The Stories of Hoteliers: Personal narratives in entrepreneurial leadership

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This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Declaration of originality

This dissertation is entirely my own work and
I have made due reference to the work of others throughout.

Signed____

For Nan, Jack, Rae and Douglas

I miss you all and hope I've made you proud

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Abstract

This thesis considers the question, *what do hoteliers do*? Specifically, how do hoteliers interpret their personal narratives in a manner that informs the process of enacting their roles? It also asks, how do personal narratives mediate understanding of entrepreneurial leadership?

The thesis synthesises leadership and entrepreneurship; it reconciles some of the disparate contributions made within these fields to inform our understanding of the role of the hotelier by way of a hermeneutical exploration of the personal narratives constructed by hoteliers. It also considers how these are used in the enactment of entrepreneurial leadership. The thesis contributes to the fields of entrepreneurship, leadership and hospitality studies by highlighting the importance of constructing and harnessing personal career narratives and using these to navigate the uncertain and emergent hotel industry. It begins by discussing entrepreneurship theory, specifically the importance of process, context and its role in the hotel industry. It then considers leadership theory to identify a field of enquiry that is populated by multiple definitions, informed by many methodological and ontological perspectives. Process and context are also discussed in relation to leadership and, from this, the literature relating to the hotel industry as a field of enquiry is discussed.

Through a hermeneutical three stage reflective process, the construction of the hotel industry according to hoteliers as well as the components of their role is explored. Following this, a definitive articulation of what it is to be an entrepreneurial leader in the hotel industry is presented: someone who reconciles the ever-changing and dynamic industry context with a need to be strategic. This is seen as the positive harnessing of personal narratives to create a generative grammar for effectual processes. The thesis thus develops effectuation theory by exploring and explaining the means by which effectuation is actually enacted. Hoteliers select and recount episodes from personal narratives to inform the ways in which they enact their roles. The identification and analysis of this practice of relating positive professional outcomes to personal stories augments and contributes to knowledge of entrepreneurial leadership and the entrepreneurial process.

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1 Introduction

This thesis is about stories; it asks, *what do hoteliers do*? Focusing on the hotel industry, it examines the hotelier (the controlling figure in a hotel business), the ways in which this role is enacted, and what this has to say for leadership and entrepreneurship as fields of enquiry. 14 leading hoteliers from some of the largest and most successful companies in the world, representing over $15bn in annual business revenue and over 300,000 employees, were interviewed about their life and career histories to explore the role entrepreneurship and leadership play in this journey, and in the job of running a hotel. Entrepreneurial leadership emerges as a reflexive process through which sense is made of a career journey, which represents the processes employed in the day-to-day management of business.

Similar questions have been asked across other fields such as: "*why do managers do what they do*?" (Hales, 1999), "*what do experienced entrepreneurs do*?" (Baron, 2009), and "*what do entrepreneurs do and how do they do it*?" (Moroz & Hindle, 2012, p. 784). Yet understanding of leadership remains inadequate, and is poorly reconciled with entrepreneurship. As fields battle for theoretical autonomy and disciplinary specialisation, interdisciplinary studies tend to lose focus, thereby falling short of elucidating the complementarity among multiple domains. This thesis identifies areas of complementarity to produce several contributions:

- An appreciation of the relationship between leadership and entrepreneurship
- Representing the value of investigating individuals' career histories to appreciate where entrepreneurship and leadership are evident
- Identification of specific and useful knowledge for operators within the hospitality industry
- Acknowledgement of the way in which successful business leaders engage with the processes of effectuation.

Literature is reviewed that relates to three specific areas: entrepreneurship, leadership and the hotel industry. Current theories of leadership and entrepreneurship are discussed and a knowledge gap identified in their approach to the study of hoteliers. Existing scholarship is shown to be largely concerned with establishing the characteristics of entrepreneurs and leaders within a narrow empirical context (typically start-up or new ventures), rather than attending to broader contexts such as the hotel industry. The literature relating to the empirical context of this research (the hospitality industry) is reviewed to illustrate the particular suitability of this traditionally service-driven environment, characterised by continuous production and consumption, to a study of entrepreneurship and leadership. Given this contextual suitability, this study of the nature of being a hotelier provides insights into the dynamics between entrepreneurship and leadership. Relationships are discerned between causal (Moroz & Hindle, 2012) and effectual (Sarasvathy, 2003) logics, which allow experience to be harnessed effectively in an industry that is free-moving and dynamic. Causal logic is concerned with proceeding along a course of action based on anticipated outcomes, with decisions and strategy being orientated to accommodate those outcomes; effectual logic is means-orientated and seeks to harness the optimum value of a set of means and drive them towards the emergent outcome.

This dynamic between entrepreneurship and leadership processes is developed through narrative constructions in which experiences and relationships are framed to work to operational advantage. This extends the literature on entrepreneurship to illustrate *how* it is enacted rather than just *what* the process might be. This also extends scrutiny of the entrepreneurial process in the empirical context of the hotel industry. This extension is achieved by examining the ways in which background, experience, identity and narrative construction inform the entrepreneurial process. The necessity of exploring the ideas and processes that go into being a hotelier is implicit in the dearth of established research into leadership in the hotel industry, despite the size and influence of the industry. Extant research has not engaged with contemporary developments in the fields of leadership and entrepreneurship and is overly reliant on quantitative research.

This study has been constructed with a view to both contributing to current knowledge of leadership in the hotel industry and offering further insight into the enactment of leadership and entrepreneurship practices in an under-researched empirical context. Access to elite members of the global hotel industry has granted this study deep insights into being a global hotelier. While this thesis primarily tackles contemporary literature, theory, practice, and contexts, it is partially inspired and driven by the broader tradition of investigations into economic processes and impacts. Speaking of the benefits to society often unwittingly produced by the activities of the individual capitalist, Adam Smith notes that such an individual:

> "is in this, as in many other cases, led by an invisible hand to promote an end which was no part of his intention. Nor is it always the worse for the society that it was no part of it. By pursuing his own interest he frequently promotes that of the society more effectually than when he really intends to promote it" (Smith, 1776, IV.2.9).

This quotation suggests that, rather than being simply a product of twentieth and twenty-first century scholarship, ideas surrounding the confluence of causal and effectual logics are part of the foundations of thinking practically about business and society. As such, it is hoped that whilst this thesis offers specific findings about contemporary hoteliers in context, it may be seen as contributing to a long-standing and wider-reaching tradition of socio-economic scholarship.

1.1 Research Purpose

This study focusses on a cluster of interrelated research themes. Tackling the domain of leadership is a contentious endeavour insofar as the scholarly legitimacy of the field has latterly been challenged. Substantial research into entrepreneurship has taken the field to an accepted definition, although the overarching research agenda is yet to be defined. Given the size and global impact of the hotel industry, the empirical domain of the hospitality industry has been inadequately explored, so remains relatively misunderstood. As noted by Corley and Gioia (2011), the appropriate framing of the aim, objectives and research questions are integral to potential contributions, in order for originality and utility to be achieved in the conclusions. Empirically, this study seeks to contribute much-needed knowledge about the ways in which the top organisational actors within hotel companies enact their roles. Methodologically, the study acknowledges the individual agency of leaders, and the futility of uncritically applying exogenously identified and framed strategic goals to a dynamic and often unpredictable work environment. This study aims to contribute to knowledge gaps by positioning entrepreneurship and leadership as areas of inquiry that help us to understand what hoteliers do. At the same time, the analysis of hoteliers feeds back into the theory of entrepreneurial leadership, so contributing to both knowledge of the hotel industry and a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between entrepreneurship and leadership. In summary, this thesis addresses an underdeveloped qualitative scrutiny of the hotel industry, the lack of exploration of the role of narratives in entrepreneurship and leadership research, and a lack of understanding about relationships between causal and effectual logics in process.

Stories and storytelling are integral to this study, however, it is acknowledged that in framing the research agenda (Corley & Gioia, 2011) the influence of using narrative as a means of exploring stories could be contentious since, in asking for stories we are presented with a set of results founded on a narrative base, i.e. if you ask for stories then stories are going to come to your attention as important in the analysis. Narratives and storytelling permeate the research question, context, methods and conclusion of this thesis and thus a contribution is made based on the application of storytelling to the roles of the participants. However, narratives cannot be collected unless they are asked for and the process of hermeneutical engagement allowed sense to be made of the data in a way that identified narratives within the stories told, these narratives go beyond the stories of self-flattery that are potentially constructed to self-affirm by participants. Gartner (2007) identifies how narratives of entrepreneurship can be collected and then worked with in a creative way to understand them as separate from the stories told by participants. Therefore, narratives must be sought in order to collect suitable data but this process does not infringe upon the validity of the results despite the fact they are analysed using narrative as a methodological tool.

The forming of an appropriate research agenda for the study is essential, as Sarasvathy (2004b: 707) articulates:

> "The particular ways in which we formulate key questions in research can sometimes drive us down unprofitable paths, even when the underlying concerns that motivate our questions are genuine and important."

This tacit warning alludes to the conflict between motivations and framing. The aim, objectives and principal research questions below are framed within a theoretically, methodologically and empirically driven opportunity for enquiry. The subsequent personal concerns and motivations of the author are, therefore, appropriately aligned within the research context.

1.1.1 Aim

The principal aim of this research is to explore the role of personal narratives in informing the enactment of entrepreneurship and leadership processes among hoteliers.

1.1.2 Research Questions

- How do hoteliers interpret their personal narratives in a manner that informs the process of enacting roles?
- How do personal narratives mediate understanding of entrepreneurial leadership?
- How do entrepreneurship and leadership interact within the context of the hotel industry?

1.2 Storytelling

In order to analyse the use of personal narratives, it is first necessary to explore the theory of storytelling and narrative. The following discussion identifies both the parameters and the utility of telling stories.

Stories are a narrative account of historical, authentic, or fictional events that constitute a meaningful structure and coherent outline (Czarniawska, 1997, 1999; Rhodes & Brown, 2005; Gabriel, 1995). Boje (1991, p.11) defines stories as “an oral or written performance involving two or more people interpreting past or anticipated experience.” According to Whittle et al., (2009, p.426) stories are “specific types of discourse that draw on particular poetic and literary genres, follow certain theatrical styles and are often delivered with entertainment and spectacle in mind.” Cupitt (1995, p. xi) offers a more inclusive definition of stories as:

> “Interpretative resources, models and scenarios through which we make sense of what is happening to us and frame our action. Unlike the forms and concepts of philosophy, stories are stretched out in time...They shape the process of life. It is through stories that our social selves, which are our real selves, are actually produced.”

Stories typically follow the traditional structure of beginning, middle and conclusion (Brown et al., 2008; Lounsbury & Glynn, 2001). Fundamental to stories is the need for an engaging context, a storyline, principal characters, and a scenario that concludes with some revelation of interest to the audience (Czarniawska, 1999; Ibarra & Lineback, 2005; Lounsbury & Glynn, 2001).

The communication of stories has an extensive and diverse tradition that has influenced societies for thousands of years (Boje, 2008; Brown et al., 2008; Ricoeur, 1984). Stories are considered to be the most common communication tool available to us; they allow construction, meaning, sense making and identity to be drawn and interpreted by their audience (Chand, 2006; Havelock, 1988; Hummel, 1991; Koenig, 2008; Orr, 2009). They can be spoken, danced, painted, sung, and dramatized (Boje, 2008; Dundes, 1980; Gabriel, 2000), and are characterised by their various purposes for which they have been used throughout history (Gabriel, 1995; Morgan & Dennehy, 1997). Through stories people explain the reasoning behind traditional practices; pass on knowledge and understandings, values and principles; and learn from past events (Morgan & Dennehy, 1997; Whittle et al., 2009).

In reciting a story the accuracy of the account is often ancillary to the aim of making a symbolic statement or eliciting an emotional response (Gabriel, 2000; Gabriel & Griffiths, 2004). Therefore, stories do not necessarily represent accurate facts about specific events or occurrences; instead they enhance, manipulate and augment reality with meaning (Bowles, 1989; Ricoeur, 1984). Symbolism may be employed to avoid repression of expression, and to allow for the communication of information that may be seen as undesirable in open dialogue (Collinson, 1988; Ibarra & Lineback, 2005). As such, stories can also be seen as a tool by the storyteller to uncover the beliefs and find common ground with other people through them interpreting the same meaning from the story (Gabriel & Griffiths, 2004; Martin et al., 1983). Much of narration and aspirations of stories are conveyed through the practice of storytelling (Boje, 1995; Boyce, 1995; Brown et al., 2009; Morgan & Dennehy, 1997). The literature highlights the "performance" (Boje, 1991); "delivery" and "theatre" (Whittle et al., 2009); and "production" (Cupitt, 1995) of a story. There, therefore, exists an implicit connection between the discourse in stories and their delivery, storytelling. The storytelling literature is discussed to outline the manner in which the apparent connection subsists.

Through storytelling "groups construct shared meaning and collectively centre on that meaning" (Boyce, 1995, p. 102). Storytelling acts as a vehicle through which people can create, adjust and re-shape collective boundaries between individuals, across the full spectrum of society (Gabriel, 2005). The bond and level of engagement that can be achieved through storytelling is unmatched according to Grisham (2006), who considers storytelling through metaphor and poetry fundamental to effective communication.

The purpose of constructing these narrative accounts differs depending on the situation, desired outcome and audience (Gabriel, 2005). Denning (2005) suggests that there are eight different types of story, and that the telling of each type serves a different purpose. He notes that storytelling can act as a catalyst for action; communicate personal identity; communicate organisational identity; assert and communicate values; engender teamwork; counter the negative effect of the informal communications of others; distribute information and knowledge; and inspire and lead others (Gabriel, 2005). The most striking aspect of Denning's (2005) typology is that all eight purposes of stories and storytelling are wholly positive, centred on inspiring others to function constructively or in the manner desired by the storyteller. This may be due to the focused context of organisational leaders, although much of Denning's (2005) typology of stories may apply beyond the organisation. Nonetheless, along with communicating shared culture, beliefs and history (Mills, Boylstein & Lorean, 2001) storytelling with this purpose can also be considered to oppress individuality, keep listeners *in their place* and engender conformity (Boje & Dennehy, 2008). Storytelling can also aid individuals and groups in the evaluation of past events. This is a highly interpretive process, often most useful when the event has major repercussions, and it facilitates both individual and group reflections regarding the winners and losers as a result of the event (Isabella, 1990).

As storytellers, we are privileged with the tools of narrative. It is in the *telling* of the story that the use of figurative language and imagery is at our disposal. O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010) note that from our formation as *homo narrans* (the storytelling creature) we tell stories naturally and construct narrative around events in our lives. Furthermore, in certain contexts storytelling is the most effective form of communication, particularly when communicating realities beyond the listener's immediate comprehension or lived experience; akin to the tropism of mythologies (Brown et al., 2009).

The luxury of harnessing the influence of storytelling in an organisational setting is only available to one who has already achieved a position of power within a given group (Maclean et al., 2010). In order for one to *tell* a story one must have others willing or compelled to listen. This is where the association between storytelling and positions of power emerges, be it within organisational or social structures. Power "enables them to become the purveyors of narratives or 'scripts'" (Maclean et al., 2010, p.343) where the story acts as a medium for extending their power base. From this position stories can be skewed or 'spun' in a manner which serves personal agendas while simultaneously being accepted by attentive subordinates (Nowotny, Scott, & Gibbons, 2001). It is from this struggle to achieve and maintain power and the efficacy of storytelling in achieving that end that deepening our understanding of organisational storytelling becomes apparent.

As shown in Table 1-1, the use of stories or storytelling within an organisational context covers a range of themes, most of which expound the ways in which storytelling can be used for organisational purposes. The effects of narratives within organisations are also considerably researched. The analysis of stories has discovered a rich and diverse collection of information that would not be obtained through more traditional means of investigation (Hummel, 1991b; MacLean et al., 2010; Mitroff, 2005; Mitroff & Kilmann, 1976; Stutts & Barker, 1999). As opposed to simply enquiring into structured data or rudimentary scientific fact, interpreting stories represents a general call for stories to be taken seriously as a form of accurate description.

Qualitative research itself is often rooted in the structures of narrative commentary, and stories are self-perpetuating, which allows research to scratch progressively further beneath the surface of the subject area (Clegg, 1993; Dyer & Wilkins, 1991; Rhodes & Brown, 2005). As Rhodes and Brown (2005, p. 169) observe "disciplines in the social sciences ranging from sociology to ethnography and to organisation studies had long been founded on the ability to tell a good story", suggesting that there is something more latent about the narrative element to research.

Table 1-1 Uses of Stories in Organizations from the Literature

Use	Description	Sources
Mission and vision	Stories can be employed to develop and define the organisation's cultural identity.	Faust (2007); Langer and Thorup (2006); O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010); Radu (2005);
Communication device	As stories are passed on, messages and meaning are drawn from them, this meaning could relate to day to day information concerning modus operandi or organisational news.	Boje (1995, 2001); Boyce (1995, 1996); Brown (2005); Cupitt (1995); Denning (2005, 2006); Harrington and Bielby (1995); Putnam, Phillips, and Chapman (1999); Smith and Keyton (2001); Weick and Browning (1986);
Manage change	Stories can allow meaning and sense-making with regard to change to be interpreted and related to change processes effectively and in a way that employees can understand and work with.	Adamson, et al. (2006); Beech, et al.(2009); O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010); Parkin (2004); Sims, et al. (2009); Tobin and Snyman (2004); Vance (1993); Whittle, et al. (2009)
Leadership	Particular accounts inspire organisational members to follow an individual. Stories inspire people to action organisational objectives for the leader through a sense of belonging or empathy with them.	Boal and Schultz; (2007); Bontis and Nikitopoulos,(2001); Boje (1995, 2001); Brown (1997b); Denning (2005, 2006); Forster et al. (1999); Grisham (2006); Kurland and Pelled (2000); O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010); Sims, et al. (2009); Vera and Crossan (2004)

Stories provide further insight into the area of study than other methods as they provide natural context and perspective, thus offering a deeper form of enquiry, as is demonstrated in the following table.

Table 1-2 Effects of Narratives in Organizations from the Literature

Use	Description	Sources
Share values	The moral of the story may instil values or encourage learning thus cementing organisational identity among employees.	Astley and Zammuto (1992); Boyce (1995, 1996); Driscoll and McKee (2007); Kelly (1985); O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010); Sims, et al. (2009); Swap, et al. (2001)Tobin and Snyman (2004); Whittle, et al. (2009)
Knowledge Exchange	Facts contained within stories are transferred and remembered due to the narrative quality but the collaborative and reciprocal nature of narrative may engender constructive working relationships.	Connell, et al. (2004); Mitchell (2005); Ribiere and Sitar (2003); Sims, et al. (2009); Sole and Wilson (1999); Swap, et al. (2001); Tobin and Snyman (2004); Whittle, et al. (2009)
Develop trust	Inspire, educate and build *esprit de corps.*	Grisham (2006); Langer and Thorup (2006); O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010); Sole and Wilson (1999)
Motivate, direct and influence	Stories can educate, motivate, and articulate goals, making an organisation work more cohesively towards goals.	Boal and Schultz (2007); Hansen and Kahnweiler (1993); Harrington and Bielby (1995); Morgan and Dennehy (1997); O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010); Vance (1993)
Legitimisation	Narratives can be constructed to justify the past as a connected and deliberate story and thus instil confidence in past actions and provide a clearer precedent for future ones.	Berendse, et al. (2006); Brown (1997b); Clark and Greathatch (2002); Cupitt (1995); Golant and Sillince (2007); Steuer and Wood (2008); Taylor, Fisher, and Dufresne (2002)

In light of the value of story analysis as discussed above, and the contribution such analyses have made to the knowledge base of organisational enquiry, it is apparent that carrying out a study on the stories that key figures in the hotel industry tell about themselves may further contribute to the body of research relating to the industry.

1.3 Acknowledging history

Scholars have argued that a historical perspective should permeate all business research as it serves to inform the future by analysing the past (Buckley, 2009; Inkpen & Beamish, 1994; Jones & Khanna, 2006; Morck & Yeung, 2007). Wilkins (1988, p. 5) states the focus of business history as "the origins, growth and performance of business as an institution. We must always begin with the company and look for patterns (for continuities and discontinuities) in the development of enterprise". This was developed by Buckley (2002, p. 370) who observes "the way forward is, paradoxically, to look back." The value of using historical analysis to understand contemporary phenomena is echoed by Pettigrew's (1992, p. 10) assertion that "[h]istory is not just events and chronology; it is carried forward in the human consciousness. The past is alive in the present and may shape the emerging future."

According to Jones and Khanna (2006), historical research has ceased to be part of the business research agenda; however, along with others (Buckley, 2002; Peng, 2004), they argue that returning to historical methods could help expose some of the key issues of the field. There is a wide call for more research to engage in historical aspects of business enterprise (Jones & Khanna, 2006; Morck & Yeung, 2007; Pettigrew, 1992; Wilkins, 1988). Some fundamental issues concerning the understanding of business development cannot be addressed other than through analysis of themes over a long period of time (Iversen & Larsson, 2011; Jones & Khanna, 2006; Puig & Pérez, 2009). For example, there is a significant amount of complementarity between business history and other business research agendas (Dunning, 1998; O'Sullivan & Graham, 2010; Wilkins & Hill, 1964); "[b]usiness history is a voracious importer of theory from other disciplines" (Whittington, 2011, p. 172). Similarly historians are able to draw meaning and causality from more contemporary sources (Wilkins, 1988).

Applying the same logic and argument, a historical perspective would also inform consideration of leadership and entrepreneurship in the story of a career, and what this can tell us about the position an individual holds. Indeed, such analysis of personal narratives can add “sources of variation” to the research agenda (Jones & Khanna, 2006, p. 455). The addition of time-series variation rather than cross-sectional variation helps to temporally locate ostensibly ‘new’ phenomena that are not necessarily new; they may have disappeared and then reappeared. For example, the description by Whittington (2011) of the small group of global giants that control aspects of our daily lives reflects the patterns of global business in the mid-20th century when hegemony among key players was a threat (Buckley & Casson, 2002). Moreover, business history allows the establishment of causal links and an understanding of dynamics within the economic, social and political environment. Examining historical evidence can identify determinants of success according to Jones and Khanna (2006) and this can facilitate the analysis of strategy, structure, ownership and performance (Whittington, 2011).

