Frenchs Forest, NSW, Australia: Pearson Education.

- Trow, M. (1994) *Managerialism and the Academic Profession: Quality and Control*, London: Open University Quality Support Centre.
- Veal, A. J. (1992) *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism*, London: Pitman.
- Verma, G. K. and Mallick, K. (1999) *Researching Education: Perspectives and Techniques*, London: Falmer Press.
- Virginia Tech (1991) Report of the University Task Force on Leadership Development, document no. PDS 81.
- Warner, D. and Palfreyman, D. (eds) (1996) *Higher Education Management - The Key Elements*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Warner, D. and Palfreyman, D. (eds) (2001) *The State of UK Higher Education - Managing Change and Diversity*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Weaver, A. and Atkinson, P. (1994) *Microcomputing and Qualitative Data Analysis*, Aldershot: Avebury.
- Whiston, T. G. (1992) Research and Higher Education: The UK Scene. In Whiston, T. G. and Geiger, R. L. (eds) *Research and Higher Education: The United Kingdom and The United States*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Wood, R. C. (1999) Traditional and alternative research philosophies. In Brotherton, B. (ed.) *The Handbook of Contemporary Hospitality Management Research*, chapter 1, Chichester: Wiley.
- Yin, R.K. (2003) *Case Study Research: design and methods*, 3rd edition, London: Sage.
- Ziman, J. (1992) Research : the next decade. In Finegold, D., Keep, E., Miliband, D., Robertson, D., Sisson, K. and Ziman, J., *Higher Education: Expansion and Reform*, London: Institute for Public Policy Research.

## WEBSITES

- [http://www.hesa.ac.uk/products/adhoc/available/staff\\_middle.htm](http://www.hesa.ac.uk/products/adhoc/available/staff_middle.htm) (accessed 13/08/02).
- [http://www.hero.ac.uk/rae/rae\\_dynamic.cfm?myURL=http://www.niss.ac.uk/education/h](http://www.hero.ac.uk/rae/rae_dynamic.cfm?myURL=http://www.niss.ac.uk/education/h) (accessed 13/08/02).
- <http://www.dres.gov.uk/highereducation/hestrategy.word.hewhitepaper.doc> (accessed 1.03/03).
- <http://www.chme.co.uk/members.html> (accessed 26/06/03).

## **APPENDIX 1**

### **The UK institutional members of the Council for Hospitality Management Education.**

(Source: <http://www.chme.co.uk/members.html> (accessed 26/06/03).)

Barnsley College  
Birmingham College of Food Tourism and Creative Studies  
Blackpool and The Fylde College  
Bournemouth University  
City of Bristol College  
Colchester Institute  
Glasgow College of Food Technology  
Grimsby College  
Guildford College of Further & Higher Education  
Henley College Coventry  
Hereford College  
Highbury College  
Leeds Metropolitan University  
Llandrillo College  
Manchester Metropolitan University  
Napier University Edinburgh  
Newcastle College  
New College Nottingham  
Oxford Brookes University  
Queen Margaret University College, Edinburgh  
Sheffield Hallam University  
South Bank University  
South Devon College  
Thames Valley University  
The Robert Gordon University  
The University of Salford  
University of Abertay Dundee  
University of Brighton  
University of Central Lancashire  
University of Gloucestershire  
University of Huddersfield  
University of North London  
University of Plymouth  
University of Portsmouth  
University of Strathclyde Business School  
University of Surrey  
University of Wales in Cardiff  
Westminster College

## APPENDIX 2

### Letter sent to head of school at the University of Sturridge in July/August 2002

Dear ....

I am really pleased that you are willing to help with my EdD dissertation research entitled 'The Leadership of University Academics in Research - A Case Study of Hospitality Management'.

I would now like to seek your permission to contact the hospitality management academic staff in your School in order to request their participation in my research.

I am basically wanting to approach academic staff in a pre-1992 and a post-1992 UK university. With your approval to use 'Sturridge' (which would remain nameless in my dissertation) as the post-1992 university I now have my two universities. I already have agreement with an 'old' university.