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is structured in ten chapters. Following the introduction, three literature review chapters explore the theory of entrepreneurship and leadership and the context of the hospitality industry. The method is then outlined, followed by the presentation of each participant’s personal history. After this, three chapters present issues and findings: the first discussion chapter presents a thematic analysis of the data collected. Chapter 8 offers the first opportunity to deconstruct the data and engage in a reflexive analysis of the data collected. Chapter 9 is a comprehensive reflexive analysis of the discussions developed through Chapters 7 and 8, which offers a commentary on the specific context of the hotel industry. The thesis is concluded with the principal contribution of entrepreneurial leadership by hoteliers, being the driving force behind their success and their roles, where effectual logic is found to be performed by positively harnessing personal experience effectively in an industry that is free-moving and dynamic.

2 Entrepreneurship

2.1 Introduction

Entrepreneurship as a recognised economic activity long predates leadership as a field of enquiry. Although research has evolved to establish distinct areas of academic interest, there is precedent within the history of thought on entrepreneurship to research leaders and entrepreneurs in a similar manner. This chapter develops that notion by discussing contemporary entrepreneurship research, leading to a review of the modern leadership literature in the following chapter. Various definitions give texture to elements of entrepreneurs or their endeavours, but few manage to encapsulate the entirety of what it means to be an entrepreneur. As a specific point of reference, the definition which is currently considered to be the dominant and prevailing meaning of entrepreneurship as a concept is presented. This definition has allowed researchers in recent years to build their enquiry from a common point, meaning that a more cohesive research agenda within the field may be pursued, and deeper insight into the nature of entrepreneurship (and the spaces within which it is present) may be explored. The following discussion establishes the theoretical foundations upon which to build the analysis of entrepreneurial, causal, and effectual processes in the context of hoteliers in the hotel industry.

2.2 The Development of Entrepreneurship Thought

The field of entrepreneurship itself represents a dynamic and ever-changing landscape of theoretical perspectives and empirical pursuits. These span French classical economics (Cantillon, 1732; Say, 1802, 1821), in which the entrepreneur was a central protagonist of economic progress; British and Neo-classical economics (Ricketts, 1987; Walras & Jaffé, 1984), in which the entrepreneur was not accommodated by firm and resource based theory; and present theoretical perspectives that focus on opportunity recognition and exploitation (Sarasvathy, 2008; Sarasvathy, et al., 2005b). Broadly, entrepreneurship involves "the carrying out of new combinations we call 'enterprise'; the individuals whose function it is to carry them out we call "entrepreneurs'." (Schumpeter, 1934, p. 74). Shane and

Venkataraman (2000, p. 218) developed the accepted definition of the study of entrepreneurship (the accepted basis for contemporary research in the field) as:

> "The study of sources of opportunities; the processes of discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities; and the set of individuals who discover, evaluate, and exploit them."

This Shane and Venkataraman (2000) definition has been cited more than 7300 times and will form the definitional foundation for discussions on entrepreneurship in this thesis. This contemporary definition has gained general consensus, although it has been extended by the same authors in subsequent papers (Shane, 2003; Shane, 2012; Venkataraman et al., 2012) (Shane, 2012, p. 802) (Venkataraman, 2012, p. 803); the following overview presents the perspectives and associated directions and tensions of previous research that addresses entrepreneurship in some form. The modern term of entrepreneurship is an anglicised form of *entrepreneur* from old French, meaning "one who undertakes or manages" as articulated by The Oxford English Dictionary (Simpson, 2012). More directly, it is thought to mean "manager or promoter of a theatrical production", "empresario" or simply "business manager". The roots of entrepreneur are thought to subsist in the Sanskrit term, *anthra prerna* which most closely translates as 'self-motivated'. Cantillon (1732) defined the entrepreneur in terms of their willingness to bear risk in an endeavour. The etymological root of risk puts a further different perspective on its association with the nature of entrepreneurship. Although originally formed as a maritime term in Ancient Greek, meaning "root, stone, cut from the land" coming from Homer's Rhapsody M of Odyssey where Odysseus tried to save himself from a storm by holding on to the root of a fig tree, the term entered the English language as 16th Century voyages to discover the new world borrowed the term through Latin, Italian and French to infer potential benefit. It also meant "hope for economic reward" in middle high German *rysigo* (Simpson, 2012). Thus the etymological root of entrepreneurship is in conventional business management concerning the pursuit of economic value. These different meanings and origins of the word are summarised in Table 2-1.

Table 2-1 Etymology of Entrepreneurship

Language	Word	Base	Translation	Meaning	Social Context
English	Entrepreneurship	entrepreneur	n/a	an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities (Shane, 2003)	
French	Entrepreneur		one who undertakes or manages (Simpson, 2012)	business manager; bearer of risk for uncertain reward	manager or promoter of a theatrical production
French	Entreprendre	Entre	between	To undertake	To take in hand
		Prendre	To take		
Sanskrit	anthra prerna	Anthra	soul	Self-motivated	
		Prerna	inspiration		
Greek	Risk	Ριζα, rhizikon	root	root, stone, cut from the land	Difficulty to avoid in the sea
German	Risk	rysigo	benefit	hope for economic success	Potentially gain value

The role fulfilled by the entrepreneur was most specifically detailed by Cantillon (1732) as the central actor, who mediated between hirelings and landowners and bore uncertainty within the exchange, making choices that ultimately determined the amount of profit they earned. Say (1802, 1821) subsequently described the role from a purely functional perspective whereby the entrepreneur performed as an economic actor that bore risk in the hope of achieving undetermined financial rewards. The entrepreneur was considered to be one of three principal economic actors, the others being: landowners and "hirelings", hirelings being those that were employed to carry out the production of goods or services. The acceptance of uncertainty in entrepreneurial activity is developed by Knight (1921), who calls for a distinction between risk and uncertainty. Risk is in some way considered to be measurable or insurable through experience or repetition. Uncertainty, however, is not measurable and relies on subjective judgment and, according to Knight (1921) forms a central element of the role of the entrepreneur.

The focus on entrepreneurs as fundamentally important to economic progress was continued by Say (1802, 1821). However, few other scholars of the time, particularly within British economics, embraced the idea of the entrepreneur in the way Cantillon (1732) and Say (1802, 1821) had. Smith (1776) discusses an economic actor in a similar way to the French economists' notion of the entrepreneur as the activity of the "undertaker" yet the characteristics thereof did not resonate to the extent that the term became commonly used. As British and American economic theory prevailed the interest in the role of the entrepreneur diminished proportionately, according to Barreto (1989). This offers some degree of explanation as to why the term has remained an anglicised French word.

The Austrian school of economics became the champion of entrepreneurial theory in the early 20th century, with Von Wieser transferring ideas from the French school to Austria proclaiming the entrepreneur as an heroic figure in the market (Ebner, 2005). The function and behaviour of the entrepreneur was developed by Von Mises (1912, 1966) where he propagates that human action itself is fundamentally aligned with entrepreneurship. Von Mises' (1912, 1966) work can be considered one of the seeds of contemporary entrepreneurship thought in that it took inspiration from French economists and others like Von Wieser (1914) and Knight (1921), marrying ideas of the entrepreneur acting in a central role whilst being the bearer of uncertainty when negotiating between constituent parties within the economic strata. Von Mises (1966) seeks to define entrepreneurship through the enactment of particular activities with the perspective of that function being bound to the bearing of uncertainty. Kirzner (1999) notes that this perspective is also intimately bound to time and environmental contexts. From the acknowledgement of human action being inherent in any entrepreneurial activity, Von Mises (1966) also acknowledges the potential for entrepreneurial activity to be evident in conventional human action found in many aspects of life, defining entrepreneurs as, "those that are better at piercing the fog of ignorance." (Von Mises, 1966, p. 104). Thus entrepreneurs can be those capable of such action in any context.

In a free market economy the entrepreneur is loosely considered to be the speculator (Schumpeter, 1934). Practically, entrepreneurs are the people that hire others and organise production (Cantillon, 1732; Say, 1821; Von Wieser, 1914). Within this defined context the entrepreneur is guided by market structures that indicate potential profit, loss, costs and prices according to Von Mises (1912), thus their function is governed by the market process. Like the other champions of entrepreneurship within economic theory, Von Mises (1912) values the role of entrepreneurs highly, in that he considers the market process integral to the success of society whereby a free market economy forces society to strive to seek out improved ways of providing for one another through competition. The entrepreneur assumes the role of the speculator and is central to both the economy and society more generally. This promotes specific consideration of the entrepreneur and exemplifies the need to understand the human element of this role in conjunction with its function. This is echoed by Schumpeter (1934, p. 84) who attempts to explain why capitalism perpetuates development, advocating the need for destruction in order for there to be creation in, "the perennial Gail of creative destruction."

One of the tensions that emerge within the Austrian school of thought is of market equilibrium. Kirzner (1973) follows Von Mises (1912, 1966) and Von Heyek's (1944) consideration that the market is perpetually in a state of disequilibrium. This opposes the position taken by Schumpeter (1934) whose principal assumption is that the economy rests naturally in a state of equilibrium. Kirzner (1973) cites the entrepreneur as being central to the process of returning the market to equilibrium. This process is embodied by alertness to opportunities for profit and entrepreneurs are those who are alert to new opportunities for profit. The distinguishing characteristic of these actors is subjectivity of knowledge, a melange of factors that engender alertness to particular opportunities over others. Kirzner (1973) positions the entrepreneur against the normal economic actor who is conditioned to act within institutional or environmental constraints, reacting to situations rather than operating proactively, thus underpinning entrepreneurs as central economic actors based on their elevated ability to act.

Conversely, Schumpeter (1934) views the entrepreneur as a disruptor of equilibrium. Despite this, the characteristics of the Schumpeterian entrepreneur are valuable to more contemporary discourse according to Carland, Hoy, Boulton, and Carland (1984). Schumpeter (1934) is concerned with imagination through creative use of extant knowledge, noting that entrepreneurs are not only driven by profit but also a need to create and achieve power and social prestige. Schumpeter (1934) introduces innovation as key to the function of entrepreneurship articulating the need for novelty; this is seen to be endogenous where entrepreneurs make things happen in a discontinuous and radical manner. Fundamentally they are seen to do new things or conventional things in a new way. Once more, there is an incongruence with Kirzner's (1973) conceptualisation as he considers opportunities to be exogenous and the entrepreneur to perform as arbitrageur; an entrepreneur sees that buying and selling at different prices in potentially new markets creates opportunity for profit. This aligns with Von Mises (1912) and Von Wieser's (1893) positions on price informing the nature of competition: the function of the entrepreneur is to see the price discrepancies and capitalise on them. These opportunities are seen as exogenous, objective opportunities available for anyone who is adequately alert to them. Kirzner (1973) does not accommodate the notion of innovation explicitly yet he tries to reconcile with Schumpeter (1934) by suggesting that entrepreneurs are concerned with the coordination of knowledge but if there is the introduction of new knowledge then they try to coordinate it in a normalising way. This suggests that what was perceived to be the equilibrium was, in light of new knowledge, not actually so the Kirznerian entrepreneur works towards reconciling the newfound disequilibrium.

The role of the entrepreneur is positioned as central to economic development by Schumpeter (1934). His economic perspective disregarded the static state model previously adhered to in order to explain the function of the entrepreneur and how that function differed from other actors such as landowners and managers. The concept of creative destruction as exercised by the entrepreneur is the core of Schumpeter's (1934) thesis; Jacobson (1992) highlights the value of this approach and the contribution it has made to strategic research since. Creative destruction is the perspective on the entrepreneurial process by which the entrepreneur's activities impact the economy in a way that disrupts its equilibrium.

The market is assumed to sit in a normalised state of equilibrium until the reinterpretation of the manner in which particular elements are used and applied causes a disruption to that equilibrium. Thus the entrepreneurial process is seen as a positive and creative one but the effect it has on the market is a destructive one as it disturbs the natural balance and rhythm an economy finds for itself. The significant difference in the entrepreneur's role compared to other actors is in their ability to interpret groups of functions and interpret them in a way that results in innovation and market disequilibrium. The previous economic state was 'destroyed' through the creative process of entrepreneurship. Hébert and Link (1989) highlight that Schumpeter's (1934) work positions the entrepreneur as the agent of economic development through creative destruction.

The introduction of opportunity-seeking and capitalisation has since become a focal point of debate within the entrepreneurship literature (See for example, Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Ray, 2003; Dimov, 2011; Fletcher, 2006; Hsieh, Nickerson, & Zenger, 2007; Sarasvathy et al., 2005b; Shane, 2003). Kirzner's (1973) position differs from that of Schumpeter (1934) in that the entrepreneur is considered to exploit disequilibria and push the market in the direction of regaining equilibrium. This challenge on Schumpeter's (1934) fundamental position was exercised by Schultz (1975), who highlights the dynamic nature of the market and the constant disequilibria found in all areas of life. These disequilibria are dealt with, according to Schultz (1975), through entrepreneurial processes that use resources, even ones such as time or space, in a manner that moves the previous state closer to equilibrium. Both Kirzner (1973) and Schultz (1975) present the entrepreneur as the arbitrageur who exploits opportunities yet these opportunities can come in myriad forms and, as a result, defining the entrepreneur by means or, indeed, ends becomes challenging.

The previous discussion on economic theory that incorporates and seeks to further understand the role of the entrepreneur sits as a body of theory that accommodates the entrepreneur. Recent economic theory development has instead disassociated from the enquiry into and appreciation of the entrepreneur. The principal reason for this, as espoused by Baumol (1968) Hébert and Link (1989), and Eliasson and Henrekson (2004), is that economic thought has progressed towards refining analysis to the extent that all elements can be quantified and statistically distilled and accurate projections then made. Such refinement and deference to the value of calculus leaves no room for the quantification of the entrepreneur, whose resources and contribution remain an outcome of personal attributes explained as much by behaviour as statistics (Jacobson, 1992). Thus, a divergence of theory emerges, whereby economic theory does not appear to have the capacity to explain behavioural factors (Baumol & Stewart, 1971; Gartner, 2001). Barreto (1989) discusses the departure of entrepreneurship from the theoretical landscape of economics, noting the rise of the theory of the firm (Penrose, 1959). Firm theory makes assumptions of perfect conditions, predictable actions and information, leaving little space for the entrepreneur; a difficulty compounded by entrepreneurship research being unable to justify or adequately articulate exactly why the theory of the firm would benefit from the incorporation of the entrepreneur. Baumol (1990) endeavours to reconcile microeconomic theory with entrepreneurship, contesting the "perfect market" equilibrium with the notion of perfect entry and perfect exit, leaving the economic context of competition more loosely defined and more sympathetic to understanding the behavioural attributes that are integral to entrepreneurship. These behavioural considerations have seen a greater focus on psychological, sociological and anthropological perspectives on entrepreneurship and, importantly, entrepreneurs themselves being developed.

In an attempt to address the complementarities between trait and behavioural theories of entrepreneurship, Gartner (2001) poses the question: "who is an entrepreneur?" The emergent discourse that has tackled psychological and behavioural aspects of entrepreneurship is similar to the debate within the leadership literature (Jago, 1982; Northouse, 2009b). Studies such as those by Hornaday and Aboud (1971) and Carland, et al. (1984) are representative of the trait approach to entrepreneurship research. These assume that entrepreneurs are inherently different to others in some manner and explore the distinguishing characteristics based on psychological testing. There is an assumption here that there is an objective set of measures based on which entrepreneurs can be identified. Lakoff and Johnson (1999) argue this to be a fallacy, and it is apparent that particular traits or otherwise that are seemingly inherent can be dismissed as being necessary for either entrepreneurial activity or, indeed, more general business success.

2.3 The Entrepreneurial Process

The focus of entrepreneurship research has evolved to incorporate process and context as two closely related concepts that allow theorising relating to the phenomenon to be achieved in a manner that avoids descriptive cases being presented as representative of the field. Bygrave (1993, p. 255) gives context to the entrepreneurial process:

> "The entrepreneurial process is a dynamic, discontinuous change of state. It involves numerous antecedent variables. It is extremely sensitive to initial conditions."

Ucbasaran, Westhead, and Wright (2001) explore this and join the debate on the ways in which entrepreneurship is framed in terms of context and process. Process is considered principally in terms of how opportunities are recognised and exploited (Wiklund, Davidsson, Audretsch, & Karlsson, 2011). In their study of the entrepreneurial process, Moroz and Hindle (2012) note the variety and disparity of the thirty two prior models and, as in Hindle's (2007, 2010) previous studies, attempt to discern the generic (what *always* happens in entrepreneurial processes) and distinct (what *only* happens in entrepreneurial processes) characteristics of entrepreneurship as a process. Without such unification, the term "entrepreneurial process" becomes essentially meaningless (Moroz & Hindle 2012).

The first steps in understanding the entrepreneurial process are to consider those aspects of entrepreneurship that distinguish it from management and managerial functions, and ascertain how entrepreneurs do what they do (Busenitz & Barney, 1997; Leibenstein, 1968; Moroz & Hindle, 2012). As Moroz and Hindle's (2012) initial survey of the entrepreneurial process literature suggests, there is considerable conceptual and empirical divergence as to the nature of entrepreneurship. This divergence is evident in even the general approaches taken towards studying the process. While some studies suggest a practice-based approach to theorizing the process, others adopt sociological and scientific approaches (Katz, 2003; Moroz & Hindle, 2012; Phan, 2004; Whitley, 1989). These studies are further differentiated through their intended outcomes, with some looking to assert singular consensus and unification, and others taking an interdisciplinary approach by incorporating research from the management sciences (Moroz & Hindle 2012; Shane & Venkataraman, 2001; Zahra & Dess, 2001).

The diversity of concepts and theories prioritised in the existing literature is further discussed by Moroz and Hindle (2012), such as intentions (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000), bricolage (Baker & Nelson, 2005), opportunity discovery (Kirzner, 1999, effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2001), counterfactual thinking (Gaglio, 2004), and innovation (Drucker, 1985). In order to avoid conflict, Moroz and Hindle (2012) temper these perspectival deviations by adopting a pragmatic, process-based approach to understanding the entrepreneurial process, which balances pure theory and practice based theory development. With a phenomenological philosophical background that places the subjectivity of the individual at its centre, and the associated concepts of flow, creation, and becoming, process theory is adopted by Moroz and Hindle (2012) to examine entrepreneurial process, which they see as "an action-based phenomenon that involves a highly interrelated set of creative, strategic, and organizing processes" (Moroz & Hindle, 2012, p. 785).

It is worth distinguishing, here, between the two central perspectives of process theory as it relates to management studies, being event-based and outcome-based processes (Aldrich and Martinez, 2001; Moroz & Hindle, 2012). As the names suggest, outcome-based studies form retrospective explanations from observations of a particular variable or variables, while event-based studies progress towards explanations over time, and are thus linked to historical perspectives (Gersick, 1994; Moroz & Hindle, 2012). Following Mohr (1982), Langley (1999) and McKelvey (2004), Moroz and Hindle (2012) further break down the study of processes into narratives and causal theories.

The entrepreneurial process is defined by Bygrave (2004) as involving “all the functions, activities, and actions associated with perceiving opportunities and creating organizations to pursue them” (Bygrave, 2004, p. 7). As such, Hindle (2007) notes that variation in research on success lies ultimately with individual entrepreneurial capacities. Bygrave’s definition is refined in Moroz and Hindle’s (2012, p. 800) consideration of Gartner’s (1985) emphasis on newness in his account of entrepreneurship, which suggests that the entrepreneurial process is “a multidimensional process of organizational *emergence* that is focused upon the creation of a new venture that is independent, profit oriented, and driven by individual experience”. Yet this definition does not align the entrepreneurial process with success, nor explain entrepreneurship beyond profit motivation, nor incorporate innovation into the entrepreneurial process (Moroz & Hindle 2012). The next model to be considered is that of Bruyat and Julien (2000), who point to the individual’s commitment to the creation of new value as a defining principle of entrepreneurship. However, Moroz and Hindle (2012) note that there is a gap between creating and capturing new value and this relationship is not clarified.

The theory of effectuation developed by Sarasvathy (2001), is also considered by Moroz and Hindle (2012), in which entrepreneurs assess their personal capacities rather than the potential of the opportunity, display a keen awareness of what they can afford financially, engage with others, and expect and enjoy the unexpected. According to this theory, then, the most effective entrepreneurs are those who most thoroughly understand themselves as part of the entrepreneurial process. The effectual logic employed here emphasises opportunities for change presented in the entrepreneurial process, and is contrasted with causal logic, which relies on the prediction of what cannot be changed (Moroz & Hindle, 2012). Effectuation and effectual logic are further explored and debated in Goel and Karri (2006), Baron

(2009), and Dew et al. (2009), and are central to this thesis. As such, effectual logic is discussed in a dedicated section below (2.3.3). Moroz and Hindle (2012, p. 806) here briefly criticise effectual logic for "making too little of the requirement for purposeful human action – in a sense of setting and seeking to achieve goals – in an entrepreneurial process". Their wider problem with effectual logic in this instance is in its complexity and divisive stance on causal logic, which contradicts human agency based perspectives of entrepreneurship (Chiles, Gupta, & Bluedorn, 2009), and therefore, does not suit Moroz and Hindle's (2012) immediate aims of creating a unifying theory of entrepreneurial process. Rather than asserting or describing incompatibilities between causal and effectual logics, this thesis explores the relationship between and confluence of the two, finding the deployment of both aiding the hotelier in enacting the processes of his or her role.

Finally, Moroz and Hindle, (2012) consider the theory suggested by Shane (2003), who bases his framework for studying entrepreneurship on the point of connection between individual, opportunity, and environment. This holistic approach seeks to incorporate the mediating effects of the individual and the environment into a series of "potentially overlapping and recursive stages" (Moroz & Hindle, 2012, p. 806), encompassing the existence, discovery, and exploitation of opportunities. Again, Moroz and Hindle (2012) find a problem with the continuity of this theory, which emphasises the initial stages of the entrepreneurial process at the expense of continuous entrepreneurial involvement and evaluation.

Despite these criticisms, Moroz and Hindle (2012) do find six points at which the various studies considered converge. First, the specificity of the relationship between the individual and the opportunity is the critical moment in the entrepreneurial process: the right entrepreneur must encounter the right opportunity for the process to commence. Second is the critical assessment of knowledge as a transformative or disruptive mediating factor in any model. Third is the necessity of evaluating the value-creating role of the entrepreneur by devising new theories. The final three points may be understood as the entrepreneur's responsiveness to context. The entrepreneur must take decisive action that is both timely and which displays an adequate appreciation of context, for example, the community affected by the action (Moroz & Hindle, 2012).