I am wishing to obtain the views of academic staff about the nature and importance of research and research leadership through answers to questionnaire/interview questions. As the focus is upon hospitality management research I would like to concentrate on those academics who are hospitality management researchers, official hospitality management research 'leaders' or 'managers' or, academics who regard themselves as potentially hospitality management researchers. The actual identification of relevant academic staff may be problematic but they could be categorised into:

1. Academic staff who teach students studying for an undergraduate degree in International/Hospitality Management and/or ..... Management and/or the ..... Management Courses and/or a postgraduate diploma/MSc in International Hospitality Management and any other hospitality or joint hospitality + awards. Also staff supervising Hospitality Management related MPhil and PhD students are relevant.
2. Academic staff who research hospitality management but who do not currently teach.
3. Academic staff who have a desire to pursue some aspect of hospitality management research but who currently teach e.g. Tourism subjects.
4. Anyone with a responsibility for managing the nature, quality, quantity and funding of hospitality management research, leading hospitality management research or developing hospitality management research who does not fall into any of the above categories.

I appreciate that some individuals may fall into more than one of these categories and that identifying individuals in the third category could be difficult. Maybe a general message to 'other' academics in the School may be the way forward here!

My intention would be to approach all those who do, or appear to, fall in the above categories and filter out those who I am deem inappropriate to my hospitality management research terms of reference.

On the basis of the above I would be grateful if you could:

Let me know, as far as possible, the number of potential individuals in each of the above categories.

Seek permission from each of these individuals for me to contact them and then forward me the names and contact details of those individuals who have given me their permission to make contact.

Please let me know if it would be helpful if I drafted out a letter of introduction about me and my research for you to circulate to obtain permission.

Let me know when I should try to contact the named individuals.

I am happy to contact the individuals directly once I have this information. I will naturally do this carefully and sensitively. My objective is to obtain a rich picture from my research for each of the two participating universities and therefore eventually I am planning to conduct semi-structured interviews with individuals. The number of interviews will partly be dependent upon the total population of relevant individuals. To begin with though I am planning on collecting some general documentary data. I would also like to include yourself, as Head of School, amongst my interviewees. My thinking at this stage would be to seek an interview with you from the middle of September at the earliest if that is possible.

For information the key research questions I am aiming to answer include:-

**Issue questions:**

1. How is research undertaken by university academics defined?
2. Why, or why not, is research by university academics considered necessary?
3. How do universities and academics view research leadership and its importance in universities?

**Topical information questions:**

4. Of what does university context comprise?
5. How do academic staff conceptualise research leadership?
6. What is expected of research leaders, what do research leaders do and want to do and what are they perceived to be doing?
7. Where is research leadership perceived to reside?
8. In universities what are the roles of research leaders and their responsibilities?  
What examples of effective leadership of research are there in universities?  
What barriers and facilitators are there to the leadership of research?

The British Psychological Society's ethical principles for conducting research with human participants would be adhered to and participants would remain completely anonymous and no records of the questionnaires or interviews would be kept with their names on.

Hope you can follow all this. Please do not hesitate to ask me further about any of the above or contact me should you have any other questions. I would be happy to come over to talk to you and colleagues about my research if it would be helpful.

Look forward to hearing from you in the near future.

Many thanks

Yours sincerely

Stephen Ball  
Reader in Hospitality Management  
School of Sport and Leisure Management  
Sheffield Hallam University



## APPENDIX 3

### **Example letter sent to identified potential respondent at the University of Lethbury in August 2002.**

Dear .....

I understand from your Head of School that you are willing to participate with my EdD research. I am most appreciative of this. Thank you.

My research is concerned with the leadership of university academics in research and is a case study of hospitality research.

As you may be aware I wish to obtain responses from academics to interview questions about the nature and importance of research and research leadership and would like to ask whether you would be willing to be interviewed.

I have attached an introductory sheet about my research and the interviews. This should help to answer any queries you may have at this stage. I would be happy to answer any questions you may have or provide any other details you require.

If you are willing to be interviewed then I would like to arrange a date and time when I can come to your University to interview you. I have attached some possible dates and morning and afternoon slots for this and would be grateful if you could indicate which ones would be most convenient for you. Also against each convenient slot please would you indicate your preferred starting time.