It is clear that although studies differ in their theoretical frameworks and conceptual emphases, the diversity of voices does not render the entrepreneurial process beyond broad comprehension. One of the contemporary research agendas that have moved the entrepreneurship literature closer to a uniform definition is the focus on opportunity and its involvement in the entrepreneurial process.

2.3.1 Linear Processes

The study of this process has led to consideration of what level of analysis is appropriate to deepen understanding of entrepreneurship. Traditionally the level of analysis was on the individual as in Cantillon (1732). Wiklund et al. (2011) find that a greater proportion of contemporary studies consider the firm as an appropriate level of analysis on which to explore entrepreneurship, although a third still consider it at the individual level. This reveals that as a process entrepreneurship is not a phenomenon specific to the individual and can be manifest at an organisational level. Despite this, this agenda also apparently creates a distinction between entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur since, if a firm is found to be entrepreneurial in its processes, it does not necessarily imply that each individual working for the firm is an entrepreneur.

At an individual level, the consideration of the entrepreneurial process has moved beyond ‘end-driven’ considerations of opportunity seeking, originally framed by Simon (1976) as the process of listing deterministic outcomes from a set of problems that could then be chosen based on an assumed causal relationship between the problem and the predicted consequences. The contemporary framing of the process is ‘means-driven’ where opportunities are considered to emerge from the process of manoeuvring one’s way through the melange of uncertainty in an ever-changing environment. This process is predicated on the unpredictable outcomes that arise from dealing with the obstacles faced by individuals and the leveraging of resultant contingencies (Sarasvathy, 2001). The entrepreneurial process, then, is similar to Marcus Aurelius' meditation on impediment to action:

> "In one respect man is the nearest thing to me, so far as I must do good to men and endure them. But so far as some men make themselves obstacles to my proper acts, man becomes to me one of the things which are indifferent, no less than the sun or wind or a wild beast. Now it is true that these may impede my action, but they are no impediments to my affects and disposition, which have the power of acting conditionally and changing: for the mind converts and changes every hindrance to its activity into an aid; and so that which is a hindrance is made a furtherance to an act; and that which is an obstacle on the road helps us on this road…
>
> …The impediment to action advances action. What stands in the way becomes the way." (Aurelius, 170, p. 20)

Although behaviour is still on the research agenda, particularly in studies that focus on the individual as their level of analysis, studies apparently strive to disassociate behaviour from process or context. Gibb Dyer (1994) looks at the career process across multiple ventures among serial entrepreneurs to establish the process of entrepreneurship without contextual bias as context changes with each venture embarked upon by an individual. However, this approach diminishes the importance of context and an understanding of the underpinning behaviour that was forged within a specific context. Thus heuristics reveal that context and process are theoretically closely linked (Ucbasaran et al., 2001) and embedded behaviour (Granovetter, 1985) may well explain an individual's predisposition towards the entrepreneurial process, as is suggested in the work of Tversky and Kahneman (See Kahneman, 2003; Thaler, Tversky, Kahneman, & Schwartz, 1997; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974).

The interrelated pursuits of entrepreneurship research are bound by what Moroz and Hindle (2012, p. 781) define as the search for "what is both generic and distinct about entrepreneurship as a process”. It is in process that we are able to identify entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship simultaneously and moves us closer to answering Yeats’ (1928) question of how can we know the dancer from the dance? If it is possible to understand the process of entrepreneurship beyond both individual traits and specific contexts then the theoretical aspect of the phenomenon (that is both generalizable and specific) will deepen the field of entrepreneurship research.

The need to explore entrepreneurial opportunity and its exploitation as a conduit to economic development and production is highlighted by Sarasvathy et al. (2005b). The process of capitalising on opportunities had previously been implicit in theory or discussion yet never articulated as being an integral process, without which many economic consequences would remain unexplained. In the same discussions the need to acknowledge the historical narratives attached to any development is highlighted by Sarasvathy et al. (2005b). The distinctive features of entrepreneurial activity are argued to be the product of particular characteristics or behavioural traits; teamed with subjective ontologies, experiences and beliefs, as well as interaction with the environment (Cardon, Zietsma, Saparito, Matherne, & Davis, 2005; Dimov, 2011; Wiklund et al., 2011). This melange of factors and circumstance also incorporates a degree of luck or serendipity.

The formal economic approach is incapable of adequately engaging with these softer dimensions, attempting at best to theorise the entrepreneur as an economic actor defined by system-based functions rather than what Dimov (2011, p. 59) would describe as “the perpetuation of a cycle of venture ideas and actions orientated toward the formation and sustenance of market relationships.” It is this relationship aspect of the entrepreneur that extant enquiry has struggled to cope with. A call to move the study of entrepreneurship away from economic underpinning that ultimately considers objectively measurable forces, actions and reactions is resonant with current research in the field (see for example Leitch, Hill, & Harrison, 2010; Sarasvathy, 2004a, 2004b; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Ucbasaran et al., 2001). This allows the behaviour (Baron, 1998), motivations (Krueger et al., 2000; Shane, Locke, & Collins, 2003) and a more human perspective (Aldrich & Fiol, 1994) on the entrepreneur and their activities to be examined. This call moves the field of enquiry towards a deeply sociologically positioned ontology that privileges subjectivism and poststructuralist and social constructionist epistemologies (Sokal, 1996). This supports Shane and Venkataraman's (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000) appetite for legitimacy of the field and development beyond simply a context for research or tool for teaching.

2.3.2 Dynamic Processes

The research agenda for entrepreneurship has developed to explore how opportunities and individuals interact and what distinguishes this dynamic over other examples as representing the phenomenon of entrepreneurship (Gartner, 1990; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000,Gartner, 2001; Ucbasaran et al., 2001; Venkataraman, 2002). Sarasvathy (2004a) and Wiltbank et al. (2006) note the difficulty that resonates with Yeats (1956), understanding the entrepreneur or entrepreneurship as distinct phenomena requiring the subsequent, retrospective definition of the other. This would be to suggest that a dance can be engaged with and understood without the dancer, and more so, the dancer defined in terms other than when they are performing a dance. What Gartner (1990) implies and Sarasvathy (2004a) and Wiltbank et al. (2006) echo is that entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship are symbiotic phenomena, and it is theory that addresses the interface between the two that can make the most valuable contribution.

It is in this vein that Gartner (1990) suggests the combination of views between entrepreneurial traits and entrepreneurial behaviour, taking the dance and the dancer as a whole in order to understand the processes used to perform the dance effectively. He highlights a definitional problem for studies that posit personality traits or psychological characteristics that distinguish entrepreneurs. First, in studies such as Carland et al. (1984), the differentiating of the entrepreneur from the non-entrepreneur is an agenda commentated upon in contemporary scholarship. Sarasvathy (2004b) discusses the tendency of the literature to focus on a definition of entrepreneurs and in doing so judging all other lifeforms to be non-entrepreneurs.

This aligns to the “natural kind” versus species argument as originally posited by Lakoff (1999), the framing of an entrepreneur as a distinct member of a species group allows us to ascribe characteristics to their profile and differentiate among different types of entrepreneur. However, this returns the discourse to the same difficulty that Gartner (1990) discusses in coping with the taxonomy of entrepreneur types. Thus the debate continues, as scholars attempt to understand what entrepreneurs do and who they are, where they come from and whether any of these elements truly impact on our ability to better understand entrepreneurship as a field of enquiry.

The value of moving beyond the individual and being overly concerned with individual entrepreneurs is affirmed by Corporate entrepreneurship (CE). CE is an area of academic enquiry that uses the principles of entrepreneurship as a process and considers them within the context of overall organisational activity (Zahra & Covin, 1995). Corporate entrepreneurship was the natural progression for the study of entrepreneurship as a process rather than something being performed by an individual in the foundation of a business, as demonstrated by Zahra (1993). Attention on CE has developed a keener conceptualisation of what entrepreneurship is and what aspects of it are valued by removing entrepreneurship enquiry from its typical context and scrutinising it for its fundamental characteristics, beyond the situation in which it is typically accepted to take place (Resnick, 1991). Zahra (1991) notes that focus on innovation and willingness to take risks and be accepting of uncertain outcomes typify CE processes and it is possible to study these elements and then draw links between their prevalence and overall firm performance.

By examining the processes performed by organisations, scholars who study CE allow for some separation between our understanding of the processes involved in entrepreneurship and the capabilities, culture, and nature of those who perform them. Thus greater insight into the fundamental processes governing entrepreneurial behaviour can be considered since the principal driver behind attending to that particular unit of analysis (the firm performance) was not that it was identified as ‘an entrepreneur’ or as ‘entrepreneurial’ (Dess et al., 2003). As such, the growth of interest of entrepreneurship at firm level demonstrates the usefulness of studying entrepreneurship beyond the confines of traditional entrepreneurship.

These studies developed towards exploring entrepreneurial leadership, by applying the same questions of entrepreneurial processes to the context of leadership, irrespective of the entrepreneurial identity of the organisation in question. Zahra and Garvis (2000) highlight a significant precipitant of CE, hostile environments. Zahra and Covin (1995, p. 48) articulate such evidence that hostile environments, “characterized by high levels of competitive intensity, a paucity of readily exploitable market opportunities, tremendous competitive-, market-, and/or product-related uncertainties, and a general vulnerability to influence from forces and elements external to the firm's immediate environment.”, are coped with through entrepreneurial firm behaviour. Thus the debate is moved towards processes rather than being inhibited by trying to pigeon-hole the identities of individuals.

2.3.3 Effectual logic and effectuation

Effectual logic is presented by Sarasvathy (2003) as providing a framework that aids in the understanding of entrepreneurs and what they do, focussing on the interface between the internal and external environment of the entrepreneurial process. Broadly, these spaces are represented by the identity, background and resources of the individual and their firm (internal) and the trends, changes and climate in the industry at large (external). Sarasvathy (2001, p. 245) defines effectuation processes as taking “a set of means as given and selecting between possible effects that can be created with that set of means.” Sarasvathy (2001, p. 249) notes that decisions by those employing effectual logic are based on:

> “who they are, what they know, and whom they know form the primary set of means combined with contingencies to create an effect that is not preselected, but that gets constructed as an integral part of the effectuation process”.

Thus, these principles lead an individual to a unique set of consequences based on a unique set of circumstances. Goals are not projected based on what one expects to happen, they are instead actualised through leveraging what is available and can be controlled. The divide between corporate, formal and informal relationships is also blurred by this perspective, in that customers can become as integral to the effectuation process as colleagues, suggesting the importance of actions and relationships in all spheres:

> "(Effectuation is) useful in understanding and dealing with spheres of human actions, especially when dealing with uncertainties of future phenomena and problems of existence." (Sarasvathy, 2001, p. 326).

This process helps us understand how uncertainties are avoided and contingencies are managed in the business environment. However, a question remains as to what the process of enacting effectuation looks like and how individuals mitigate uncertainty within themselves, since effectuation as a theory makes the apparent assumption that one's personal set of resources are objectively useful. This notion can be tempered by the acknowledgment that any set of personal resources, especially relationships, are by implication a source of support, therefore they will be valuable.

The entrepreneurial process subsists as an interface of design between the two environments. The effectual problem space, as Sarasvathy (2003, p. 66) defines it, is characterised by three specific areas and offers a suggestion for the approach to coping with this problem by accepting a logical position resting in a space that neither adheres to stock notions of rationalities nor represents irrationality. The benefit of this is to avoid a "false dichotomy" of rationality and irrationality as being two distinct entities. She suggests this approach is characterised by the following:

- Non-predictive – i.e., not taking the event space for probabilities as given and immutable;

- Non-teleological – i.e., not taking preferences and goals as pre-existent or unchangeable; and,
- Non-adaptive – i.e., not taking the environment as exogenous or as something to respond to and 'fit' with.

This space is further described with the question:

> "Where do we find rationality when the environment does not independently influence outcomes or even rules of the game (Weick, 1979), the future is truly unpredictable (Knight, 1921), and the decision maker is unsure of his/her own preferences (March, 1987)?" (Sarasvathy and Simon, 2000, p. 4)

This approach engenders an inverse disposition towards uncertainty and irrationality (Lewin &Volberda, 1999). It is these elements that characterise the space in which the individual operates, rather than being things that should be avoided or reduced through particular activities:

> "Causal strategies are useful when the future is predictable, goals are clear and the environment is independent of our actions; effectual strategies are useful when the future is unpredictable, goals are unclear and the environment is driven by human action." (Sarasvathy, 2003, p.73)

Five principles are presented to explain the premise upon which individuals will act (Sarasvathy, 2001; 2008). The first principle is *The Patchwork Quilt*, where the individual acknowledges that the future is unpredictable, and focuses on controlling and creating futures with what one has rather than what one expects to happen. In particularly, by using the personal proximate network, stakeholders can be identified and worked with in an organic way to build and create ideas collectively, this stimulates action and mitigates uncertainty. This emphasises the means-driven nature of effectuation. With *Affordable Loss* it is assumed that risk may not be able to be accurately calculated so decisions are made based on what can be manageably lost as a consequence of an action if it were to prove unsuccessful, therefore control is returned to the individual to mitigate uncertainty and achieve a manageable outcome even if the worst case transpires. This allows experimentation within the limits of what can be lost. Third, *The Lemonade Principle* describes the process of leveraging contingencies when unexpected consequences occur. This resists trying to predict consequences; rather surprises are embraced and seen as a chance to learn or create something new. The *Bird-in-hand* principle means working with the resources you have is an effective course to action. By building on the resources you have from who you are, what you know and who you know, progress can be made positively and quickly. Finally, *Pilot-in-the-plane* advocates the power of human agency, and focusses on what can be controlled, achieved and created by the individual. Opportunity is seen as a product of human agency interacting with the environment, rather than the environment being an arena where opportunities are latent and available to all.

Within business research, and particularly within entrepreneurship research, the level of analysis thus becomes pivotal. Previous studies that explore the notion of choice, rationality, will and vision (Sarasvathy, 2003: Giddens, 1979; Lewin and Volberda, 1999) attend to a level of analysis that would preclude the understanding of how entrepreneurs actually navigate this space of uncertainty. This is echoed in Kundera (1995) where he describes the uncertainty of man's journey through life, only being enlightened through reflexivity and reflection as he looks back on his path.

Effectuation is advocated at a firm level as well as the individual and approaching strategic thinking from the perspective of alliances complemented by leveraging contingencies is argued by Sarasvathy and Kotha (2001) to offer a more realistic view than those that traditionally focus on one specific area such as the positioning school characterised by Porter and the resources school characterised by Barney. According to Lavie and Rosenkopf (2006), networks facilitate the development of opportunities; they give access to information and trends within an industry. This is echoed by Alvarez et al. (2001) who advocate the value of embeddedness within proximate networks both internal and external to the organisation.

Beyond the need to squarely acknowledge the role of the entrepreneur in any economic considerations, as Papanak (1962, 46) rather ironically notes that to “stress the importance of entrepreneurs hardly qualifies one as an innovator.” The contemporary development of the nature of the firm requires consideration at this point. Schloss (1968) highlights the heritage of entrepreneurship as a concept first embraced by classical and neoclassical economics. The etymology of the term is noted and the associations with the bearing of risk as a counterpoint to perceived potential reward is seen as a core element to the entrepreneur’s role and motivation. Schloss (1968) endeavours to articulate the importance of the changing nature of the firm in the contemporary, citing the common disparity between ownership and control as significant to the manner in which entrepreneurship as a concept should be handled. Further, the practice of identifying opportunities is considered as an additional element to the process that might also occur beyond the realms of ownership and control. He presents a division of the term to make the concept of entrepreneurship more palatable for contemporary study:

- Recognition of new business opportunities
- Bearing financial risk
- Managing the enterprise, bearing reputational risk

The traditional definition of entrepreneurship would seek to incorporate all of these elements within the activities of one individual, sympathetic to the dated notion of a business being conceived, developed and managed by one individual who was burdened with the entirety of the risk and responsibility that came with that role. Our contemporary economic landscape is one of disintegrated and complex structures that demonstrates extreme examples of each individual element presented above by Schloss (1968), however, examples of entrepreneurs that manifest all three characteristics are perhaps best described as outliers.

The contemporary make-up of the firm and the specialisms and macro level economic infrastructure that permeate it suggest that entrepreneurship should be explored as an overarching activity that is espoused by any of the above three divisions alone rather than as a conglomerate. Despite the departure from the traditional perspective on entrepreneurship, Schloss' (1968) nod to the etymology of the term allows for an enlightening consideration. The deconstruction of the term presents the entrepreneur as an individual who successfully interfaces between two spheres, as the three divisions represent here: between the current status quo and new opportunities; between one's current financial state and the potential for improvement through risk; and between multiple actors operating within an established enterprise. Therefore, the etymology of the term itself accommodates the division suggested by Schloss (1968) and allows any one of the three elements to be engaged with as entrepreneurship.

The positive impact effective management of contingencies can have on performance is highlighted by Read et al. (2009a). Contingencies should be managed both in terms of incorporating change and imparting it. This is cited by Read et al. (2009b) as being integral to the effectuation process; however, the actual process of how contingencies are managed and what characterises the enactment of effectuation is not dealt with in these studies. There is also some debate as to the value of effectuation. Goel and Karri (2006) present the idea of 'over-trust' as a product of effectuation. Geh (2011) also suggests that the effectuation process can create an illusion as to environmental stability, as the indicators of stability are purposefully selected from within one's personal set of resources. Because of this, March (1991) warns of difficulties developing from an over-reliance on networks whereby the implicit delegation of responsibility encourages relented effort and subsequent underperformance. This presents effectuation as a theory with limitations when it comes to informing action since it could direct an individual towards ever self-affirming cycles of decision making and lead to inappropriate or inefficient action.

2.4 Contextualising Entrepreneurship

The literature has become mindful of context in recent times. Zahra (2007) sets out the importance of context to research in entrepreneurship. Dimov (2011) encourages the conceptualisation of the entrepreneur within a theoretical context that supports the need for the individual and the environment to interact in a potentially unique way that precipitates the genesis of an idea followed by action. The uniqueness of this relationship between individual and context and the difficulty in framing it as a process until the genesis of an idea (and subsequent venture) has taken place inhibits its quantification or concrete definition. A core aspect of one's position on entrepreneurial opportunity is the assumptions made of the individual who is seizing a particular opportunity and where that opportunity sits relative to the wider economy and other external conditions (Dimov, 2011).

Context is described by Welter (2011) as having a recursive relationship with entrepreneurship. The principle upon which this notion is developed in context is important in the formation of ideas about entrepreneurship. Context influences the manner in which activities take place, but we also see evidence of entrepreneurial activities having direct influence on the way in which their context changes around them. Therefore, context should not be separated from the processes being considered, according to Welter (2011), since the character of these phenomena is both contingent upon context and it, in turn, is contingent upon them. Studies such as that of Ucbasaran et al. (2001) consider context in detail in discussing how the characteristics of the environment influence the behaviour of executives when it comes to decisions relating to entrepreneurial activity in the corporate environment. Ucbasaran et al.'s (2001) discussion of context is based solely on the business environment, distinguishing among venturing, purchasing, franchising and inheriting as being significant contextual conditions that influence the manner in which entrepreneurship as a phenomenon comes to our attention. Welter's (2011) extension of this moves the focus away from purely business activities and, indeed, the individual as the primary unit of concern; the 'omnibus' context is acknowledged alongside the 'discrete' context in order to include broader ideas such as social and institutional frameworks for entrepreneurship. Omnibus context and discrete context are the two levels of analysis proposed by Johns (2006) when considering organisational behaviour, he describes the acknowledgement of context as essential, yet the manifold contextual influences and variables point towards the difficulty in theorising entrepreneurship whilst accommodating such variances of context. Welter (2011) highlights this issue, discussing the circular challenge of theorising context and contextualising theory, noting that there is an issue of allowing the context to overshadow the unit of analysis, leading to restrictive rather than expansive insights.

From this, the question of how to theorise entrepreneurship when dealing with the complexities of context is raised; the challenges of 'contextualising theory' and 'theorising context' are approached. The suggestion is that to drive towards an overarching theory of entrepreneurship would be reductionist, diminishing the value offered by incorporating the rich diversity and complexity of entrepreneurship in context. Further, the recommendation is made by Welter (2011, p. 177) that an interdisciplinary approach that: "explore(s) the variety, depths, and richness of contexts" would strengthen the field of entrepreneurship as a whole. This chimes with Zahra's (2007, p. 444) suggestion of "delineating the boundaries of newness of these contexts" so that findings can be gathered in order for studies that have been developed using the same theoretical bases to be aligned in a meaningful way and build towards a cohesive theoretical framework rather than an incoherent landscape of context-specific contingencies. Zahra (2007, p. 444) goes on to say that theories cannot be developed without understanding and acknowledging the context in which they are developed: "Theoretically grounded studies pay particular attention to the context of their research and account for its complexity, uniqueness and richness." In order to develop theory that is able to converse with the prevailing debates in the field, coherent and comprehensive treatment of the context in which the research is being conducted is necessary, one that both attends to the discrete and omnibus contexts, as laid out by Johns (2006). The broader omnibus context is also referred to by Welter (2011) as the 'context lens' and it incorporates the social and spatial aspects to give a textured picture of the situation in which the research subject(s) are being scrutinised. The circular debate of context and theory is a nuanced one, but one that must always begin with sincere and comprehensive understanding and acceptance of context.

A further difficulty highlighted by Zahra (2007) is that, in acknowledging the importance of context, we define the contexts in which theory has previously been developed as ‘entrepreneurial’ contexts, thus implying that there are objective criteria that render a context fertile for studying entrepreneurial activity and equally those that render it infertile. This implies that it may not be appropriate to apply the same theory in a context selected at random since the context in which the theory was originally developed was intermeshed with the theory itself and, as a result, the new context will not provide conditions in which the same phenomena can be observed. Although Zahra (2007, p. 446) notes this simply as a missed opportunity for quality theory building where the particular units of analysis are not able to be considered as deeply as they might be, were the context to be better understood:

> “Entrepreneurship researchers miss an opportunity to enrich their theory building when they overlook the characteristics of the phenomena they study in terms of their newness, uniqueness, magnitude, frequency, and complexity.”

This complexity is cited as being manifest deep inside the individual entrepreneurs according to Zahra (2007), something that is partially contested by Welter (2011), who encourages against the traditional preoccupation with the individual situated within the singular context of enquiry. There is some apparent disagreement in the literature as to how best to capture the value of context and of how to build theory effectively, although there is accordance with the belief that context is essential, as Weick (1995b, p. 389) notes: “[the] key lies in the context – what came before, what comes after.”