As a guide I would expect that the interview should last about one hour but depending upon your interest in the research topic might be shorter or longer. I am most grateful for the time you are able to give me and would be more than pleased to take longer if it is going well and you are happy to talk longer.

I am also in the process of contacting other academics at Lethbury who have similarly agreed to assist with my research so it would be helpful if you would indicate as many possible convenient dates as soon possible so that I can try and group my visits to the University. I will confirm the date of our interview and send further details about the interview as soon as possible after I have received your reply to this message.

My plan is to conduct only one interview in each day slot and, if possible with your help, to conduct the interview in a quiet private room/office with a table and chairs and where we are unlikely to be interrupted, other than for an emergency.

I look forward with anticipation to your reply and thank you for your assistance.

Kind regards

Stephen Ball  
Hospitality Subject Team Leader and Reader in Hospitality Management  
School of Sport and Leisure Management  
Sheffield Hallam University

## **APPENDIX 4**

### **Information sheet related to interviews on the leadership of university academics in research – a case study of hospitality management.**

#### **Introduction**

My name is Stephen Ball and I am a reader and lecturer in hospitality management at Sheffield Hallam University. I am also enrolled as a student on the Doctorate in Education course at the university. It is as part of my Doctorate that I am contacting you.

I am conducting interviews as part of a wider research programme for my dissertation. This takes as its theme the leadership of university academics in research. My supervisors are Professor Tim Simkins and Professor Sue Clegg at the university.

Thank you for being willing to participate in my research and, hopefully, in an interview.

You are probably aware that I obtained permission from your Head of School to approach and seek your co-operation and that of your colleagues.

#### **Purpose of Research**

The purpose of this research is to develop a deeper understanding of the role of leadership as it relates to research in hospitality management by university academics.

The interest in, and pursuit of, research in hospitality management in universities would appear to be gathering momentum and as a consequence its leadership has become an important issue. This research will explore the concept of hospitality management research leadership within the universities. It will focus upon the leadership of research undertaken by hospitality management academic staff and on the leadership roles and practices of hospitality management research leaders.

#### **Rationale**

This research is primarily being undertaken because our understanding of university research leadership is almost entirely limited to the knowledge and experiences of those who are officially appointed to research leader positions. Little is known about the existence and nature of unofficial leadership and yet this could be an important element of leadership in certain contexts. Furthermore, despite its importance, that written on leadership in university research is scant. In contrast to the increasing amount of literature upon hospitality management research methods and applications that devoted to the management and leadership of research in the field is seriously lacking.

I shall be collecting interview responses from a number of academics in both this university and another. I anticipate conducting twenty interviews with academics for this research. When I have finished interviewing I will be studying the content of the interviews to gain a better understanding of research leadership

#### **Assurances**

I can assure you that I am not seeking information which you consider of a confidential nature and that you will remain completely anonymous in any written work growing out of the research. Your responses will be treated in the strictest confidence. I will not

attribute anything in the writing up of my research to you by name, or to your University, without seeking and obtaining your, and the University's, permission.

The data collected from the interview will only be used for academic purposes and no records of the interviews will be retained on the completion of my research.

Stephen Ball

September 2002

## **APPENDIX 5**

### **Interview schedule on the leadership of university academics in research – a case study of hospitality management.**

#### **Introduction**

My name is Stephen Ball and I am a reader and lecturer in hospitality management at Sheffield Hallam University. I am also enrolled as a student on the Doctorate in Education course at the university. It is as part of my Doctorate that I am contacting you.

I am conducting interviews as part of a wider research programme for my dissertation. This takes as its theme the leadership of university academics in research. My supervisors are Professor Tim Simkins and Professor Sue Clegg at the university.

Thank you for being willing to participate in my research and in this interview, which should last about an hour.

You are probably aware that I obtained permission from .... to approach and seek your co-operation and that of your colleagues.

#### **Purpose of Research**

The purpose of this research is to develop a deeper understanding of the role of leadership as it relates to research in hospitality management by university academics.