The question of contextual embeddedness when it comes to research on entrepreneurial process is highlighted by Zahra (2007); disentangling the features that are context–specific and those that are attributable to the process in question can be difficult. This is especially true when considering a singular context since there is no means of cross-comparing elements to determine their position, something that is echoed by Welter (2011) in the discussions of single context studies. Another challenge associated with engaging in a new context is that assumptions that are developed based on enquiry within other contexts are applied in error in the new context, according to Zahra (2007). The result of this is that analysis is skewed towards assuming certain environmental structures will behave in a certain way and, as a result, studies make inaccurate or, worse, misleading conclusions.

The fact that it is undeniable that entrepreneurs do exist and they operate and perform their venturing endeavours in a manner that adds value to conventional commercial dynamics invites economic theory to readjust its position on market equilibrium and the nature of creation of new products and services. Swedberg (1996) calls for the sociological conception of markets, aiming to understand the emergence of organisations and products from an environment that relies on creativity from subjective imagination (Shackle, 1955) and personal dynamics as much as market forces. These ideas have been developed and published during the process of writing this literature review in MacLaren, Young and Lochrie (2013) where the importance of acknowledging context is demonstrated.

2.5 Entrepreneurship in the Contemporary Hotel Industry

Entrepreneurship and small to medium businesses reflect the majority of activity within the hospitality and tourism sector, according to Morrison (1998). A great deal of enquiry has taken place into entrepreneurship in this sector exploring home based hospitality and other small holding farming type products (See: Di Domenico, Jones, & Haven-Tang, 2005; Di Domenico & Lynch, 2007; Di Domenico & Miller, 2012). It has widely been explored with the intention of highlighting what entrepreneurial activity takes place in the industry but entrepreneurship has not been scrutinised for the sake of entrepreneurial theory within hotels, and this presents an opportunity whereby entrepreneurship as a field of enquiry can be extended by exploration within the context of the hotel industry specifically.

The hospitality, leisure, sports and tourism industries are described by Ball (2005) as archetypal entrepreneurial industries in which individual entrepreneurs must respond dynamically with innovation to rapid shifts in consumer demands and expectations. Cichy, Beck and Elsworth (2009) identify six practices of hotel entrepreneurship in their brief questionnaire-based study of the hospitality industry. These are: intrapersonal communication, interpersonal communication, agility, creative savviness, problem-solving pragmatism and legacy leader. Intrapersonal communication is essentially self-awareness, and links to the notion of the expert entrepreneur identified by Sarasvathy (2001, 2006) as one who is aware of their own needs and expectations, as well as of the limits of their investment capabilities. Interpersonal communication in entrepreneurship is not only about communicating a clear vision of what is to be achieved, but also listening to the perspectives of others in refining that vision. Agility encompasses adaptability, autonomy, decision-making, independence, and resourcefulness, and is refined to be understood as focused risk taking (Elworth, Beck & Cichy, 2008). Again, this chimes with Sarasvathy's (2001, 2006) theory of effectual logic, in that the hotel entrepreneur must learn to look for elements of the business in which they can effect positive change, rather than rely on predictions of what cannot be changed (Sarasvathy, 2001, 2006).

The practice of creative savviness is similarly driven by a focus on opportunities for change, as well as the anticipation of customer needs and desires. Problem-solving pragmatism is essentially knowledge of accounts and the market, and is perhaps differentiated from general management in the ability of the entrepreneur to solve problems at a slight remove from the business whilst holding themselves accountable. The legacy leader practice identified in this study attests to the importance of continuity in entrepreneurship, even if this is initially only the suggestion of continuity, as when an entrepreneur discusses a product or service as if it has already been realised, even if only in the early stages of development (Cichy, Beck & Elsworth, 2009).

Small hotel entrepreneurs are specifically considered by Glancey and Pettigrew (1997), finding that these entrepreneurs are mostly of the ‘opportunistic’ variety identified by Smith (1967). Glancey and Pettigrew (1997, p. 21) describe the opportunistic entrepreneur as:

> “characterized by their middle class, white collar background, higher level of educational attainment and professional management style. They are motivated by economic objectives and pursue profits and growth, although the pursuits of these objectives may be limited by a desire to retain autonomy over key decision-making processes within the firm. These entrepreneurs will operate in any markets in which they have spotted an opportunity, and may have no previous technical experience of the product or service. They adopt an aloof, administrative function in the firm rather than being involved ‘hands-on’...and are proactive in marketing their product strategically.”

The factors that spur individuals to create hotel and restaurant businesses are discussed by Ramos-Rodriguez, Medina-Garrido, and Ruiz-Navarro (2012), finding that young, female individuals with an above average household income are more likely to become entrepreneurs in the hotel industry. These individuals will tend to lack the fear of failure, and show awareness of good business opportunities in their immediate environment (Ramos-Rodriguez, Madina-Garrido, and Ruiz-Navarro, 2012). Perhaps the most interesting finding in this study is that although higher education level is not shown to affect the decision to become a hotel entrepreneur, “the most important factor behind the decision…is having confidence in one’s skills, knowledge and experience in startups” (Ramos-Rodriguez, Medina-Garrido, and Ruiz-Navarro, 2012, p. 586). These findings indicate the importance of the individual’s understanding of his or her own abilities in business; implicit personal narratives that extend beyond formal education.

Strategic entrepreneurship in the hotel industry is discussed by Carlbäck (2012); it is defined by Webb et al. (2013) in terms of exploration and exploitation, specifically as exploring future business domains while exploiting current domains. Focusing on family-owned businesses, Webb et al. (2010) suggest that strategic entrepreneurship may be ensured through the development of an appropriate mindset, achieving the balance between exploitation and exploration, and continuous innovation (Carlbäck, 2012, Webb et al., 2010). As Carlbäck (2012) explains, the mindset should show a balance between short and long-term objectives, and incorporate an understanding of the firm's position in terms of exploitation and exploration. The firm should assess whether this is the time to build on the situation as it stands, or explore new ways of maintaining a competitive advantage (Carlbäck, 2012). Within these processes, Carlbäck (2012) follows Webb et al. (2010) in identifying four dimensions crucial to selecting strategies. The *identity* of the firm must be established, being the values and traditions associated with the firm. *Justification* must be given for certain decisions, which should be based on analysed outcomes. The incidence of *nepotism* must also be considered, particularly regarding the family business, in which members of the family may receive preferential treatment. The fourth dimension to be considered when discerning strategies is managing *conflict*, such as those that may occur in the case of a hotel becoming affiliated. The centrality of continuous innovation to the hotel industry cannot be underestimated, with the use of smartphones, social media, and online review sites affecting the ways in which consumers make choices about where they wish to stay. Carlbäck (2012) finds that the tourism and hospitality industries have traditionally been comparatively slow to adopt and adapt to new technologies. An entrepreneur in the hotel industry may thus quickly define him or herself by proving adept at incorporating innovation in technology into their strategy.

Following Smith (1967) and Glancey and Pettrigrew (1997), Carlbäck (2012) finds further research that divides entrepreneurs in the hotel industry into categories such as 'non-entrepreneurs', 'constrained entrepreneurs' or 'true entrepreneurs' (Getz & Petersen, 2005; Williams & Shaw, 2011). 'True entrepreneurs' are those that pursue financial gain by utilising innovative management skills, and may be likened to the 'opportunistic' entrepreneurs identified above. In his study of Swedish hoteliers, Carlbäck (2012) finds that these 'true entrepreneurs' encounter difficulty when running independent, non-affiliated hotels, due to the relatively slow uptake of technological innovations, and the difficulty in acquiring and deploying marketing strategies such as the use of loyalty cards (Carlbäck, 2012). Of course, the benefits of affiliation come at a cost, both the potential literal economic cost and the loss of the entrepreneur's strategic autonomy, due to the imposition of affiliated salary and managerial structures (Carlbäck, 2012).

Again, these findings indicate the importance of the individual hotelier's ability to define and redefine him or herself in relation to the contextual specificities of his or her situation. Hitherto, the literature on entrepreneurship, even that segment that offers assessments of the hotel industry, has yet to explore the processes through which the individual hotelier enacts his or her role. This thesis addresses this gap by examining the specific ways in which personal narratives inform the ways in which hoteliers enact their role.

2.6 Conclusion

The resolution of entrepreneurship around a working definition and a united research agenda has moved the field forward significantly in the 21st Century. Several areas for enquiry remain within the field: what the entrepreneur's role is (Delmar & Davidsson, 2000; Fölster, 2000), what becomes of entrepreneurial actions (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Baumol, 1990; Klein, 2008; Lau & Bruton, 2010; Liu, Li, & Xue, 2010), why entrepreneurs act in the first place (Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991; Kirzner, 1999; Schumpeter, 1934), what distinguishes entrepreneurial opportunity (Fletcher, 2006; Görling & Rehn, 2008; Hsieh et al., 2007; Klein, 2008; Sarasvathy et al., 2005b; Shane, 2003), how entrepreneurial opportunities are framed (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Dimov, 2007, 2011; Fletcher, 2006), and does the understanding of entrepreneurship teach us anything greater about the economy or society in general? (Sarasvathy & Venkataraman, 2011). In its broadest sense, it has moved from being explored in an expansive way to more focused enquiry, deconstructing the apparent constituent elements of entrepreneurs and their pursuits. Table 2-2 demonstrates the general focus of the literature in entrepreneurship.

Table 2-2 Emergent themes from the Entrepreneurship Literature

Literature	Reference
Dynamic, discontinuous process	Bygrave (1993)
Defined by personality traits	Jago (1982)
Opportunity recognition	Dimov (2011)
Bearing risk and uncertainty within a management position	Cantillon (1732)
Economic interface between landowners and hirelings	Say (1802)
Organise efforts, process and raw materials	Shane (2003)
Comfortable with uncertainty	Knight (1921)
Faced with multiple unknown preferences and consequences	Sarasvathy (2003)
Emerges from human action and interaction	Von Mises (1912, 1966)
The architect of creative destruction	Kirzner (1973)
Defined by behaviour	Jacobson (1992)
Creating new combinations of business activity	Schumpeter (1934)
Interaction and intersubjective relationships underpin entrepreneurship	Polanyi et al. (1957)
Relationships	Dimov (2011)
Markets are created through imagination and creativity	Swedberg (1996)
A product of background, identity, and network	Sarasvathy (2003)
Heroic market figure	Ebner (2005)

Consideration of entrepreneurship during the 20th Century has espoused several emergent tensions despite prevailing accord among researchers on its core characteristics. (Churchill & Lewis, 1986; Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991; Davidsson, 2003; Sexton & Smilor, 1986; Shane, 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2001; Wiklund et al., 2011). Overall, it has developed a great deal as it has become a more deeply investigated subject.

This Chapter has identified several key features of the entrepreneurship literature that lead to an emergent opportunity for enquiry:

- Returning to the roots of entrepreneurship
- Acknowledging the contemporary industrial structures at play

- Exploring the identity and background of actors in conjunction with their actions
- In acknowledgement of the roots of entrepreneurship, exploration for its presence in other organisational contexts.
- Exploring the nature of the enactment of effectual logic and its relationship with causal logic.

The following chapter discusses the field of leadership, establishing the theoretical foundations upon which to build the analysis of leadership in the context of hoteliers in the hotel industry. This discussion identifies a further lack of attention paid to hoteliers, despite the asserted applicability of this dynamic context to a study of leadership.

3 Leadership

3.1 Introduction

Leadership has been considered by writers indirectly throughout history. It is the focal point of many historical works and chronicles of particular individuals as previously referred to in the work of Butler and Russell (2010) and as Bass (1990) alludes to with figures such as Napoleon and Ghandi. There is even consideration of Jesus in a leadership context (See for example Briner & Pritchard, 2009; Ford & Hahn, 1991; Jones, 1995). Over the last century academic enquiry has attempted to develop leadership into a theoretical construct in its own right and it has subsequently evolved into multiple distinct fields of study (Bass, 1990; Bennis, 1959; House, 1977; Weber, 1947; Yukl, 1989; Zaleznik, 1966). It is not the aim of this chapter to develop a definition of leadership; the difficulty in doing so is one of the major challenges faced by the literature. As Stogdill (1948) notes, the number of authors contributing to the field equal the number of different theories and approaches that exist. However, in parallel, the very core of the debate in defining leadership that concerns the literature is also illustrative of its nature. As Gupta, Rui, and Yayla (2011) and Liu, Siu, and Shi (2010) highlight, context, environment and perspective have an impact on how leadership is considered, framed and ultimately defined.

Where the leadership literature more broadly displays difficulties is in conflicting ideas on leadership itself. Defining leadership is, as has been stated, an overarching problem of the literature, yet the development of theories indicates that leadership as a phenomenon cannot be defined; it can only be understood through engagement with its constituent manifestations and reconciled as a group of related theories that are not mutually exclusive (Bono & Judge, 2004). Yet, the individual theories that have branched off from original enquiry, into how the great leaders of the past achieved what they achieved (Bass, 1990; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996; Yukl, 1989; Yukl & Yukl, 2002), represent a degree of complementarity that at least offers a more enlightening notion of leadership as a collective than they can do individually. Burns (1996, p. 148) asks the question, “Can we see the forest for the trees?" concluding that the myriad theories of leadership are not necessarily particularly useful individually, but collectively form a reasonable explanation for the phenomenon. Thus, leadership has become such a broad area of enquiry that defining it in brief seems redundant and attempts to do so resound as inadequate or shallow.

As with the above work on entrepreneurship, the following discussion of leadership helps to further build the theoretical foundations upon which to consider leadership (and entrepreneurship) in the context of the hotel industry.

3.2 The Leadership Process

Theories developed during the past century are summarised in Table 3-1, however, perspectives on leadership in the literature are seen to have evolved from one general approach of leadership traits (Northouse, 2009b) and another as leadership processes (Jago, 1982). The trait–based approach is representative of initial research into leadership, emerging from an industrial era where manufacturing was the driver of the economy and leaders administered tasks to workers who performed to simply earn a living (Bernard, 1926; Homer, 2003; Zaccaro, 2007). Leadership traits were considered to be 'nature' rather than 'nurture' and leaders were considered to be born for the job.

Recent attempts to define leadership (Drucker, 1999; Maxwell, 2007; Northouse, 2009b) are connected through the acknowledgement of the leader's ability to influence others, "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2009b, p. 4). The leadership process approach gives more consideration to context and the role played by followers within the leadership dynamic (Howell & Shamir, 2005). This is accepted as the contemporary framing of leadership and theories emerging from it are described as "new leadership theories" (Northouse, 2009b). House and Howell (1992a, p. 83) state that:

> “Over the last 15 years a substantial body of theory and empirical evidence has been accumulated concerning exceptional leaders who have extraordinary effects on their followers and eventually on social systems. Such leadership - alternatively called ‘charismatic’ (House, 1977; Weber, 1947), ‘visionary’ (Sashkin, 1989), ‘transformational’ (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), and ‘inspirational’ (Yukl, 1982) - is claimed to influence followers in ways that are quantitatively greater and qualitatively different than the follower effects specified in past leadership theories. We refer to this new genre of leadership theories as charismatic because charisma is a central concept in all of them, either explicitly or implicitly.”

Much of the theory discussed in this chapter refers to the leadership process (Jago, 1982). Simola, et al. (2010) focus on an ongoing process that develops a reflexive dialogue to move away from ideas of exchange with leader follower relationships and look at the desire for care of others from the leader’s perspective. This is a welcome alternative to justice-based views but it also distances the debate from considering the role of followers in the relationship. These theories are presented alongside their main contributors in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1 Summary of leadership theories

Leadership Theory	Definition	Seminal Work(s)	Contributors
Authentic	Founded in a positive attitude and strong personal ethics, co-created in a relationship between leader and followers that is trustworthy and honest.	(Masarech, 2001)	Archer (2009); Avolio & Gardner (2005); Blausten (2009); Champy (2009); Criswell & Campbell (2008); Jensen & Luthans (2006); Ladkin & Taylor (2010); Macik-Frey, et al. (2009); Marshall & Heffes (2004); Masarech (2001) Northouse (2009a); Wong & Cummings (2009)
Charismatic	Driving oneself and the vision for the organisation toward a higher goal that inspires employees beyond simply carrying out their work. Inspiring followers to work collectively toward a higher goal.	(Weber, 1968) (House, 1977)	Agle, el al. (2006); Bass & Steidlmeier (1999); Binning (1990); Conger & Kanungo (1987); Deluga (1997); Fanelli & Grasselli (2006); Flynn & Staw (2004); Gardner & Avolio (1998); Hollander (1990) ; Hopfl (1992); House (1977); House & Howell (1992a); Howell & Shamir (2005); Javidan & Carl (2004); Meindl (2001); Shamir, et al. (1993); Shamir, et al. (1998); Waldman & Yammarino (1999)
Laissez-faire	Passive leadership style.	(Burns, 1978) (Bass, 1985)	Antonakis (2001); Arends (1997); Barnett, et al. (2005);Canty (2006); Deluga (1990); Deluga (1992); Eagly, et al. (2003); Frittz (2005); Hinkin & Schriesheim (2008); Perkel (2000); Spinelli (2006)
Narcissistic	Elements relate to transformational and charismatic leadership and it can be considered positive or negative as a style: “destructive” or “constructive”; unjustified belief in one’s own abilities or inspiring confidence that encourages people to swarm around the leader.	(Freud, 1937) (Kernberg, 1967, 1979, 1989) (Kohut, 1971)	Brown (1997a); Campbell & Foster, (2007); Chatterjee & Hambrick, (2007); Emmons (1984; 1987); Freud (1937); Glad (2002); Harrison & Clough, (2006); Hotchkiss, (2003); Kernberg (1967, 1979, 1989); Kets de Vries & Miller (1985); Kohut (1971); Maccoby (2000); Paunonen, et al. (2006); Post (1993); Post (1986); Raskin & Hall, (1981); Rosenthal & Pittinsky (2006)
Transactional	Based on administering of tasks and giving direct reward for their completion.	(Burns, 1978)	Burns (1978); Bass (1985); Ismail et al. (2010); Jamaludin et al. (2011); Kezar & Eckel (2008); Pieterse et al. (2010); Riaz & Haider (2010); Rowold & Rohmann (2009); Vecchio et al. (2008) Zagorek et al. (2009)
Transformational	Process based leadership, using relationships. Based on articulation of vision and motivating followers to work towards that goal.	(Burns, 1978)	Bass (1985); Burns (1978); Gupta et al. (2011); Liu et al. (2010); Paarlberg & Lavigna (2010); Schwepker & Good (2010); Tourish & Pinnington (2002); Tourish et al. (2010); Waldman, et al. (2006)
Entrepreneurial	The basis for creating, enhancing and encouraging horizontal ties among the members, where they view each other as peers and partners, look toward each other, build awareness of each other and consider each other as resources.	(Harrison & Leitch, 1994) (Fernald, et al. 2005)	Bouty (2000); Day (2000); Harrison & Leitch (1994); Kuratko, (2007); Leitch et al. (2013); Tsai and Ghoshal (1998)
Distributed	Leadership as being performed by the group, where leadership is evident in the actions of many organisational members.	(Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). (Gronn, 2002)	Gronn (2002); Madison (1994); Shamir (1999); Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, & Jung (2002); Spillane (2012); Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond (2001).

The transactional leader is a concept formed by the work of Burns (1978), Avolio, Waldman, and Einstein (1988) and Waldman, Bass, and Einstein (1987); it describes an individual who "exchanges valent rewards contingent upon a display of desired behaviours" (Galen & Kevin, 1996, p. 386). This style of leadership is considered by Burns (1978) to be underpinned by social exchange theory, where action is incentivised and prescribed. Yammarino and Bass (1990) and Waldman and Yammarino (1999) assert that this form of leadership is incapable of inspiring or emotionally stimulating followers and can therefore potentially leave the organisation bereft of creativity and cultural cohesion. Transactional leadership is characterised by incentives and exception. Management by exception involves management intervention only when tasks are not completed or processes deviate from the prescribed plan (Bittel, 1964; Hater & Bass, 1988; Riaz & Haider, 2010). Thus the process is cold, non-interactive and ultimately sterile (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Pieterse et al., 2010). Meindl (2001) Zagorek, Dimovski, and Kerlavaj (2009) note that the resonant overtones of transactional leadership are those of restrictive bureaucratic control that is focused more on maintenance and standardised processes than development.

A counter-narrative to the notion that the prescriptive nature of transactional leadership stands at odds with transformational leadership is offered by Bass (1985). He argues that transformational and transactional leadership can function in a complementary way. This study was based on a laboriously developed questionnaire, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the scales from which have been adopted in nearly 100 studies since (Galen & Kevin, 1996). The basis of this study has precipitated a great deal of contributions to the leadership literature and has also identified what are defined as leadership factors: charisma, inspirational, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception and laissez-faire leadership. These related factors have developed into notional theories of leadership in their own right. Yet, Bass's (1985) research is underpinned by two ostensible assumptions: that leadership should be studied from a psychological/behavioural perspective and that 'traits' or 'styles' such as transactional and transformational are fixed and quantifiable leadership characteristics. Although, in essence, Bass's (1985) attempt to reconcile two apparently opposed concepts of leadership represents development of the literature, it nonetheless seems focused on the preconception that leadership is there to be measured.

Transformational leadership aims to inspire followers, driving them from within (Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006; Ensley, Pearce, & Hmieleski, 2006). Productivity is considered to develop from the dynamic created between leader and followers and this relationship, therefore, sits at the heart of the success of this process, one that Jung and Avolio (1999) note is founded on mutual trust and personal commitment from both parties. This is different from the more bureaucratic, exchange-based perspective of transactional leadership, which is founded on the principle of appropriately incentivising action (Ismail et al., 2010; Jamaludin et al., 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010; Riaz & Haider, 2010). The effect of transformational leadership upon followers is defined by Jung, Chow, and Wu (2003) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) as intrinsic motivation, where individuals seek to move beyond their own capabilities and commit to a cause greater than their own individual pursuits. This gives an impression of the figurative power of effective transformational leadership.

The highlighted significance of the development of a trust-based relationship between leader and followers, within a transformational leadership dynamic, elicits considerations of moral and ethical outlooks. The notion espoused by Jung, Chow, and Wu (2003), Thomas and Velthouse (1990) and Jung and Avolio (1999) is that transformational leaders inspire other organisational members to follow them in a cohesive drive towards a common goal. The nature of vision, values and behaviour is, therefore, intimately wedded to the moral outlook of the leader and the extent to which decision making is ethically motivated (Simola et al., 2010; Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher, & Milner, 2002).