The interest in, and pursuit of, research in hospitality management in universities would appear to be gathering momentum and as a consequence its leadership has become an important issue. This research will explore the concept of hospitality management research leadership within the universities. It will focus upon the leadership of research undertaken by hospitality management academic staff and on the leadership roles and practices of hospitality management research leaders.

#### **Rationale**

This research is primarily being undertaken because our understanding of university research leadership is almost entirely limited to the knowledge and experiences of those who are officially appointed to research leader positions. Little is known about the existence and nature of unofficial leadership and yet this could be an important element of leadership in certain contexts. Furthermore, despite its importance, that written on leadership in university research is scant. In contrast to the increasing amount of literature upon hospitality management research methods and applications that devoted to the management and leadership of research in the field is seriously lacking.

I shall be collecting interview responses from a number of academics in both this university and another. I anticipate conducting twenty interviews with academics for this research. To date I have conducted ..... interviews. When I have finished interviewing I will be studying the content of the interviews to gain a better understanding of research leadership

#### **Assurances**

Can I first assure you that I am not seeking information which you consider of a confidential nature and that you will remain completely anonymous in any written work

growing out of the research. Your responses will be treated in the strictest confidence. I will not attribute anything in the writing up of my research to you by name, or to your University, without seeking and obtaining your, and the University's, permission. I may wish to attribute your job title/role to a particular statement/verbatim quotation which you have made in this interview. Before I commence the interview I would like to confirm that this is acceptable to you.

The data collected from this interview will only be used for academic purposes and no records of the interviews will be retained on the completion of my research.

As you will notice I will have a cassette recorder. I would like to use this if I may to accurately capture your words and ideas. I may also make some notes during the interview to enable me to keep track of the interview as it progresses.

I also may want to include verbatim statements that you make in my dissertation. I can assure you that the tapes, and any transcripts, will only be used for my research, and for no other purpose. They will be destroyed once I have completed my research. I would like to ask your permission to use the recorder during our interview and draw upon and use your responses in my dissertation.

### **Approach to Interview**

The objective of this interview is to ascertain your personal conceptions and views of research and research leadership. The interview will be divided into four sections, each with a different theme and a different set of questions.

The sections are:

Background details about yourself

Your thoughts about research and your involvement in research

Your opinions about research leadership

Your thoughts about your university and research and research leadership

In the first section the questions are fairly short and specific. Beyond that the questions are mainly aimed at facilitating a general discussion about the key themes and I would welcome as full a response as you are able to provide. I would also like to say that there is no problem should you prefer not to answer particular questions and also that the interview can be stopped at any point should you wish.

At any point during the interview feel perfectly free to interrupt, seek clarification or criticise any line of enquiry.

Thank you again for your help and co-operation.

### **INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

I would like to begin by asking whether you received the notes I sent to you about the purpose and conduct of the interview.

Were these clear, or would you like me to go through them again?

I would like to remind you that I shall preserve your anonymity and that I am not seeking information that you consider confidential.

Are there any questions you would like to ask me before we get started?

Then can I confirm, firstly, that it is alright for me to tape record the interview and, secondly, the amount of time that you have available for the interview.

### **SECTION A – IS ABOUT YOU (Allow 5/10 minutes)**

This section relates to you and it should not take us long to go through. Most of the questions are specific and only require short answers.

*A1. I would like to begin by asking how long have you been an academic member of staff in Higher Education and for how long have you worked in your current institution?*

*A2. What is your current job title and grade?*

*A3. Are you a senior management post holder?*

*A4. What type of appointment do you hold?*

Prompts (if necessary): Is it full time-permanent, part time-permanent, fixed term full time contract, fixed term part time contract or some other?

*A4b. If it is part time, what % contract do you have?*

*A5. Is teaching, research or management your primary employment function?*

*A6. Would you indicate, by dividing the pie chart up into three, how much of your work time over the year you spend on a) teaching and associated administrative duties b) research and associated administrative duties and c) other things.*

*A7. What subject are you currently teaching?*

*A8. For how many years have you taught hospitality management in Higher Education?*

*A9. What is your highest academic qualification and from which institution did you obtain this?*

*A10. Which, if any, of your academic qualifications are in hospitality management?*

*A11. As far as you are aware, were you submitted as active in the 2001 Research Assessment Exercise and, if so, under what unit of assessment?*

Prompt (if necessary): Unit of Assessment is likely to be either: 43 Business and Management Studies or 69 Sports and related subjects.

**A12.** *Are your research activities undertaken under the auspices of a research centre/some other research organisation structure? Can you give me any details about this.*

Prompts (if necessary): mission, scope, objectives, how it is structured, the way it functions

**A12a** *Does this cover hospitality management?*

**A13.** *Is your university the principal source of your basic salary?*

## **SECTION B – IS ABOUT RESEARCH (Allow 20 minutes)**

As the research is concerned with research leadership I would now like to ask you some questions about research.

**To begin with I would like to ask you about the importance placed upon research**

**B1.** *In your view, what priority does your university place on research and for what reasons do you think this is?*

Prompts (if necessary): Priority might be measured in relation to other aspects e.g. teaching, commercial activities or other institutions e.g. by name. The reasons could be associated with e.g. enhancing the image and reputation of institution, raise funding, to be competitive, to develop staff and students, to improve teaching.

**B2.** *Is this priority, and the reasons for this, the same in your School?*

**B3.** *I'd like to hear a little bit about the priority you place on conducting research yourself and your main motivations for doing research.*

Prompts (if necessary): Priority might be measured in relation to other aspects e.g. teaching, administration or colleagues e.g. by role/title. The reasons could be associated with e.g. gaining promotion, to enhance personal image and reputation, to raise funds, to create knowledge/solve problems, to publish, to be a better teacher, for collaborative purposes

**B4.** *Tell me about the importance you attach to academics in universities to engage in hospitality management research. If you think it is important why do you say this?*

Prompts (if necessary): To keep up with other disciplines, for needs of industry, to raise status of hospitality management education

**Now I would like to ask you about how you view research itself**

**B5.** *Research has been defined in many ways. How would you define research?*

Prompts (if necessary):

What is it and what is it done for and for whom?

Is research about finding out and broadcasting it, the 'means' of generating knowledge, a systematic process of investigation, advancing knowledge and understanding

What about the social aspects of research such as grants and funding and the role of publication?

What about scholarship?

What about consultancy?

**B6.** *In your view is there anything distinctive about hospitality management research as opposed to research in other disciplines?*

Prompts (if necessary): In terms of purpose, role and type (e.g. problem-solving, problem oriented, basic research)

Brew (2001) argues research has to be discussed in relation to its disciplinary context.

I would now like to move on to talk about your own involvement in research

**B7.** *Tell me about your main research interests..*

**B8.** *Would you like to do more hospitality management research and if so what sort of things prevent you doing this?*

Prompts (if necessary): Organisational factors - lack of resources, rewards; Job factors - other work demands; Personal factors - personal motivation, lack of skills and experience, lack of awareness of importance, lack of time.

## **SECTION C – IS CONCERNED WITH RESEARCH LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP (Allow 20 minutes)**

**C1.** *Given the importance that you have attached to research please could you tell me, firstly, if you believe that research can be led and, secondly, if there is a need for leadership of research undertaken by academics.*

**C1a** *If you believe that there is a need for research leadership of academics please explain why and in what circumstances?*

**C2** *Do you think there is a critical mass of people required for research leadership of academics and if so how many people are required?*

**C3.** *What comes to your mind when you think of the concept of research leadership or in other words how would you define it?*

Prompts (if necessary):

The same thing as management

Something involving a group, influence and goal attainment

In terms of the people - leaders and followers, their titles, characteristics, objectives, relationships between people

In terms of a process of supporting, managing, developing and inspiring colleagues (Ramsden)

An obscure concept



A concept which cannot be put into reality

Fiedler defined leadership as 'the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal setting and goal accomplishment'

*C4. (Have blank paper and pens ready.) I would be interested in learning about what might be called your 'research leadership chart'. One way to describe and explain research leaders and any relationships between them is by drawing a chart or diagram.*

Give them the blank paper and show them mine as an example.