Many studies engaging with ethics theory base their approach on Kohlbergian (1969) assumptions of moral cognitive development (Cohen & Cornwell, 1989; Gioia, 1992;

Trevino, 1986; Victor & Stephens, 1994; Weaver & Trevino, 1994). The question of whether or not business ethics even has a place for discussion within the broader sphere of ethical enquiry is raised by Trevino (1986). However, she notes that ethics inform our ability to navigate uncertainty, and the business environment is constantly changing and uncertain. Ethically informed decision making, therefore, has a valuable place in organisational leadership. However, the notion that leaders' goals and impetus to pursue them are founded in a moral schema that calls them to inspire followers, as some studies have indicated (Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2008; Simola et al., 2010), is somewhat contentious. Simola, et al. (2010) also question other studies' application of Kohlberg's (1969) theory of justice, using instead a theory of 'care' to analyse leaders' decisions. This alternative approach to the conceptualisation of leadership has been developed by Simola (2003, 2005) in order to contribute in a manner that distances itself from developing a set of inflexible principles or rules to ascribe to ethical decision making. Other studies have highlighted this as a necessary perspective on the position and impact of leaders along with the need to consider other perspectives such as the market and the socio-political environment (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Elsayed, 2010; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Shamir et al., 1998). Simola, et al. (2010) also use statistical regression to ultimately draw conclusions which emerge as incongruent with the spirit of ethical reasoning and the notion that leadership exists as a product of interactions.

The connection between moral outlook and transformational leadership style relates to the emotional sensibilities of transformational leaders. An ability to fathom how to navigate the emotional forces at play within an organisational dynamic enables the transformational leader to make decisions that suit the actors involved. Moral reasoning is identified categorically as having a direct relationship with an individual's ability to employ a transformational leadership approach (Turner et al., 2002). In the service industry, success relies upon interactions between people, perceived care for the wellbeing of others and a desire to perpetuate such values. This emerges from the discussion of Bass (1999), implying that morally underpinned leadership has an influence on the success of the products delivered in a service-orientated context. Authentic leadership is cited by Northouse (2009b) as one of the areas of enquiry most relevant to the contemporary economic climate and something that has been misunderstood following recent revelations about the sinister dealings of many high profile leaders (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010).

The point is also raised by Bass (1999): why do particular leaders come to our attention in the first place? The means by which leaders are commonly measured to articulate their position as 'successful' are often distinctly removed from the criteria identified as being representative of a transformational leader. This is evident if profit, market share and organisational efficiency are compared with charisma, moral reasoning, and vision. This suggests a conflation in the literature of success and leadership style; one cannot exist without the other. Or else, we do not know or are not interested in the great leaders that failed. Are they great leaders if they were also failures?

Transformational leadership encompasses themes of "charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration." (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, p. 184). The mélange of definitions that relate to this range of terminology, all notionally falling under the category of transformational leadership, makes it challenging to discern which elements are characteristics (such as narcissism) and which are leadership styles in themselves (for example, charismatic leadership). Some of these ideas are now discussed. The dominant emergent themes within leadership discourse emerge as narcissism and charisma.

Laissez-faire leadership is defined in the literature as "a leadership style where the leader has more or less abdicated from the responsibilities and duties designated to him/her." (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007, p. 209). This passive attitude represents a reluctance to exert authority or influence and can be destructive to work environments, according to Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, and Hetland (2007) and (Deluga, 1990, 1992). Within a body of literature that focuses on behaviours, laissez-faire is defined by an absence of expected behaviours and, as such (in certain contexts), this can lead to poor morale and failure to achieve goals (Spinelli, 2006).

A panoply of leaders are considered to be narcissists, from politicians such as Adolf Hitler (Dreijmanis, 2005) Joseph Stalin, Saddam Hussein (Glad, 2002), the majority of the American Presidents from George Washington to Ronald Regan (Deluga, 1997) to a diverse group of business leaders, including co-founder and chief executive officer of Apple, Steve Jobs (Robins & Paulhus, 2001), former chief executive officer of The Walt Disney Company (Sankowsky, 1995) Michael Eisner, and former chief executive officer and chairman of Enron (Kramer, 2003), Kenneth Lay.

Brown (1997a, p. 645) highlights the need for further qualitative research, in particular case studies of charismatic leaders or informant interviews, in order to formulate explanations of the dynamics by which they elicit support from followers through narcissistic traits, writing that "future research should focus on the distinction between healthy and pathological narcissism". Collins (2001) argues that the best leaders are extremely humble, however in stark contrast Maccoby (2001) believes that the extraordinary leaders of today have healthy and positive levels of narcissism, which he calls 'productive narcissism' (Maccoby, 2000). Through a review of the leadership literature, Harrison and Clough (2006, p. 288) suggest five attributes for productive narcissists: Eloquent – Skilful orator, performer, charming, charismatic; Egotistical – Need for adulation, need to leave a legacy, publicity seeking, self-promoting; Controlling – seeks to create the future, indoctrinates rather than coaches, need for power, need to know everything; Risk Taking – spontaneous, innovative, unconstrained, perceived invincibility; Aloof – Lack of empathy, poor listener, detached, isolated. In an attempt to resolve the Collins (2001) Maccoby (2001) dichotomy, Harrison and Clough (2006) determine that the qualities of a productive narcissist were evident to greater or lesser degrees in their sample of 15 "state of the art" leaders.

Following their literature review, Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006, p. 629) propose a definition of narcissistic leadership:

> "Narcissistic leadership occurs when leaders' actions are principally motivated by their own egomaniacal needs and beliefs, superseding the needs and interests of the constituents and institutions they lead."

Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006) state that this is an attempt to transform the discussion from a good versus bad debate about narcissistic leader traits, to an examination of the dynamics between leaders' psychological motivations and behaviours to facilitate discussion about the role narcissism plays in leadership. They argue that this is necessary as a trait based framework to study leadership hinders examination of the role of followers or constituents. However, in comparison to Maccoby (2001) and Harrison and Clough (2006), this definition would seem to focus on negative aspects of narcissism.

Whilst observing that all characterisations of the narcissistic personality are a contestable construct, Brown (1997a, p. 643) argues that individuals engage in narcissistic behaviour "un-self-consciously, rather than for the benefit of an intended audience (internal or external), in response to a deeply felt need to preserve self-esteem". In a review of the management literature surrounding narcissism Brown (1997a) draws on a variety of sources (Boje, Fedor, & Rowland, 1982; Conger, 1990; Gabriel, 1991; Goffman, 1959; Janis, 1989; Jennings, 1971; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1985; Lamb, 1987; Lasch, 1978; Maccoby, 1977; Martin, 1992; Martin, Feldman, Hatch, & Sitkin, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981; Sankowsky, 1995; Schwartz, 1987; Sculley, 1987; Varela, Thompson, & Rosch, 1992; Watson, 1994; Weick, 1979; Weick, 1995; Zaleznik, 1966) to develop a list of narcissistic traits:

- Denial – deny the reality of market demands and resource constraints, facts about themselves, and features of past occurrences.
- Rationalisation – rationalise action, inaction, policies, and decisions.
- Self-aggrandisement – engage in fantasies of omnipotence and control, exhibit grandiosity and exhibitionism, create cultures in their own image, narrate stories that flatter themselves, make nonsensical acquisitions, engage in ego-boosting rituals, and write immodest autobiographies.

- Attributional egotism –blame external authority for their personal plight and narrate stories that contain self-enhancing explanations.
- Sense of entitlement –exploitive, lack empathy, engage in social relationships that lack depth, and favour their interests over shareholders.
- Anxiety –suffer internally, need stability and certainty, experience deprivation and emptiness, are paralysed by personal anxiety and tension, and struggle to maintain a sense of their self-worth.

Charisma within an organisational context relates naturally to the relationship between leaders (such as CEOs or chairmen) and their subordinates, which is animated by the behavioural characteristics of both the leader and their followers (Fanelli & Grasselli, 2006; House, 1977; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991).

As research on charismatic leadership has developed, a bifurcation in focus has raised questions over the empirical justification of some of the earlier studies undertaken by authors such as Weber (1958) and House (1977). Fanelli and Grasselli (2006) discuss the change in focus from leaders' influence at a macro level to the influence of charisma on micro interactions and specific relationships with followers and what actions and behaviours are elicited from these. The motivation for the macro focus in earlier studies was driven by the nature of large organisations at the time which were measured and run with an industrial economic outlook and theory was developed accordingly, as Conger and Kanungo (1987) note. This has not necessarily ceased to be an avenue of legitimate enquiry; it is, instead, complemented by new and potentially more insightful perspectives on leadership.

Links between image management techniques of charismatic leaders and self-legitimisation are identified by Suchman (1995, p. 586) where an "arsenal of techniques" are used to achieve particular goals relating to ideas of social approval (Sillince & Brown, 2009). Image management is necessary for charismatic leaders to create a contrived and effectual persona as noted by House (1977) and Gardner and Avolio (1998). Schlenker (1980) suggests that impression management is not necessarily a misleading or deceiving act, rather it is born out of the need to package information in a way that is palatable and appropriate for its user or audience.

Charismatic leaders are essential to the success of organisations according to Charam and Colvin (2000, p. 228) who state that they "exert enormous influence over entire enterprises. In the aggregate they determine the prosperity of the nation." Gardner and Avolio (1998) suggest that personal values inform a charismatic leadership style, in that charisma will be effective if the moral values that drive an idealised vision are sound, however House and Howell (1992b) highlight that the antecedent desire of charisma is often power. This relates to Fanelli and Grasselli's (2006) assertions that charisma can be used as a form of control to achieve a desired end state for the organisation, yet whether this end state is a self-serving desire or an altruistic and genuinely morally driven vision is unclear.

Vision is a core aspect of charismatic leadership, and a higher level goal is a common feature of 'charismatics', yet overarching goals are usually very specific to context. This follows from Weber's (1947) original development of the theory based on ecclesiastical divinity and points to charismatic leadership being at its most effective when there is an apparent calling or higher order vision, which fuses the beliefs and efforts of followers around the related goals. As such, cultivating a vision for the organisation that lends itself to its followers' sense of ideology is crucial according to Flynn and Staw (2004). Alignment of the leader's vision with the followers' values and collective sense of vision is essential for the perceived credibility of the leader (Fanelli & Grasselli, 2006).

Cutler (2011) claims that charismatic leadership qualities are not essential in leading successfully, he also notes that charismatic leadership is not necessarily a force for good if the individual does not have the requisite personal qualities and values. In an attempt to define "effective leadership", Cutler (2011, p. 7) emphasises the centrality of vision: "[a] leader shapes and shares the vision, which gives point to the work of others." Gardner and Avolio (1998, p. 39) note the value of acts that inspire faith in one’s leadership; military leaders may be brave in battle and heads of state may be strong public speakers:

> “for example, a school principal may derive charisma from acts of kindness toward troubled kids, whereas courage in combat may be a more desirable image for a military leader.”

An apparent difficulty in measuring the effectiveness of charismatic leadership lies in the assumption that the motivation inspired by charisma leads directly to organisational effectiveness and potentially competitive advantage. However, distinguishing between the impact of charismatic leadership and other resources, and the interaction between these resources and the motivation of the organisational actors is challenging and, therefore, makes it difficult to articulate the true impact of charismatic leadership. This challenge has dominated debate in charismatic leadership research and charismatic leadership theory (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir et al., 1998), with attempts being made to reconcile the disparity between identifying charisma and quantifying its influence in terms of organisational outcomes. Recent studies focus on the testing of hypotheses and attempts to quantify charisma, however, Shamir, et al. (1998) note that to date these attempts have been incommensurate, as charismatic leadership as a phenomenon is not understood in enough detail, nor the constituencies within which it espouses influence defined clearly enough.

Though some leaders are described as transformational, there might also be other terms that are used to define them that relate to other, ostensibly different theories. Though charismatic and narcissistic leadership are used as descriptors, these personality dimensions are also found consistently as themes that fall under many headings; thus, the two themes are worthy of being highlighted and discussed further at a conceptual level.

There is another branch of theory that quite persuasively frames leadership as emergent. The arguments put forward by several studies such as Smircich and

Morgan (1982) and Plowman et al. (2007) consider the nature of leadership as an emergent phenomenon. This is resonant with research within other fields of study in a business context, such as strategy being moulded as an emergent entity (Mintzberg, 1987; Mintzberg & Waters, 1985) and entrepreneurial opportunity being an imagination of the future (Dimov, 2011; Klein, 2008; Shackle, 1955). The similarity among these phenomena highlights a shortcoming of the formal approach to the study of leadership, even in seminal contributions (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir et al., 1998). Dimov (2011, p. 62) notes that with a formal, quantitative approach:

> "interested in the exercise of mathematics within a tightly defined theoretical space, the idiosyncratic and nonverifiable nature of ideas and their underlying beliefs make them difficult to contain within an axiomatic framework."

A substantive conceptualisation of the phenomenon will first thrive on the nuanced and idiosyncratic aspects. Second, to return the discussion to focus on leadership as an emergent phenomenon, Polanyi's description of interaction between actors and their environment within an institutional context is, according to Dimov (2011), the empirical focal point of substantive interpretation of a phenomenon (Polanyi, 2001; Polanyi, Arensberg, & Pearson, 1957). Thus, it is possible that leadership could emerge through interactions between leader and followers and the consequences of actions in relation to the driving vision. Such an approach would be context-specific and the context would, therefore, need to be appropriately bounded to in order to acceptably frame findings. It is accepted that leadership is unlikely to subsist as merely a conceptual outcome from interpersonal interactions; however, the acknowledgment of their role is necessary.

Leadership as a unit of analysis has been considered from new perspectives as the field has evolved, this is in order to mitigate for the tendency of scholarship to base interest on individuals (Gronn, 2002). In contrast to perspectives of transformational and charismatic leadership, distributed leadership considers the leadership as being performed by the group, where leadership is evident in the actions of many

organisational members. Although the apparent contrast between the individualistic orientations of charismatic leadership and distributed leadership is resolved through transformational leadership being an idea that can be observed among groups or within individuals according to Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, and Jung (2002).
The strength of this area of research in leadership has also led to further consideration of some apparently accepted aspects of the prevailing discourse in leadership, such as transactional leadership being inferior to charismatic leadership in its essence, whereas Madison (1994) claims that in certain contexts, such as ones with a structured power hierarchy, transactional leadership may well be more effective. Further, visionary, charismatic or transformational individuals must have a vision that is shared by others and it, in turn, must be interpreted and reproduced by others, therefore vision is implicitly a distributed and shared concept rather than being a proprietary quality of an individual leader (Spillane, 2012).

Such debate has also been extended to suggest that leadership is not a valuable concept to study in the first place (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). Instead, paying more attention to processes of attribution, selection and causation would allow for greater understanding of how practitioners actually operate, rather than making iterative contributions surrounding the ideas that are all based on the assumption that the concept of 'the leader' is a worthwhile phenomenon to analyse in the first place.

The circularity of the debate about unit of analysis sees the individual leader remain as a focus but with new conceptualisations of how that notion relates to the evidence for collective action and leadership being espoused as a cultural quality within a group (Shamir 1999). In contemporary workforces there is evidence of group action making a disproportionate impact on outcomes, yet there remains evidence of individuals making a demonstrably disproportionate contribution to the outcomes for a group of people, whether that contribution be through instilling a cultural identity that incites particularly productive behaviour or being the steward of values that precipitate positive action (Chrisman, Chua, & Sharma, 2005). Irrespective of the perspectives in the debate over unit of analysis and evidence for leadership being a phenomenon that can be distributed and espoused by a group, part of the way the debate is rationalised is to present leadership, both distributed and individual, as an integrating function that frames attribution and throws light on decision making processes, something that chimes closely with the prevailing discourse in entrepreneurship, as being in need of attention so as to continue to develop the research agenda around opportunities and processes rather than heroic figures.

Although the notion of traits is strongly defended by the literature, what is persuasive is the argument that the emergence of leadership is dependent on context. This seems particularly relevant to leadership in the industry of focus of this study. The hotel industry is dynamic, challenging and fast-paced (Baum & Mezias, 1992; Dunning & Kundu, 1995; Dunning & McQueen, 1982; Min & Chung, 2002) and leadership may be enacted in a way that needs to be responsive to this environment and capable of coping with associated challenges. Further, as the two common 'traits' of charisma and narcissism have been identified, representations of charisma and narcissism could be explored as the effectuating characteristics of emergent leadership.

Leitch, McMullan and Harrison (2013, p. 347) note that recent studies (e.g. Harrison & Leitch, 1994; Kuratko, 2007) describe the emergence of entrepreneurial leadership as "a critical issue in our understanding of the dynamics of economic development in the 21st century". As noted in the section on entrepreneurial process, the first step in understanding entrepreneurial leadership is to consider those aspects of entrepreneurial leadership that distinguish it from management and managerial functions (Moroz & Hindle, 2012). This is not a simple operation, as there is considerable conceptual and empirical divergence in the literature as to the nature of entrepreneurship (Moroz & Hindle, 2012). Entrepreneurial leadership is described as a new paradigm by Tarabishy et al. (2005), and is typically approached through: the identification and analysis of leadership characteristics displayed by senior executives in entrepreneurial companies (Gupta et al., 2004; Nicholson, 1998; Swiercz and Lydon, 2002; Leitch, McMullan & Harrison, 2013); the focus on both specific and general aspects of entrepreneurship in leadership (Kuratko, 2007) and creative innovation in business development (Leitch, McMullan & Harrison, 2013).

Entrepreneurial leadership has six core characteristics (Covin and Slevin, 2002):

- Nourish an entrepreneurial capability
- Protect innovations threatening the current business model
- Make sense of opportunities
- Question the dominant logic
- Revisit the "deceptively simple questions"
- Link entrepreneurship and strategic management

First, they are focused on the proactive fostering of capabilities orientated towards opportunity exploitation. Covin and Slevin (2002) also note the importance of the individuals who are the fabric of an organisation and the role their relationships and interactions can play in driving entrepreneurship, there are echoes of Polanyi's (1957) advocacy of intersubjectivity among organisational members here. The role of the entrepreneurial leader then becomes concerned with maintaining the sort of environment that would let relationships flourish (Covin & Slevin, 2002), they will also be concerned with reinforcing the idea of creativity and entrepreneurial spirit as core organisational values (Vecchio, 2003; Gupta, MacMillan, & Surie, 2004; Alvarez & Barney, 2002; Covin & Slevin, 2002).

An entrepreneurial leader will also rationalise change or challenge as an opportunity and seek to communicate that belief to employees, owners and customers (Covin & Slevin, 2002). The bias towards opportunities also engenders a culture of questioning the prevailing attitudes at different personal, organisational and industry levels (Prahalad & Bettis 1986). This also relates to being aware of assumptions that are tacit within the day to day; Covin and Slevin (2002) note this and it resonates with Weick's (1992) discussions on allowing dominant logic to cloud rational judgment in the present.

Leitch, McMullan and Harrison (2013) define three problems of recent literature on entrepreneurial leadership, being the lack of coherent theorisation, lack of formal definition, and no specific mention of the implications of the institutional context. The latter point is of particular relevance to this thesis, as context is considered to be a guiding factor in the entrepreneurial process. As such, Leitch, McMullan and Harrison (2013, p. 349) note the recent shift in leadership studies:

> "from an individualistic and decontextualized conceptualization of the leader as a reified heroic individual to one which emphasizes leadership as a role defined by the interaction of a leader with his/her social and organizational context".

Studies by Day (2000), Fiedler (1996), Iles and Preece (2006), and Thorpe et al. (2009) attest to the impact of social and organisational context upon the efficacy and behaviour of leaders. Recent scholarship is shown to move away from seeing leadership as a series of characteristics, instead placing emphasis on the importance of leaders attending to social and emotional factors throughout the organisational community (Day et al., 2014; Iles & Preece, 2006; Locke, 2005; McCallum and O'Connell, 2009). Leitch, McMullan and Harrison (2013) describe this as balancing the development of investment in human capital, being improvement of the skills of individuals, and in social capital, being the facilitation of cooperation and resource exchange through the enhancement of relationships between individuals (Bouty, 2000; Day, 2000; Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998). Ultimately, Leitch, McMullan and Harrison (2013, p. 361) find the process of entrepreneurial leadership lies in the development of institutional capital, being the formal structures of governance within an organisation, which enhance the role of social capital, by providing:

> "the basis for creating, enhancing and encouraging horizontal ties among the members, where they view each other as peers and partners, look toward each other, build awareness of each other and consider each other as resources."

The theory above is useful insofar as it suggests the crucial role of context to the enactment and reception of the (entrepreneurial) leadership role, in terms of the way in which the leader might respond to the context, the way in which individuals might respond to the leader, and the way in which the leader might enhance relationships between individuals, thereby promoting a more favourable context. It is, therefore, vital to look at the contexts to which such theory might be applied, or from which theories might be derived. The next section identifies a lack of consideration of hoteliers and the hotel industry in the extant literature, despite the suitability of this role and context to the study of entrepreneurship and leadership.

3.3 Contextualising Leadership

Although "more articles have been written about leadership than any other topic in the field of management" there are very few attempts to discuss or propose models of leadership that "fit local circumstances", according to Steers, Sanchez-Runde, and Nardon (2012, p. 479). Whilst the aim of their overview of leadership research and theory development is to provide a critical analysis of attempts to uncritically apply Western models of leadership to organisations in the rest of the world, thereby approaching the problem in terms of culture and territory, such a statement also alludes to the importance of the industrial context to leadership in theory and practice. As mentioned, a large number of articles consider leadership as a concept, but relatively few study specific organisational or industrial contexts, and nearly none examines leadership as it pertains to the hotel industry.

Recent studies in general leadership theory include Dinh et al.'s (2014) and Day et al.'s (2014) overviews of trends and perspectives; Waldman and Balven's (2014) overview of responsible leadership, and Kinsler's (2014) consideration of authentic leadership and mindfulness. Studies such as Lord and Hall (2005), Day, Harrison and Halpin (2009), and deVries (2012) point out that leaders are, of course, living and growing human beings and, as such, attest to the importance of considering the development of the individual leader, yet they do not offer insights into the ways in which that development might be articulated, or indeed the impact of such articulations on future developments. Sparrowe (2005) discusses a general framework of the narrative self as it pertains to ethical leadership, and Shamir and Eilam (2005) similarly consider 'life-story' in relation to leadership, but whilst these explorations are interesting, they are driven by theoretical notions of authenticity and do not focus on specific contexts. This thesis, thus, contributes to leadership theory by analysing the ways in which personal narratives inform the ways in which hoteliers enact the processes of their roles in context. These personal narratives are shown to inform both the ways in which hoteliers see their past development, and the ways in which hoteliers enact their current roles and ongoing development.