*On this paper I'd like you to indicate the different people who you consider are involved in the leadership of academic staff in hospitality management research in your university and if possible their relationships. You do not need to name them (unless this is the best way you can do it). Just show them by their job title/role or initials.*

Give them time to produce chart.

*Now I would like you to tell me about the chart - talk me through it, if you would. And tell me about the roles different people play in hospitality management research leadership in your university and where you fit in.*

Prompts (if necessary): Appointed (formal) leaders, informal leaders, self established, direct/indirect leaders, close/remote leaders, titles

***For Research Leaders Only:***

*C5. If you have a leadership role, were you appointed to this role and, if you were not appointed to this role, for what reasons do you do it?*

Prompts (if necessary) Reasons might be e.g. because of other people's failings, as a requirement that is not being met or because you just want to lead.

*C6. By drawing a further line or lines on the pie chart how much of your time is spent on research leadership?*

*C7. As far as you can recall does your job description refer to any aspect of research leadership? Do you remember what this is?*

*C7b. Would it be possible to let me have a copy of your job description?*

*C8. How would you describe the approach to research leadership practised in your organisation?*

Prompts (if necessary): Organised, confusing, non-existent, supportive, aggressive, by example

*C9. Could you give me some of your thoughts about the expectations you have of your (other) research leaders and leadership?*

Prompts (if necessary):

Expectations – behaviour, outputs

**C10.** *In your view what factors influence the effectiveness of research leaders and leadership?*

Prompts (if necessary): External, Organisational, personal . Middlehurst says academic values, structure and process are constraints on academic leadership

**C11.** *In your opinion what do good leaders do and poor leaders do?*

**C12.** *From your own experience would you describe any depersonalised examples of good research leadership.*

**C13.** *From your own experience would you describe any depersonalised examples of bad research leadership*

**C14.** *Would you like to make any other comments about research leadership or leaders?*

#### **SECTION D – IS ABOUT YOUR UNIVERSITY AND RESEARCH AND RESEARCH LEADERSHIP (allow 10 minutes)**

Since this is research about the leadership of university academics I would like to ask you some questions related to your university context. These may take you a little time to answer. I have allowed for this in my planning.

**D1.** *Context has been claimed to influence the conduct of research and leadership. What do you think are the main factors that facilitate effective research in your university (or your part of the university)?*

**D2.** *What do you think are the main factors that hinder effective research in your university (or your part of the university)?*

**D3.** *What do you think are the main factors that facilitate effective research leadership in your university (or your part of the university)?*

**D4.** *What do you think are the main factors that hinder effective research leadership in your university (or your part of the university)?*

**D5.** *Do you think that any of the following (show respondent card) influence your pursuit of research in your university?*

The emphasis on research v emphasis on teaching and learning v emphasis on vocationalism

The clarity of policy on research

The decision making process related to research

Degree of freedom you have in researching

Shared ideals about the role of research

The measurement and evaluation of research performance

Nature and quality of students e.g. are students regarded as budding researchers and aware of staff as researchers

Behaviour of colleagues related to research

The management style

The presence and quality of research leadership

Orientation of leaders to task or relationship behaviour related to research

**D6.** *In your opinion to what extent does your School reflect the university context as a whole?*

**- AND FINALLY**

*May I ask into which of the following age categories you fit? (Show card and circle):*

< 21 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 41-45 46-50 51-55 56-60 61-65 >65

*Gender of respondent (interviewer circle):* F M .

*University (interviewer to circle):* **pre 1992** **post 1992**

Before I finish I would like to ask you if you have any questions, or would like to raise anything, about my research or the conduct of this interview?

I would like to reconfirm the assurances which I have previously made.

Should I wish to explore anything further as a result of today may I contact you in the future?

You have given me a lot of useful material here. I am very grateful for this and thank you for your help with my research. I mentioned in the background information that I may wish to attach your job title/role to a particular statement/verbatim quotation when writing up. Would this be acceptable to you?

Should you wish to contact me in the future about this interview or my research my contact details are:-

## APPENDIX 6

### Interview evaluation script

---

#### INTERVIEWEE EVALUATION OF THE PILOT INTERVIEW BY STEPHEN BALL ON THE LEADERSHIP OF UNIVERSITY ACADEMICS IN RESEARCH – A CASE STUDY OF HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

Thank you for participating in my research and in this pilot interview. I would now be most grateful for any comments you have regarding the interview which might help me improve it before I roll it out generally.

Date and place of interview:

Job title/role of interviewee:

Pre interview information

Were you happy to receive this information by email before the interview?

Were there any issues regarding the background information sent to you (anything omitted, anything unclear etc.)?

The interview

Were the necessary formalities observed at the start (introductions, use of tape recorders, confidentiality etc.)?

Was the time and place of the interview suitable (privacy, acoustics, comfort) ?

Did you find the use of the cassette recorders acceptable?

In your view were any questions: unclear?  
superfluous?  
omitted?  
too sensitive?

Did the questions seem logically ordered?

Did the style of interviewing encourage you to give full and honest responses?

Did you have sufficient time to answer the questions?

Finishing the interview

Were the necessary courtesies given at the end (thanks, reassurances)?

Was the length of the interview as expected?

General

In your view do you think that the interview will provide the data that the interviewer is expecting and requires?

Do you have any other comments about the interview or the way it was conducted?

Do you have any suggestions which you think might improve the interview?

Thank you for your feedback.

Stephen Ball  
September 2002

---

## APPENDIX 7

### Interview timetable

#### University of Lethbury

24 October, 2002	9.30-11.00	Paul Hughes
	14.30-16.00	Keith Redwood
	17.00- 18.30	Fred Pine
25 October	9.00-10.30	Alec Beech
31 October	7.45- 9.15	Andrew Cherry
	9.30-11.00	Maureen Oaks
	13.30-15.00	Reiner Fir
16 December	10.30-12.00	Brian Birch
	13.30-15.00	Michael Wood

#### University of Sturridge

15 November	12.00-13.30	Claire Stone
21 November	9.30-11.00	Ian Glass
	12.00-13.30	Jack Boardman
	16.00-17.30	Charles Clay
22 November	9.30-11.00	Susanna Diamond
	12.00- 1.30	Bob Steele
29 November	10.00-11.30	Annette De Silva
	12.30- 2.00	Steven Slater
2 December	9.00-10.30	Grace Gold
	15.00-16.30	Peter Irons
5 December	9.30-11.00	Angelo Topaz

## APPENDIX 8

**Personal publications, conference and seminar presentations arising from the pursuit of this dissertation topic.**

Ball, S. (2001) The Leadership of University Hospitality Management Research, *Proceedings of the Tenth Annual CHME Hospitality Research Conference* held at South Bank University, April, South Bank University, London.

Ball, S. D. (2002) Leading University Academics in Hospitality Management Research. In Vukonić, B. and Čavlek, N. (eds) *Rethinking of Education and Training for Tourism*, Graduate School of Economics and Business, University of Zagreb, 23-44.

Ball, S. (2003) An exploration into university subject based research leaders, *Research Seminar Presentation* given at the University of Brighton, November.

Ball, S. (2004) The research and teaching connection in hospitality management education. In *LINK (Learning through Innovations, Networks and Knowledge) Newsletter*, Issue 9, February.

Ball, S. and Horner, S. (2003) Researching academic leadership in universities: Two doctoral studies with relevance to hospitality management education, *Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual CHME Hospitality Research Conference* held in Sheffield, April, Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield.

Nield, K., Ball, S. and Horner, S. (2002) Academic Leadership for the International Development of Hospitality and Tourism Management Education – a Case Study of Distance Learning. In Vukonić, B. and Čavlek, N. (eds) *Rethinking of Education and Training for Tourism*, Graduate School of Economics and Business, University of Zagreb, 181-190.

## **APPENDIX 9**

### **Units of study within the Sheffield Hallam University Doctorate in Education (Ed.D) programme 2000-2004.**

- Research methodologies in professional education
- Professional leadership, strategic planning and organisational improvement
- International perspectives on policy and practice in education and training
- Researching professional practice
- Dissertation