Several studies assert the importance of considering the context in which leadership roles are enacted (Drath and Palus, 1994; House and Aditya, 1997; Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Shamir and Howel, 1999; Lowe and Gardner, 2000; Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001; Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Beer and Clower, 2014), yet again, these tend to focus on context as it pertains to territory or hierarchy rather than industry. Recent studies in leadership in more specific organisational or industrial contexts include Witges and Scanlan's (2014) look at leadership theory as it might relate generally to nurse managers in healthcare organisations; Donohue-Porter's (2014) discussion of nursing leadership theory; Oberfield's (2014) study of the effects of transformational leadership on US federal government sub-agencies; Doh and Quigley's (2014) look at responsible leadership with reference to Walmart, Coca-Cola, and DuPont; Dahlvig and Longman's (2014) model of women's leadership development in Christian Higher Education; Tyssen, Wald, and Spieth's (2013) evaluation of the applicability of leadership theories to temporary organisations; Johnson and Reynolds's (2011) look at issues surrounding the teaching and learning of leadership in rural settings, and Zheng, Khoury and Grobmeier's (2010) study of leadership and context in research and development teams.

The body of scholarship above is useful to this study insofar as it indicates the vital importance of context to any study of leadership, the large number and diversity of approaches within the field, and the lack of academic studies of leadership in the contemporary hotel industry. The next section considers this underdeveloped area in more detail.

3.4 Leadership in the Contemporary Hotel Industry

What constitutes leadership in the hotel industry is not articulated by the literature nor is it understood what has made current leaders effective in their roles. Furthermore, hotel companies apparently view their leaders as a conduit to reconciling the disparity between the scale and scope of such a significant industry, and the apparent need to maintain an image of 'authentic hospitality' that returns to the small-scale notion of host and guest exchanges. Examples of this include the publications of Conrad Hilton, entitled 'Be My Guest' (Hilton, 1957) and 'Inspirations of an Innkeeper' (Hilton, 1963) respectively, giving the hotel magnate's global operation a host figurehead who represents the hospitality one might expect at a Hilton. Similarly, Marriott's founder, JW Marriott's biography is entitled 'Host to the World' (Marriott, 1998), conjuring the same ideas of the global brand having a friendly host figure. The following section discusses leadership in the hotel industry in more detail.

Three of the key areas of concern for leadership in the hotel industry, and the hospitality and tourism industry more widely, are a lack of education among hotel workers (Law, Leung, & Buhalis, 2010; Rossiter, 2010), a lack of support for education among industry practitioners (Barron, 2008; Martin, Mactaggart, & Bowden, 2006), and a lack of understanding of what characteristics and competencies are expected of leaders (Pittaway, Carmouche, & Chell, 1998). Studies from academic literature, industry reports, industry press and periodicals are reviewed in relation to these areas among other leadership enquiry specific to the hotel industry:

> "the need for effective leadership at every level has never been greater if organisations, and by extension the industry, is to move forward…little industry-specific evidence is currently available." (Cutler, 2011, p. 1)

In general, focus on the leadership of particular individuals in the contemporary hotel industry is, but for some diffuse outputs, scarce. The value of exploring leadership as a theoretical application is apparently lost in the research discussed below. Enquiry exists ostensibly yet little of it attempts to further leadership theory or challenge empirical engagement with it. Leadership is accepted within the prevailing discourse of hospitality research to be a construct that does not need to be defined within an organisational context. Specifically, the literature does not consider who the great leaders of hospitality are and what makes them influential. The relationship between leadership and education is addressed (Brownell, 2005; Garrigós-Simón, Palacios-Marqués, & Narangajavana, 2008; Tesone, 2004), but debate exists in relation to the value of experience. Clarke and Mackaness (2001) attribute value to the wealth of experience an individual has in their abilities as a leader. This stands as a counterpoint to the focus on education within the hospitality literature. Although it is apparent that both education and experience are necessary, there appears to be a lack of reconciliation of this tension. When considering the influential figures discussed previously, a highly educated background links individuals such as Benedict of Nursia, Plato, Hammurabi and Shah Abbas, and even Hilton, Marriott and others. The question of whether education was the expedient of great leadership or whether successful leaders have access to education through their position; further, education may be an associated characteristic of leaders but not necessarily a causal link to leadership quality, there is a chain of infinite regress. Nonetheless, the prominence of education is noteworthy.

Some research has focused on the relationship between education and leadership within hospitality (Brownell, 2005; Garrigós-Simón et al., 2008; Tesone, 2004). The value of looking for leadership qualities among new recruits can be facilitated through assessment centres in the hospitality industry according to Brownell (2005). Tesone (2004) alludes to formal, sector-specific training, introducing a method for engaging 'whole brain thinking' among leaders, yet the paper is conceptual, and despite acknowledging the wealth of research on leadership in general, the appropriate application of theory to the context of hospitality is left wanting. She notes that most new developments in practical leadership theory use material that is "borrowed from practitioners, however most are not based on altogether newly developed evidence" (Tesone, 2004, p. 363). Although this statement may be true, the paper does not effectively contribute to practical knowledge of leadership for hospitality by failing to present newly developed empirical evidence from current leaders in the industry. Despite asserting a lack of evidence, the paper presents none itself. The focus on education for leaders in the hotel industry in general has no theoretical underpinning and also infers the success of the individual's leadership style on the turnover, profit and size of the company, rather than particular character or operational traits.

The depth and breadth of leadership research in the organisational studies literature is noted by Zopiatis and Constanti (2010), when they consider this in relation to the hotel industry. They acknowledge that leadership remains a poorly understood phenomenon that is not exact or measurable, yet their research is prescriptive in its approach to "leadership styles". Worsfold (1989, p. 145) conducts a brief review of leadership theories that are thought to be "particularly pertinent to research in the hotel and catering industry." This offers some insight into theories that are relevant to the empirical context of this study. However, two theories are discussed and they are based on previous research in hospitality, using psychological surveying on workers to determine leadership styles. Thus, the value of the underpinning theory in Worsfold's (1989) research is contestable. Conversely, this study employs a mixed methods approach, indicating the more subtle and textured aspects of leadership through qualitative interviews. The findings identify a tension whereby the most effective leadership style is considered to be more autocratic and administrative and less sensitive to the relationship and interactional element of leadership. This sits at odds with the personality-driven and interactive nature of the industry itself and, indeed, the drive among companies to cultivate a 'hospitable' image. Notably, Worsfold's (1989) study does not question the potential impact of leadership style.

The professionalism of the hospitality and tourism industry as a whole is questioned by Hjalager and Andersen (2001), with the casual nature of hospitality work having been cultivated by a general lack of commitment to training or career development by hotel companies (Guerrier & Lockwood, 1993; Hjalager & Andersen, 2001). There is a sense of systemic, industry level issues that relate to the challenges of recruiting adequate volumes of labour and the subsequent undervaluing of staff (Baum, 1993, 2006; Lucas, 1996; Lucas, Marinova, Kucerova, & Vetrokova, 2001). Thus, Lee-Ross (1995) and Zeberi (2007) indicate that the labour-intensive nature of work in industries such as hotels combined with the relatively loose definition of the service provision work (compared to role profiles in industries such as manufacturing) means that attention to the needs, wellbeing and career development of workers is poor. There is a sense, according to Iverson and Deery (1997) and Knox (2010), of the industry attributing blame to the labour market, where the casual, cyclical staff turnover negates the incentive to invest in training or pay higher salaries. However, much of the research reviewed indicates that the condition of the labour market in the hotel industry reflects the way in which employers treat staff. The industry, therefore, suffers from certain barriers impeding development for individuals and inhibiting others from even considering the hotel industry as a viable career option (Barron, 2008; Martin et al., 2006). This problem sits at odds with the sense that leaders are often highly educated. A disparity emerges between the impression of leaders and other hotel workers in general, as presented above, and the characteristics of significant leaders both in the history of the hotel industry and in other industries.

There is also a void between the requirements for successful hotel operations as defined within hospitality education institutions and what the industry is willing to support (Barron, 2008; Baum & Nickson, 1998; Chen, Chu, & Wu, 2000; Martin et al., 2006; Prabhu, 1996). Littlejohn and Watson (2004) allude to a lack of leadership within the industry. A lack of education and of understanding as to what is required of leaders in the hotel industry are also indicated by Keating and Harrington (2003), and the need to improve education for the industry is necessary to help ensure quality leadership and management into the future. Furthermore, the general belief that hotel work is low-skilled can be addressed by commitment from organisations to improving education levels and opportunities for workers, according to Guerrier and Lockwood (1993) and Prabhu (1996).

Other studies relate to the issues surrounding adequate talent, education and leadership skills by articulating the pressure to perform on current managers, supervisors and others in 'leadership' positions. The notion of burnout relates to an individual being incapacitated in their work through the impacts of their responsibilities and environment, defined by Zopiatis and Constanti (2010, p. 301) as "a syndrome consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and professional accomplishment having detrimental effects for both the individual employee and his/her organisation." The studies identified within the hospitality industry relating to leadership and burnout are quantitative (Gill, Flaschner, & Shachar, 2006; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010); the lack of qualitative enquiry into this sensitive issue is indicative of an under-developed research agenda. As leadership deals with emotions, inspiration and motivation, highly qualitative research is necessary to connect with and deepen understanding of these aspects (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002). Other studies that address leadership in a more general sense focus on emotions and emotional intelligence, yet, use quantitative methods and discuss matters of emotion in a rather prescriptive matter (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Lewis, 2000). This indicates that there remains a general lack of understanding of what it means to be a hotel leader and what characteristics good leaders display.

One characteristic of effective leadership identified by O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010) is the use of storytelling. Leaders in the hotel industry use storytelling to empower their employees according to O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010). The notion of myth making emerges, creating a sense of the leader being even greater, more inspiring and credible through the reputation perpetuated by their stories (O'Gorman & Gillespie, 2010). However, even in this study, leadership represents the empirical context more than the theoretical unit of analysis. Leadership as a construct is not discussed in the paper, thus a contribution to the leadership theory is not made. What constitutes a leader in the hospitality industry is not necessarily defined by the study either, and literature pertaining to the definition and scope of leadership within the industry is absent. The leaders studied by O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010) are identified as such because they are at the head of internationally successful hotel companies, yet the criteria for identifying them as "high-level international hospitality leaders" (O'Gorman & Gillespie, 2010, p. 659) are not specified. It is practical to presume that a successful company will be fronted by an effective leader yet the lack of justification for the sample studied in this instance further points to a lack of reference to leadership theory in hospitality research.

At a local level, leaders in the hotel industry in Scotland cite a tangible leadership deficit (Scottish Enterprise, 2010). The report compiled in reaction to this deficit highlights a significant gap in the education, provision and understanding of leadership in the hotel industry. This is an issue that the industry press has also identified, calling for new leaders (Cotton, 2008). Scottish Enterprise (2010) notes certain impacts that leaders of the future are expected to have on the industry, particularly overall increased demand for products and sector growth; they also identify that the skills required to achieve this change are sector-specific. Two key observations made by the report are:

> "not enough high calibre leaders and managers, capable of driving change and innovation in response to changing markets and tackling longstanding issues of recruitment, retention, consistency of service levels and productivity [and] not enough talent attracted into the sector and training which does not equip people with the skillsets required." (Scottish Enterprise, 2010, p. 4)

In relation to the deficit of quality leadership in the sector, Cotton (2008, p. 17) quotes Gordon Brown, the former British Prime Minister, who states, "Now is not the time for novices." The need for education in leadership within the hotel industry is the focus of the leadership academy run by Bournemouth University Department of Services Management (Manson, 2007). The need for such a centre was identified following consultation with hotel industry leaders in the UK who noted a dearth in industry-specific leadership skills.

From the employees' perspective, Peters (2005) finds that current leaders are not meeting the expectations of their staff, through lack of ability to motivate or inspire, and this reduces their willingness to further pursue their careers in hotels. The comments of Gordon Brown and the findings of this study relate closely to the results of the Scottish Enterprise (2010) report, all of which essentially call for a reform in leadership training in the hotel industry that represents a cohesive relationship between operators and higher education institutions. Thus graduates will have the necessary skills to succeed as leaders in the hotel industry and the industry itself will subscribe to the support, investment and career opportunities required to encourage sufficient amounts of graduates to do so. Despite this, Scottish Enterprise (2010) does not articulate what skills, characteristics or experiences hotel leaders should have in order to succeed.

These studies identify two related areas that need to be addressed to improve leadership in the hotel industry: the improvement of education for future leaders and, in order to effectively achieve that, a deeper understanding of what makes a successful leader. Rossiter (2010) and Law, Leung, and Buhalis (2010) note that an improvement in leadership will lead to growth and that increased levels of higher education is the key to making such advances. However, Tesone (2005) also highlights the requirement to strengthen the discourse within sector-specific education, suggesting that as well as an improvement in the education of future leaders, an improvement in the education provision is also required.

A fundamental issue at the core of the literature reviewed is that there are no specific characteristics or skills clearly identified as being integral to good leadership in the hotel industry. This gap has been touched on by Chung-Herrera, Enz, and Lankau (2003) where they note that some hotel companies have begun investing in establishing what competencies are required for good leadership, and attempt to quantitatively establish a list of requisite skills. However, the quantitative approach to an issue that suffers from a lack of clear definition and understanding obstructs the value of addressing it in the first place. Competencies and skills are aspects of leadership (Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Peters, 2005; Rossiter, 2010; Scottish Enterprise, 2010; Wood & King, 1996) yet the interpersonal, ‘soft’ aspect of it that relates to the individual and how they are influenced and attempt to influence others seems relatively ignored. Woods and King (2002) provide a general overview of leadership in the industry, yet much of the discussion engages with leadership in a relatively superficial manner, using statistical analysis to inform conclusions. This approach offers over-generalised and prescriptive impressions about phenomena that, at their core, are fused to context and environment and require deep engagement and interpretation. Treating leadership as an easily interpretable and fixed concept is unsympathetic to the nature of engagement required to understand the dynamics between leaders and their organisations, especially those in a service-based hotel context.

This issue is specifically addressed in the context of the hospitality and tourism industry by Pittaway, Carmouche, and Chell (1998, p. 407) who state that:

> "a conceptual understanding of leadership theory is needed to help improve the application of leadership research to the hospitality industry."

This study also reviews and looks to apply established leadership theory to a hospitality context. However, it is an entirely conceptual paper that draws no specific conclusions as to the understanding of leadership in hotels. The paper invites future research focused on deepening knowledge of sector-specific leadership in hotels and calls for the development of conceptual frameworks to support such studies. Keegan (1982) attempts to develop a framework that aids leaders in communicating and working with employees to improve participation and motivation. The employee perspective is also generally under-represented in the understanding of leadership effectiveness as Keegan (1982) notes. This is also highlighted by Erkutlu (2008), who discusses the impact of leadership style on organisational effectiveness. Significant relationships are identified, yet the effectiveness is measured using quantitative analysis thus does not address the more textured and soft aspect of leadership. A strong moral fabric and generous consideration for the well-being of others are highlighted as key qualities among hospitality leaders by Cousins (2010). The discussion infers a sense of hospitality in its fundamental sense as being important and apparent parallels exist with the philosophical foundations discussed that require the leader to be a good 'host'.

Cousins (2010) notes that Conrad Hilton was inspired by great individuals whom he did not necessarily measure by their wealth and success but by their generosity and ability to give. The need to be a good 'host' emerges, therefore, as a potential measure of a leader in hospitality yet this is secondary and unsubstantiated. What is more emergent and significant is the lack of enquiry into what hospitality leaders themselves value as being key qualities for successful leadership in their industry and who they draw on for inspiration. In a comprehensive analysis of the international hotel industry, Dunning and McQueen (1982) do not acknowledge the individuals that stand behind the most successful international brands. This stands at odds with the nature of the industry and the widely discussed influence of individuals on growth and strategy.

Themes relating in particular to narcissism and charisma as influential characteristics within leadership are apparent. The elements related to narcissism emerge particularly from the discussions on Harrison and Clough (2006) and Maccoby (2000). In particular, the theme of self-driven fame refers to the hunger for adulation among narcissists; similarly, from Maccoby's (2000) productive narcissism thesis, group-driven narcissists would be motivated by having control. Charisma is defined by House (1977), House and Howell (1992b) and Gardner and Avolio (1998) where the self-driven charismatic leader may manipulate their image to increase their power, it is suggested that this manipulation could be leveraged through charisma. For group-driven charismatic leaders, the moral outlook is central to their approach (Barling et al., 2008; Simola et al., 2010); studies by Weber (1947) and Flynn and Staw (2004) describe the group-driven charismatic leader as an individual who can elicit a coherent and transcendent organisational vision.

Sarasvathy and Venkataraman's (2011) discussions on the development of entrepreneurship as a phenomenon worthy of research, to becoming a field of study in its own right, allude to the challenges of studying a subject that may only be evident as worthy of enquiry in hindsight. Sarasvathy and Venkataraman (2011) note that the study of opportunity, for example, is only possible after an opportunity has been exploited. Thus the existence of or potential for an opportunity is only rationally fathomable from a post-hoc perspective. If this logic is applied to leadership, then effective leadership is only fathomable after its consequences have played out and these consequences have been recorded. In an organisational context, leadership has traditionally been measured through meritorious criteria that are associated with behaviours or personalities as being products of ‘good’ leadership. The tension that Sarasvathy and Venkataraman (2011) identify concerns the remoteness of these meritorious criteria in relation to the actual focus of the study.

At the core of leadership being framed as an emergent phenomenon stands the difficulty in distinguishing between forces at play: from vision, to market conditions, to employee reactions and perceived consequences of decisions and behaviours on the leader’s part. This relates to the future being imagined by the individual (Dimov, 2011; Klein, 2008; Shackle, 1955). For this reason studies such as Boddewyn et al. (1986) note the difficulty of measuring and bounding the activities of service firms as they are often abstract, aspirational and, in essence, ‘organic’ as they deal with a product that is simultaneously produced and consumed through interpersonal interaction. Dimov (2011, p. 63) notes the “problem of meritoriously distinguishing the successes from the failures” in that in ascribing ‘post-hoc’ conceptions of constructs that are emergent (such as strategy, entrepreneurship or leadership) we identify them as worthy of study for different reasons than they might be cited as worthy of enquiry at an earlier point. In essence, in order to understand the nature of an individual’s leadership, they must have already ‘led’, leaving a story behind that can be analysed in context and understood relative to the subsequent consequences. Thus historical analysis for such an emergent phenomenon allows sufficient distance, enabling leadership to be considered in rich context with root causes and consequences clear to see. Studies of service firms that have engaged with historical data sources have made significant contributions to other fields of enquiry (Boddewyn et al., 1986; Dunning & McQueen, 1982; Fletcher & Godley, 2000; Godley, 2003; Li & Guisinger, 1992).

Meritoriously distinguishing an individual as a leader worthy of study is also problematic, as the criteria that are used to identify them are different from those that may espouse their ability as leaders. Thus divorcing economic merits from the individual could make aspects of leadership style more clearly identifiable. However, such approaches to empirical engagement must be mindful of the environment in which these actors operate. Meritorious identification of individuals for the study of something different such as leadership could alter the nature of the endeavour. Yet it must also be acknowledged that these individuals are operating as leaders in the first place to succeed in an economic environment driven, ultimately, at least in part, by economic success. Therefore, effective leadership must engender, to some extent, more formal notions of economic effectiveness (Polanyi, 2001; Polanyi et al., 1957).

Beyond causal links, Morck and Yeung (2007) also note that the long term effects of decisions can be tracked through historical analysis. This is evident in the studies of: Bátiz-Lazo (2004), where the effects of responses to regulations in the finance sector are analysed; de Jong, Sluyterman, and Westerhuis (2011), where the effects of strategic responses to the changing economic and political environment are discussed; and Keneley (2009), where the effects of responses to changing regulatory and technological conditions saw insurance firms diversify into new financial markets. Morck and Yeung (2007, p. 460) support the move to complement cross-sectional enquiry with deeper empirical engagement, “The history of the firm is now regarded as a crucial determinant of its distinctive competences.”

3.5 Rationalising the Leadership Literature

This section has considered the field of leadership research, which is a broad and disintegrated area of enquiry. Leadership is represented as being manifest in myriad forms throughout organisations, and authors disagree at almost every stage on the underpinnings, actions and outlooks of leaders. Leadership is a diffuse concept since it is inherently informed by personalities as well as organisational and industry structures. Of note is the focus by the prevailing discourse on the leader as a singled-out individual who is placed in an isolated position, leading from the front. The rhetoric concentrates on driving and being at the helm of the direction of a firm. The literature has failed to establish an overarching, all-encompassing theoretical framework or research agenda. It has established that pronounced evidence of leadership or entrepreneurial qualities can produce success, but it has also established that the lack thereof does not infer lack of success. Furthermore, authors such as Czarniawska-Joerges and Wolff (1991) have expressed entrepreneurship as leadership specific to a particular context. Vecchio (2003) also notes the overlaps in the activities performed. In order to move some way to distilling the range of literature that has been covered in this chapter, Table 3-2 provides an overview of the main themes covered and the key contributions to that area. This attempts to offer a somewhat streamlined view of the field despite its diffuse nature.

Table 3-2 Emergent themes from the Leadership Literature

Literature	Reference
Difficult to define	Burns (1996)
Dependent on context	Liu, Siu and Shi (2010)
Leadership is demonstrated through the leadership process	Jago (1982)
Strong self-belief in one’s abilities, potentially destructive consequences (narcissism)	Kernberg (1967, 1979, 1989)
Ability to influence others	Northouse (2009a)
Process-based using relationships to unite people towards a vision (transformational)	Burns (1978)
Leadership traits exist from a young age/birth	Bernard (1926)
Informed by strong personal ethics and co-created through relationships (authentic)	Ladkin and Taylor (2010)
Driving towards higher order goals that inspire others to follow (charismatic)	Weber (1968)
Difficult to measure effectiveness	Boddewyn et al. (1986)
Defined by the nature of the followers	Howell and Shamir (2005)
Need to understand the history of firms and decision making processes	Morck and Yeung (2007)
Leadership is a transactional process based on the exchange of reward and desired behaviours	Zaccaro (2007)
Passively allow direction to dictate itself (laissez-faire)	Bass (1985)

Engagement with leadership has extended to other domains to include the followers and the dyads in which leaders and followers engage. These dyads form relationships which are the basis for Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) work that considers the leader-member exchange as the site of leadership activity and the space in which the most insights into the forms of leadership that are effective can be identified. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) stratify the leader-member exchange to show the varying levels of value that can be yielded from the relationships which organisational members build. In creating this stratification they draw on other theories that relate to the three levels of the leader-member exchange, namely transactional, charismatic and transformational leadership (see Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Frittz, 2005; House & Howell, 1992b). They note that the positioning of their contribution "moves the theory beyond traditional thinking about superiors and subordinates to examination of leadership as a partnership among dyadic members." (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 229). As a result, leadership is said to be 'made' or developed as relationships mature, indicating an incremental and co-created phenomenon that is dependent on the dyad and dynamic rather than particular requisite characteristics of the leader themselves. The stratification therefore represents the maturation of the dyad in three specific increments: Stranger, related most closely to transactional leadership (Bass, 1985); Acquaintance, espouses limited interaction; Maturity, related most closely to transformational leadership (Burns, 1978).

The need in the contemporary economic environment for a form of entrepreneurial leadership is articulated by Gupta et al. (2006). They note that the need for an entrepreneurial approach to several business processes such as strategy and leadership is created by the inadequacy of behavioural concepts of leadership. They present leadership theories such as that developed by House (1971) as linear and path-dependent concepts that are not capable of explaining leadership in the contemporary environment that is so exposed to change and flux. There are apparent overlaps with the concept of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) and entrepreneurial leadership as Gupta et al. (2006, p. 245) define it:

> “The leader evokes superordinate performance by appeals to the higher needs of followers. However, the entrepreneurial leader’s ability to evoke such performance is founded in the context of the firm’s need to adapt to emerging environmental contingencies”

Entrepreneurial leadership has underpinning similarities to transformational leadership in that it draws upon the resources of the surrounding network of the leader and imbues employees with the agency to be truly involved with the direction of the organisation. However, the constantly changing environment requires the leader to facilitate the capacity for dynamic role characteristics and uncertainty (Gupta et al. 2006). The combination of entrepreneurship and leadership towards a definition of entrepreneurial leadership is thus driven by the notion that highly competitive and unpredictable situations require innovative approaches from leaders (McGrath and MacMillan, 2000; Hit et. al, 2001; Ireland et al., 2003; Gupta et. al, 2004).

The constituent characteristics of the entrepreneurial leader revolve around the statement of strategic intent, the empowerment and verification of employees to fulfil that vision and a demonstration of unwavering commitment as they embark on achieving their goals, specifically in a manner orientated around the idea of exploiting opportunities as an organisation (McGrath and MacMillan, 2000; Ireland et al., 2003, Gupta et al., 2004). This unwavering commitment implicitly includes the purposeful bearing of the uncertainty and risk associated with aligning the organisation with strategic goals that may not prove to be successful, thus proving their vision was inaccurate, although the vision attended to is still wedded to performance criteria and net growth (Rosenbusch, et. al, 2013). This strategic approach stems from the entrepreneurial leader’s deployment of his or her personal resources and capabilities to manage the resources and capabilities of the firm (Penrose, 1959; Kirzner; 1973; Mosakowski; 1998; Alvarez & Busenitz, 2001).

3.6 Summary of key themes

This section provides a summary of the key themes that have emerged from the respective discussions on entrepreneurship and leadership research. These are presented in Table 3-3 below. Following this, common emergent themes are identified to illustrate the relationship between entrepreneurship and leadership presented by the prevailing discourse in the field.

Table 3-3 Overview of Entrepreneurship and Leadership

Leadership Literature	Reference	Entrepreneurship Literature	Reference
Dependent on context	Liu, Siu and Shi (2010)	Dynamic, discontinuous process	Bygrave (1993)
Leadership is demonstrated through the leadership process	Jago (1982)	Defined by personality traits	Jago (1982)
Strong self-belief in one's abilities, potentially destructive consequences (narcissism)	Kernberg (1967, 1979, 1989)	Opportunity recognition	Dimov (2011)
		Bearing risk and uncertainty within a management position	Cantillon (1732)
		Economic interface between landowners and hirelings	Say (1802)
Ability to influence others	Northouse (2009)	Organize efforts, process and raw materials	Shane (2003)
Process-based using relationships to unite people towards a vision (transformational)	Burns (1978)	Comfortable with uncertainty	Knight (1921)
Leadership traits exist from a young age/birth	Bernard (1926)	Faced with multiple unknown preferences and consequences	Sarasvathy (2003)
Informed by strong personal ethics and co-created through relationships (authentic)	Ladkin and Taylor (2010)	Emerges from human action and interaction	Von Mises (1912, 1966)
		The architect of creative destruction	Kirzner (1973)
Driving towards a higher order goals that inspires others to follow (charismatic)	Weber (1968)	Defined by behaviour	Jacobson (1992)
Difficult to measure effectiveness	Boddewyn et al. (1986)	Creating new combinations of business activity	Schumpeter (1934)
Defined by the nature of the followers	Howell and Shamir (2005)	Interaction and intersubjective relationships underpin entrepreneurship	Polanyi (1957)
Need to understand the history of firms and decision making processes	Morck and Yeung (2007)	Relationships	Dimov (2011)
Leadership is a transactional process based on the exchange of reward and desired behaviours	Zaccaro (2007)	Markets are created through imagination and creativity	Swedberg (1996)
Passively allow direction to dictate itself (laissez-faire)	Bass (1985)	A product of background, identity, and network	Sarasvathy (2003)
		Heroic market figure	Ebner (2005)

The following characteristics emerge from the literature as complementary aspects of the entrepreneurship and leadership literature: Espoused through a dynamic process; defined by traits; strong self-belief and ability to cope with uncertainty; intersubjectivity and relationship management are essential; imagination, creativity and inspiration are central to success; emergent through human action and interaction; heroes; ability to interface among multiple spheres.

Following the concluding remarks of Chapters 2 and 3, in summary, the manner in which we understand entrepreneurship and leadership to interact has emerged from these discussions. In the first instance, the etymology of the term 'entrepreneurship' would describe the respondents of this study as the 'interface' in the business environment. There is an apparent complementarity between leadership and entrepreneurship theories, and the future analysis in this study does not seek to privilege only one of the theories. Articulating the leader as an interface is sympathetic to the foundations of the entrepreneur and of the accepted role of a leader.

Separating the more general organisational position of the research subject from particular characteristics ascribed to them by either the entrepreneurship or leadership literatures means that understanding the function of the hotelier in hospitality can remain an objective for the research and exploring just how they create value may be informed by some of the streams of theory relating to entrepreneurial leadership or transformational leadership. What is key for this study is that it is not wedded to one field of literature (leadership or entrepreneurship). Following this review, this study illustrates that both domains can inform our understanding of the hotelier and this understanding will potentially be richer by accommodating elements of each. Creation of value is articulated as the leader/entrepreneur's goal in its broadest sense, and the progressive engagement with the data in this study will inform the rudiments of that creative process.

From the literature covered, the interface role is seen as creating a dyad between at least two spheres, namely the internal and external environments, which translate to staff as internal and to owners/shareholders as external. The interfacing space is the space in which ‘leadership’ takes place, and the study is designed to allow the components of the role being enacted in that space to be determined and understood. The literature informs the structure of the role performed by individuals and the space within which they act. The analysis of the results will populate the characteristics of ‘creation of value’, which ultimately drives the hotelier’s role. The creation of value is another common emergent theme from both the leadership and the entrepreneurship theory.

Following on from the articulation that leadership and entrepreneurship as literatures have attended to common questions in terms of traits, processes and the importance of context, it is necessary to define what separates them. Once their differences have been highlighted from the above discussions, the consequent findings and discussions of the thesis can be identified as contributing to specific areas of the literature. One of the apparent distinctions of the entrepreneurship literature in particular is the consideration of the role of opportunities. The debate that has surrounded opportunities frames entrepreneurship and captures the nuances of traits, processes and context, it also incorporates the roles of effectual and causal logics in supporting our understanding of how entrepreneurship is enacted and where it can be found. Based on the central role opportunity plays in understanding entrepreneurship, the bearing and harnessing of uncertainty is identified as another element that differentiates leadership and entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship sees uncertainty as something that is leveraged and made sense of in order to make some form of progress, whereas leadership looks for more causal treatments of uncertainty by gleaning calculations of risk from the information sources available.

The apparent effectual harnessing of opportunities that is germane to entrepreneurial processes plays naturally into deepening understanding of some leadership processes, hence the notion of entrepreneurial leadership. However, it is notable that there is no such concept as *leadery entrepreneurship.* This invites the further differentiation between entrepreneurship and leadership by seeing entrepreneurship as a more creative process and leadership as a function of getting things done but not of questioning or reinterpreting what those things actually are.

3.7 Conclusion

It is hoped that the results of the study will help contribute to some of the debate highlighted in the literature review chapters by charting the development of these areas, and highlighting the ways in which these two areas interact (or do not interact) in the context of the hotelier's role. The etymology of entrepreneurship in particular is an indicator of how the field has moved towards autonomy, but potentially lost its place as a component of the complex economic landscape to which it originally belonged in classical and neoclassical economics. There is an overwhelming tendency in the literature to attempt to establish that which distinguishes entrepreneurship as an area of study from others like leadership (and indeed vice versa). This has clouded the fact that entrepreneurship, by its definition, is a common process espoused in multiple contexts, especially in the contemporary world where firm structures have disintegrated ownership, control, innovation and risk-bearing. The interest in self-made entrepreneurs has been the focus for the field perhaps because it is in these individuals that the constituent parts of entrepreneurs are most empirically pronounced but that does not mean that they do not exist in other organisational and industry contexts and neither does it mean that an alternative theory is required to explain them.

Having asserted the critical significance of context over the preceding chapters, Chapter 4 will explore the context of this study, affirming the particular suitability of the dynamic hotel industry and self-reflexive hoteliers to a study of entrepreneurship and leadership. This analysis allows for a deeper insight into the central research purpose, being to explore the role of narratives in informing the enactment of entrepreneurship and leadership processes among hoteliers.

4 The Hotel Industry

4.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the hotel industry by addressing two distinct areas. First, it explores the traditions and philosophical background to hospitality as they relate to the concepts espoused by contemporary hotel mission statements. Following this, the contemporary hospitality industry is discussed with particular focus on the challenges faced by managers and leaders today.

This study deals with the hotel industry, part of one of the most significant industries in the world: tourism, which is responsible for close to 10% of global GDP and is forecasted to account for 10% of the global workforce by 2022 (Rugles-Brise & Aimable, 2012). Tourism is one of the biggest employers in the UK, representing approximately £4.3 billion to the Scottish economy and 3% of the national economic output (The Scottish Government, 2014). However, there is a distinct lack of leadership talent within the industry in the UK. The Scottish Tourism Alliance and Scottish Enterprise place “developing industry leadership” at the top of their joint agenda (The Scottish Government, 2014, p. 3), and a report compiled by the hotel industry itself makes an explicit call for research into and development of leadership (Cutler, 2011). The hospitality sector provides an environment where immediate feedback is available because production and consumption of the service happen simultaneously. As such, it provides an excellent context in which to study the concepts of leadership and entrepreneurship. The Hospitality Industry Trust has identified leadership as one of the key areas requiring investment and improvement in order for it to support growth. Furthermore, the Aberdeen City Partnership Tourism 2020 Strategy focuses on the need for development in leadership. Despite this, studies of the contemporary hotel industry are scarce.

Discussing the historical antecedents of hospitality will allow contextualisation of the rhetoric and customs that are associated with day to day practice in the hotel industry. For example, Pettigrew (1992, p. 10) states that, “[t]he past is alive in the present and may shape the emerging future." This indicates that insights from the history of an industry can reveal new aspects of its nature and practice (Buckley, 2009; Inkpen & Beamish, 1994; Jones & Khanna, 2006; Morck & Yeung, 2007). Furthermore, according to Davis (1975), the shaping of the future is manifest in the stories from historical narratives. According to Rowlinson (1993), the future is also an emergent reinvention of the past, thus historical enquiry is a "liberating" (Barrett & Srivastval, 1991, p. 248) process that can offer insight beyond organisational structures, offering a fixed point of reference against which other insights can be compared and understood. According to Pettigrew (1979), the emergent reinvention of history in the present offers reflective insight into the impact that particular personalities, events, and actions have had and continue to have. For example, Rowlinson (1993, p. 321) notes that "idiosyncrasies" of leaders may emerge as the lasting narratives or resonant features of their identities within career history narratives.

The decision to focus on the hotel industry specifically rather than other areas of the hospitality and tourism industry is explained in more detail within the chapter. However, it is pertinent to articulate that decision briefly at this point. Following the consideration of hospitality as a phenomenon, it is apparent that its rhetoric and philosophy are manifest in their most contemporary sense in the hotel industry, demonstrated by the language used in hotel mission statements reviewed in the next section. The hotel industry adheres to the core concepts of security, accommodation and food, founded on an exchange between host and guest. Although hospitality and tourism covers a broad sphere of the global service-based industry, the notion of 'hospitality leaders' is represented most accurately by leaders within the hotel business. This is due to their effective status as the host, and hotel organisations' efforts to cultivate a welcoming, personalized atmosphere through key individuals and the values and belief systems that drive the company vision.

The chapter divides into six sections; first, what hotel businesses say about themselves through their mission statements illustrates the apparent connection with hospitality as a phenomenon. The history of hospitality is then presented through its underpinning philosophy and key figures. The first three sections aim to aid in the understanding of the motivations behind the provision of hospitality as a means to illustrate a connection between the historical and the contemporary. The following three sections relate to the hotel industry in its most contemporary sense: its definition and development; issues and trends; and the strong emphasis on leadership in hotels. The chapter illustrates an opportunity for deepening the body of theoretically informed research concerned with leadership in the hotel industry by exploring the influences of contemporary leaders. The following sections explore hospitality as an aspect of human exchange and as a commercial proposition. This broadly articulates the potential tensions associated with two seemingly incongruous ideas that simultaneously function as bed-fellows in many contexts. However, these seemingly incongruous ideas in reality complement each other and operating, leading and ultimately succeeding in hotels requires shrewd navigation of the associated issues and challenges.

4.2 Mission Statements

Much evidence, particularly from newspaper articles and industry journals, shows that the growth of the industry and the challenges it faces have precipitated the need for companies to work hard to retain an image of being small and familiar to their guests. The need to balance the profit-focussed nature of the business with a seemingly personal touch is manifest in Loewe Hotels' 'personal touch' programme that educates executives in etiquette and conversation, in order to deliver a sincere and hospitable experience for guests (Kramer, 2006). This is echoed by Si (2010, p. 1), who notes the thoughts of a hospitality leader in China: "We try to give our guests a personal relationship with this hotel." Even the general manager states that he tries to sit down with guests and get to know them. Marriott Hotels' website features a personal blog from its chairman, JW Marriott, entitled Bill's Blog, giving a sense of familiarity and acquaintance with the chairman of the organisation (Marriott, 2011a), giving the impression he might personally host visitors to a Marriott property. Mandarin Oriental uses its 'fan club', a play on its fan-shaped brand image, to feature celebrity endorsements and testimonials of its products. This attaches familiar faces to the hotel and creates a personal link between potential customers and the hotels (Oriental, 2011).

Examples of what the dominant organisations in the hotel industry currently say about themselves, and how they frame their value proposition within the rhetoric of hospitality, are now discussed. Mission statements define the:

> "fundamental unique purpose that sets a business apart from other firms of its type and identify the scope of businesses' operations in product and market terms" (Pearce & David, 1987, p. 109).

The mission statements of the hotels reviewed here demonstrate a conscious engagement with the notion of a hospitable exchange between the guest and the organisation, or 'host'. Broad themes running through the missions of several of the largest organisations include: interaction, exchange, respect and a hospitable spirit. These themes show the value proposition of a hotel being linked to its ability to deliver the spirit of a hospitable exchange in its product.

The mission statements are a point of reference for this study to establish particular links, however, they are not being used as a data source and will not be analysed in depth. The statements discussed are taken from hotel chains that among the top 20 largest hotel companies in the world and are from the International Hotel Industry Report from Mintel (Mintel, 2013), they are summarised in Table 4-1 and show that hotel companies understand the need to promote a sense of the intangible, conceptual ideal of hospitality that elicits particular emotions as much as they are perhaps truly concerned with profit and occupancy and other tangible, measurable aspects of it as a business. The mission statements reviewed in Table 4-1 invite a consideration of what hospitality is by definition as a phenomenon; where the threshold lies between its position as a concept and as a commercial product and, indeed, if it is even possible to identify a threshold.

Table 4-1 Summary of Hotel Mission Statements

Theme	Organisation	Mission Statement
Respect	Wyndham Hotel Group	"Respect everyone, everywhere…- respect knows no boundaries" (Danziger, 2011).
	Starwood Hotels & Resorts Worldwide	"forming a trust- and respect-based corporate family" (van Paasschen, 2011).
	Ritz-Carlton	"We are Ladies and Gentlemen serving Ladies and Gentlemen" (Cooper, 2011).
Interaction / Exchange	Wyndham Hotel Group	"We strive to improve their lives through their interaction with us" (Danziger, 2011).
	Carlson Hotels Worldwide	To continuously build better and more inclusive relationships with employees, customers, owners and suppliers (Joly, 2011).
	TUI Hotels & Resorts	"Assuring the highest standards of quality and communication and thus ensuring the success of the hotels" (Frenzel, 2011).
	Ritz-Carlton	"We are Ladies and Gentlemen serving Ladies and Gentlemen" (Cooper, 2011).
Spirit	Marriott International	"All Marriott associates are exemplified by Marriott's 'Spirit to Serve' philosophy" (Marriott, 2011b).
	Hilton Hotels Corp.	"To fill the earth with the light and warmth of hospitality" (Nassetta, 2011).
	Starwood Hotels & Resorts Worldwide	"Committed to re-imagining our business with creativity and innovation, resulting in the most fun workplace in the history of the world" (van Paasschen, 2011).
Satisfaction	Marriott International	"Our commitment is that every guest leaves satisfied" (Marriott, 2011b).
Genuine Hospitality	Hilton Hotels Corp.	"To fill the earth with the light and warmth of hospitality" (Nassetta, 2011).
	Global Hyatt Corp.	"Our mission is to provide authentic hospitality" (Hoplamazian, 2011).
	Global Hyatt Corp.	"You're more than welcome" (Hoplamazian, 2011).
	The Rezidor Hotel Group	"Hospitality is all about the individual and at Rezidor we pride ourselves on our unique service culture" (Ritter, 2011).

The question of whether a threshold even needs to be identified is also pertinent. A traditional or 'authentic' hospitable exchange would involve the provision of food, shelter and security for a stranger by a host, with the expectation that the gesture might at some point be returned. Whereas commercial hospitality is essentially founded on the principle that hospitality is provided in return for money (Brotherton, 1999; Brotherton & Wood, 2000; King, 1995; Lugosi, 2008). It is, therefore, notable that the concept of 'authentic hospitality' is used in the mission statements of several hotel groups (See for example Hoplamazian, 2011; Nassetta, 2011; Ritter, 2011). Thus, the language of the traditions that hospitality is ostensibly founded upon is employed by commercial organisations to underpin the value proposition they offer, even to the point of specifically articulating this intention in the case of Hyatt Hotel Corporation: "Our mission is to provide authentic hospitality" (Hoplamazian, 2011, p. 1). As the following discussions will illustrate, authentic hospitality within a commercial context would be difficult to fathom, yet the mission statements shown here attempt to create the idea that their desire to provide hospitality is driven by a greater goal than simply the generation of profit. Hospitality exchanges between human beings are part and parcel of the commercial hospitality product and how well operations frame that provision is likely to impact on their success.

Other strong themes that emerge when considering the largest hotel groups in the world relate to the human exchange element of hospitality. Wyndham Hotel Group focuses on individual exchanges at the micro level in their mission, despite being the second largest hotel organisation in the world: "we strive to improve their (customers') lives through their interaction with us." (Danziger, 2011, p. 1). There is also a strong focus on respect, "Respect everyone, everywhere…- respect knows no boundaries." (Danziger, 2011, p. 1). This is echoed in the mission of Starwood Hotels and Resorts Worldwide (van Paasschen, 2011, p. 1), "forming a trust- and respect-based corporate family". Starwood also concentrates on the micro elements through the use of the word family, giving a personal and 'hospitable' flavour to its corporate mission. This invites the reader to draw links between Starwood's product and images of the personable, family host welcoming a guest into their accommodation.

A metaphysical, intangible aspect of hospitality is inferred in some missions such as that of Hilton Hotels Corporation and Starwood Hotels. Hilton's mission is, "To fill the earth with the light and warmth of hospitality." (Nassetta, 2011, p. 1), here the "light and warmth" apparently aim to animate the otherwise intangible, sensory elements that make their products worth purchasing. Similarly, Starwood also touches on the intangible; "committed to re-imagining our business with creativity and innovation, resulting in the most fun workplace in the history of the world" (van Paasschen, 2011). By using words such as 'imagining', 'creativity' and 'fun', the personal and experiential features of hospitable exchanges are represented in the company mission.

Hospitality is defined as a phenomenon worthy of broad enquiry due to its ability to bestride its antithetical sphere as well as its definitional sphere. In essence, the idea of hospitality, according to Derrida (1998), is implicit in both hospitality and hostility. Thus, hospitality is a construct that governs exchange and embodies the dynamic between an individual and an 'other'. The 'phenomenon' of hospitality could be argued to permeate many aspects of life, weaving through simple notions of day to day interaction and beyond, to the extent that it defines the nature of an industry such as hotels. The need for contextualising hospitality as a phenomenon is twofold in this study: first, recent studies that cite hospitality as being a significant factor in cultural development make it essential to review their contributions; second, addressing the apparent debate between hospitality as a cultural construct and as an industry may reveal elements of the hotel industry context that make leadership qualities associated with it different to other industries.

4.3 Historical Underpinning of Hospitality

A body of research exists that identifies a deeper underpinning conceptualisation of hospitality that sits as a fundamental aspect of day to day exchanges, as presented in the review of mission statements. It is couched as an element of pseudo-religious and spiritual integrity and further demonstrated to have key links to the development of commerce (Lugosi, 2008; O'Gorman, 2010b; White, 1970; Wood, 2002); communication systems (O'Gorman, 2008; O'Mahony, 2007; Wood, 2002); and even sovereign borders (Baum & O'Gorman, 2010; Bell, 2000).

The idea of traditional or absolute hospitality is posited by Derrida (2000) whereby it is asserted that borders, barriers and thresholds are non-existent, and a complete stranger is welcome unconditionally in one's home. Despite describing the notion of absolute hospitality, Derrida (2000) develops his discussion to state the case for the ultimate impossibility of it occurring. In principle, this is the case, as Derrida (2000) asserts that no host would ever truly be able to avoid considering the consequences of an exchange and would, therefore, naturally consider the benefits to them of engaging in it. According to Rosello (2001) and Friese (2004), hospitality is a phenomenon that adheres to a code of practice; the fact that there is a code of hospitality suggests a degree of tradition exists.

Hospitality as a concept has evolved to become a commoditised form in the contemporary economy (Olsen & Connolly, 2000). A consideration of the origins of the term is necessary since its meaning and position in society has evolved considerably. Analysis of the rhetoric of hospitality reveals a degree of ambivalence that elicits questions as to its true foundations. The studies reviewed reveal a phenomenon with both philosophical and religious underpinnings that informs the way in which interactions between people, groups of people and even cultures take place. The phenomenon of hospitality could thus inform the way in which contemporary practitioners lead within their organisations. The review of the rhetoric used by hotel organisations and the philosophical underpinnings of this language is indicative of a rather complex relationship between hospitality as a concept of human exchange and its commercial embodiment. The similarities suggest that there is, in fact, little to differentiate hospitality as a phenomenon and as a commercial proposition. However, what is evident is the need for hotels to promote their image as welcoming and warm, and their acting as 'good hosts' so that, despite their size and global reach, the value proposition they offer focuses on the fundamental idea of social exchange between host and guest, an exchange that underpins transactions in all service industries.

The Five Dimensions of Hospitality (O'Gorman, 2007a) offer a strong framework on which to base interpretations of hospitality as a concept. O'Gorman (2007a) establishes a link between hospitality and religious belief, for example, through the Benedictine rule, as well as hospitality being evident in the very fabric of Western cultural routines and practices. Park (1994) also notes this. O'Gorman (2007a) identifies the consideration of hospitality in all monotheistic religions as well as other ancient faiths through the five core aspects:

1. Honourable tradition, whereby hospitality is engrained in cultural values
2. Fundamental to human existence, meeting the basic, physiological needs of guests
3. Stratified, recognised to the extent that stratification is necessary
4. Diversified, different types of hospitality and service available
5. Central to human endeavour, played a central role in cultural progress at all levels

Ben Jelloun (1999) and Park (1994) discuss a range of levels of hospitality depending on perspective and issues concerning societal or religious status. The need for shelter, food and water cited by most of the research reviewed illustrates the fundamental requirement for hospitality in many cases, and it is suggested that many of the customs surrounding the provision of these needs have evolved from religious practices. Friese (2004) notes that the language of hospitality is part of the fabric of social life, and the very meanings of the words concerned create a code which is followed by both hosts and guests during hospitable exchanges. From the work of Friese (2004), Derrida (2000) and others who have discussed the language of hospitality (see for example Benveniste, 1969), it is evident that hospitality is offered according to the conditions of this evolved code.

The place of hospitality in ancient cultures is illustrated in language (O'Gorman, 2010b, p. 19), in that the understanding of what hospitality meant to past cultures is only gleaned through the interpretation of ancient texts, and "equally important is how these words are now used and translated into contemporary English." The etymological underpinnings of hospitality and its related terms illustrate the way in which its meanings have changed over time (O'Gorman, 2010b). The origins of the words 'host' and 'guest' are shown to be rooted in the same Proto Indo-European word, *'ghos-pot'*. O'Gorman (2010b) develops his discussion of the nature of hospitality as a phenomenon to show it to be fundamentally driven by a reciprocal exchange between people, and the terms host and guest have evolved to be differentiated roles over time. The word 'hospitality', therefore, subsists as a term to represent the exchange between two individuals: the host and guest. In deconstructing the term, Derrida (2000) also observes an implicit delimitation of power and space between the host and the 'stranger'. O'Gorman (2006) notes the tension that Derrida (2000) identifies as being one that is created by the need for a host always to complement hospitality with a degree of hostility. Hospitality as an exchange is, therefore, a mélange of tensions that take place in territory that is difficult to delineate as that of the host, that of the guest and that which is shared. It is also challenging to conceive of the behaviour that constitutes a 'good' host and a 'good' guest in terms of adhering to the implicit code or set of rules.

Derrida (2000) argues that a potential guest is often a stranger, and this carries with it some risk; however, that risk is essential for the hospitality that is offered to be genuine. Derrida's (2000) research claims that if a host is capable of knowing all the costs and benefits of welcoming a stranger into their home then it becomes a calculated, profit-seeking endeavour and ceases to be authentic hospitality. This highlights perhaps misleading rhetoric in the mission statements presented above claiming notions of authentic hospitality within calculated, profit-seeking exchanges. Derrida (2000) adds that such exchanges are built upon the aforementioned socially governed rules of hospitality and these are designed to protect both host and guest; in the acceptance of a guest a host expects them to perform like a guest, but is open to the risk that they do not. Although guests in hotels know they are paying for their experience, it is interesting to note that the presentation of the ‘product’ they are purchasing is packaged as something that is commonly accepted as not involving financial exchange.

Despite being described by some authors as a modern phenomenon developing contemporaneously with the advent of the hotel industry as it is known today (see for example Sandoval-Strausz, 1999), hospitality as a formally paid-for convenience is evident in ancient Egypt and other historical societies (Kemp, 2006; Maclaren & Gillies, 2010). Hospitality is, thus, part of the fabric of ordered civilisation (Lugosi, 2007, 2008). The precursory system to the contemporary hotel industry is rich with touchstones to aid in our understanding of modern hotels. In what could be described as a natural human pursuit, examples of historic hospitality provide descriptions of inspirational and influential figures as well as insights into their cultural and physical environments. O’Connor (2005, p. 267) outlines the need for couching research related to hospitality within a historical narrative:

> “Only once an understanding of hospitality’s origins and its place in human nature is achieved can one expect to discover what hospitality means today, and more importantly what it will mean to those entering the industry in the future.”

According to Jones (2002) and O’Gorman (2005), philosophical theory could complement the way in which hospitality management is both taught and practiced. O’Gorman (2007a) and Morrison and O’Gorman (2008) consider the historic textual evidence of hospitality whereby it is honoured in a religious context. O’Gorman (2007b, p. 189) illustrates the way in which hospitality is inherent in Western religious practices, noting the need to synthesise, “the wide ranging inter-disciplinary perspective to the exploration of hospitality”.

Service based firms have been the subject of some historical analysis. For example, recent studies have addressed the determinants of internationalisation within the service industry (Boddewyn et al., 1986; Dunning & McQueen, 1982; Fletcher &

Godley, 2000; Godley, 2003; Li & Guisinger, 1992). The dearth of previous engagement with the historical aspects of a firm, be it individual, organisational or in the macro environment, is cited by Boddewyn et al. (1986) as being a product of the difficulty of measuring and bounding the activities of service firms. Pope (2000, p. 658) notes that "data are commonly scarce and of uncertain value." This is compounded by the difficulty in applying previously developed theories from other industry contexts, in which determinants are measured based on technology and innovation (Godley, 2003). Fletcher and Godley (2000) note that determinants of success among parent companies in Britain in the early 20th century involved superior logistical and marketing capabilities rather than innovation. Godley (2003) finds that in the same context innovation within the service industry was low, compared to other industries. Further clouding the analysis of service firms, Dunning and McQueen (1982) find that the relationship between ownership and control is more complex than in other industries, and it is often difficult to disentangle the nuances of operating structures.

The distinctive nature of service products is represented by the following core characteristics: intangibility, perishability, customisation, heterogeneity, co-production and inseparability (Boddewyn et al., 1986; West, Ford, & Ibrahim, 2006). Boddewyn et al. (1986) define three distinct types of international services: 'foreign-tradable service'; 'location-bound service' and 'combination services'; these types are bound to varying extents by the factors listed above. However, what has been missing from the analysis so far is the focus on the individuals who animate the business and enact the processes involved in driving growth and success; they have tended to focus on firm histories and organisational structures. Research is needed into why some bourgeoning entrepreneurs and inspirational individuals have become key players on the global stage.

O'Gorman (2010a) emphasises the role and influence of eight inspirational and charismatic individuals in shaping the evolution of the commercial hospitality industry beginning with Hammurabi of Mesopotamia (c. 1850 BC), concluding with Shah Abbas of Persia (c 1500 AD). These individuals are the original pioneers of an industry. Although personal commercial gain was not at the heart of their actions, they nonetheless laid the foundations upon which the contemporary industry still functions.

The value of acknowledging the place of hospitality in its historical context indicates that hospitality as a phenomenon has its origins within the very fabric of the establishment of civilisation. Second, the influence of key individuals and their belief systems in creating the foundations for a contemporary, stratified, diversified and commercialised industry is apparent. The need to understand the processes enacted by individuals and how their own narratives are perpetuated in their daily actions and in those of their employees is manifest in the evidence of the significant contribution the small amount of individuals discussed here have made to the development of commercial hospitality. Furthermore, it could be argued that the influence of these figures was not directly born out of a desire to develop commercial hospitality; the goal was much broader in scope.

4.4 The Development of the Hotel Industry

The contemporary hotel industry forms a large proportion of the tourism industry which, regardless of whether it is measured in terms of employees, countries involved in it, turnover, profit, customer numbers or cultural impact, is one of the most influential and significant industries in the world. Around 9% of global trade is generated by tourism and similarly it employs 9% of global workers (Rugles-Brise & Aimable, 2012). The hotel sector provides an environment where immediate feedback is available because production and consumption of the service happen simultaneously; as such it provides an excellent context in which to study subjects such as leadership and entrepreneurship. From a practical perspective, any study exploring the role of leadership in hotels stands to offer a contribution to our knowledge of professional practice within the industry.

Although the hotel industry is recognised as a core element of the tourism industry, framing the hotel industry itself is challenging, as the vast majority of businesses operating in it are small, owner-run establishments, which may be run in an informal guest house style. This makes defining what is and is not a hotel difficult. There are no official statistics but estimates suggest that upwards of 65% of the hotel industry is comprised of SMEs, with many more slipping under the radar (Morrison, 1998). Beyond this, the industry is dominated by large corporations, turning over billions of dollars and employing tens of thousands of people. The mission statements of the most significant organisations were presented in section 4.2, and these companies have upwards of 300,000 rooms each, reaching 600,000 rooms at their largest (Danziger, 2011). According to the ‘International Hotel Industry’ report (Mintel, 2013), there are upwards of 20 million hotel beds being operated globally. Although there are some globally recognised brands that represent the leading edge of the industry, it is still fragmented, with no official, legislated and unified means of measuring quality.

O’Gorman (2009) highlights two basic approaches, declarative and judgmental, to charting the evolution of the hotel industry. Rutes and Penner (1985) represent a typical declarative statement approach, claiming to trace the development of contemporary commercial hospitality to four basic roots:

- Commercial hotels can be traced to facilities that existed to expedite trade or mail delivery, or to accommodate government and religious travellers.
- Resorts and entertainment-based facilities are related to Greek and Roman spas.
- Rental housing and rooming houses eventually led to condos, timeshares and bed and breakfast facilities.
- Royal courts led to superluxury hotels, castles and condominiums.

Similarly, King (1995) argues that commercial hospitality developed from only two roots: the luxury accommodation of aristocrats and minimum level accommodation provided for commoners. Other examples are offered by Lattin (1989), who states that a history of lodging dates back 12,000 years (although he offers no evidence as to why); Medlik and Ingram (2000), who claim that the hotel industry has 200 years of history, and Bardi (2007), who declares that the founders of the hotel industry are Statler, Hilton, and Marriott among others in the early 20th century. The origins and evolution of hotels are clearly debatable.

The other approach highlighted by O'Gorman (2009) is termed 'the judgmental approach', advocated by those authors who imply that commercial hospitality is somehow ignoble compared to other forms of hospitality (Gillespie & Morrison, 2001; Lashley, Lynch, & Morrison, 2007; Morrison, 2001; Wood, 1994). This argument originates with Muhlmann (1932) and summarised by Wood (1994, p. 738), whereby the commercial context of hospitality is described as a:

> "formal and rational system of (usually monetary) exchange whereby hospitality is provided in particular institutional forms (hotels, restaurants) that are essentially impersonal… for the most part, hospitality is no longer about the personal giving of the host's own food and accommodation but a matter of impersonal financial exchange."

This is developed, for example, by Gillespie and Morrison (2001, p. 115)**,** who argue that "commercial hospitality provision arose from a general process of modernisation, the gradual breakdown of the importance of kinship and social duty of care", and variations on this description are repeated in Morrison (2001). This view, however, is highlighted as over-simplified and is symptomatic of under-engagement with the subject matter. Debate by Bolton (2004; 2009) illustrates a marriage of social duty and professional/commercial incentive at the heart of service work. As such, the seeming convenience of commercial opportunity and kinship being inversely proportionate in hospitality, as though displacement has taken place in an evolutionary and measurable way, sits at odds with much of the research that focuses on the emotions of service work. Some of the challenges alluded to by studies focusing on frontline service workers illustrate feelings of social duty actually affecting approaches to work (Bolton & Houlihan, 2009, 2010).

4.4.1 The First Modern Hotel

When the first hotel came into being is also heavily disputed. Authors tend to split between two different schools of thought, either looking at design or linguistic aspects, or social catalysts. For example, King (1995) argues that social turmoil which swept France after the revolution (c. 1793), caused a great deal of unemployment, especially in the household staff who had served the aristocracy: “some of them proceeded to open hotels and eating establishments to cater to the growing middle and merchant classes, in Europe and in the United States” (King, 1995, p. 221). Denby (1998) asserts that the revolution in France caused many refugees to flee from persecution, bringing their skills of catering for aristocratic tastes to augment Britain’s traditional cookery and services. From this event, French influence became established and caused its own revolution, with French restaurants appearing and the French language being so widely used in new hotels that it became a hallmark of stylish, high quality establishments. White (1970) argues that a key factor was the Industrial Revolution, which caused a redistribution of wealth from the aristocracy to the bourgeoisie and made commercial travel more accessible. The bourgeoisie sought to emulate the lifestyle of the aristocracy, thus ‘grand hotels’ were built in the 1800s, which often resembled palaces or chateaux.

Despite acknowledging some of the historical incarnations of commercial hospitality, Sandoval-Strausz (2007) defines a hotel as being a distinct entity compared to examples from the past such as the caravanserai of Persia. Several studies present the concept of the hotel as a new phenomenon based on public interior spaces, public access, purpose-built designs and other related factors (Conroy, 1995; Sandoval-Strausz, 1999, 2003, 2007). Even those that do acknowledge the history of commercial hospitality as extending back to Babylonian times and beyond (Rushmore & Baum, 2002) cite hotels as representing a shift towards more comprehensive development. Much of the debate surrounding this stems from the question of defining whether a new industry was created with hotels or if it evolved to suit changing needs from previous accommodation businesses.

Medlik and Ingram (2000) claim the word ‘hotel’ came into usage in English in 1760, meaning a large house in which apartments were let by the day, week or month. In contrast Denby (1998) claims that the Royal Clarence Hotel in Exeter, England, was known as ‘The Hotel’ when founded in 1768, highlighting some of the differences that could be expected in a hotel: Private sitting-rooms; residents’ coffee; probably a second dining room; no special need of early morning starts for the noisy bustling stagecoach traffic; no thirsty and hungry passengers invading the dining-rooms and monopolising the large fires. However, Sandoval-Strausz (1999, 2003, 2007) and Dittmer (2002) argue that hotels began on the east coast of the newly colonised North America in the early 18th century. Hotels developed from English taverns and inns, the traditions of which had been exported by the British settlers (Hayes, 1952). Charting the development of hotels in the United States, particularly in New York in the early 19th Century, Sandoval-Strausz (1999, 2003, 2007) shows they became grand symbols of political endeavour; politically driven merchants built hotels to demonstrate wealth and power and enforce class delineation.

Specifically, Dittmer (2002) asserts that in 1794, the ‘City Hotel’ was the first structure designed as a hotel and was constructed in New York City near Wall Street; it had 73 guest rooms and was the largest hotel in New York until 1813. It offered a room and meals: breakfast at eight; dinner at three; tea at six; and supper at nine. Whereas, White (1970, p. 129) states that:

> “the first hotel that was ever invented, the Tremont, opened in Boston, Massachusetts, on 16th October, 1829. The modern luxury hotel is as much an invention as the sewing machine and it was an American invention, the first transatlantic development that owed nothing to Europe”.

He argues that the European hotels were only for an exclusive minority; the guest took a room or a suite of rooms and his own servant or retinue accompanied him to prepare meals and provide service rather than the hotel providing a full service to cater for travellers. Therefore, as commercial trade advanced, hotels were part of the supporting industry that developed, “In this sense, these hotels represented the merchant elite's effort to valorize the pursuit of trade through the deliberate crafting of the built environment" (Sandoval-Strausz, 1999, p. 264).

4.4.2 Development Phases

Given the foregoing debate on the origins of hotels, the development of the industry took place in distinct evolutionary phases along with other major development in travel and commerce. The evolution in the transportation infrastructure was to play a large part, in 1285, King Edward II (1786) enacted the first legislation since the departure of the Romans in around 480 A.D. that dealt with the maintenance of roads. By about 1350, some degree of safety having returned to the roads, travel and trade increased (Borer, 1972). Roads improved dramatically from 1706 with the first turnpike trusts (Albert, 1972). With the evolution of the roads came the revolution of transportation. King (1995) asserts that with the development of coaches with springs, travel became tolerable and those who could afford such equipment could now travel in relative comfort; this was the beginning of the modern travel industry. The establishment of regular stagecoach routes in the early 1600s greatly aided the growth of travel (White, 1970). The combined improvement in both coaches and roads led to the establishment of regular stagecoach services and routes causing the evolution of 'coaching inns' and 'posthouses' on major routes servicing the coaching and mail industries.

Originally an inn would have been a farmhouse set by the roadside, and as such was self-supporting. 'Posthouses' took their name from the system of fixed posts in the ground that marked the regular stopping places on main roads. From these posts the farmers or innkeepers were able to anticipate the number of guests they would have to feed, and predict the time of their arrival. The network of these establishments was the precursor to what would later become the Trusthouse group of hotels in the UK. As further advancements were made, there seemed to evolve two classes of coach travel: the 'insiders', being those who could afford seats inside the coach, and the 'outsiders', who had to sit up with the coachman (Borer, 1972; White, 1970). The dynamic within the coaches was also to have an effect at the inns; the 'insiders' ate foods of their choice in the parlour or private sitting room, while the ‘outsiders’ were relegated to eating the ‘ordinary’ meal in the kitchen: a set menu, served at a set time. Not only did it cause a differential in the eating arrangements, differences in accommodation were to emerge as well, those who travelled in private carriages were the ‘quality’ trade and stayed in separate first class facilities (King, 1995).

As well as the provision of food, beverage and accommodation, inns have often served as political centres (Borer, 1972), being used for Royal Courts and political campaigns (Le Blanc, 1745). For example, in 1170 at the Fountain Inn the plotters met to plan the murder of St Thomas á Becket (Robertson, 1875). Inns also served as education centres as part of the grand tour (Hayton, 1996). Some travellers’ diaries reflect issues of poor accommodation (Moritz, 1795) and food (Bateson, 1893) whereas others state they were of a high standard (Harrison, 1994; Moryson, 1617). Reading through anthologies of diaries highlights issues surrounding food, reception, accommodation, entertainment, furniture, hygiene, safety and the general running of inns (Bargrave, 1999; Black, 1992; Blythe, 1989; Cradock, 1828; Gard, 1989; Grosley, 1772; Moryson, 1617).

The advent and development of the railways was to have a great and lasting effect on the hotel industry according to Dittmer (2002). Carter (1990) observes that the British Transport Hotels pioneered the industry in the UK and operated for over 145 years. The first of their hotels opened at Euston in 1838 and closed in 1983 following the sale of their remaining assets, prompted by the Transport Act of 1981. The hotels followed largely the same pattern of location as the coaching inns along the lines of traffic, thus railway hotels were destined to flourish as railway networks expanded (Medlik & Ingram, 2000). The rise of these new hotels directly affected the old coaching inns and their development was met with great local opposition (Borer, 1972). The beginning of the 20th century saw both vast national wealth and Britain’s prestige raised to a level it had never before attained; it was the height of the Empire. City centre hotels began in earnest and the ‘Ritz era’ of hotel keeping began, where charismatic individuals were the familiar faces driving the most luxurious and famous hotels in the world. The Hotel Victoria opened near Trafalgar Square in

1887, and could accommodate 500 visitors. The English businessman, Richard D'Oyly Carte, opened the Savoy in 1889 and shortly after, César Ritz took over the management. Next on Ritz's list was the Carlton (1899); then a network of Ritz hotels spread, promoted by the Ritz Development Company. The Hotel Cecil was opened next to the Savoy in 1896, and the new Claridges in 1898 (Medlik & Ingram, 2000).

Deutsche Luftschiffahrts AG, was founded on 16 November 1909, they operated zeppelin airships and were the world's first airline. The first international commercial flight took place between London and Paris on 10 January 1919. Civil aviation came to be regarded as a commercial proposition and received Government backing in many countries, including Britain. Within a comparatively short time, daily services were operating between London and the principal European cities, and regular transatlantic services were inaugurated in 1939 (Dittmer, 2002). This revolution saw the advent of airports and airport hotels.

In the early 20th century, the UK experienced significant development and the beginnings of a move away from small, privately owned businesses providing accommodation (Pope, 2000; Slattery, 2009). Hotel groups emerged with portfolios representing millions of pounds in capital such as the Savoy Group and Trust Houses (Slattery, 2009). The extensive railway system and an increasingly 'motorised' emergent middle class created demand for lodging for the domestic market (Pope, 2000). Despite the World Wars and the economic downturn of the late 1920s and 1930s, the hotel industry became a rapidly expanding and diversified industry into the 1950s. After coaching inns went into decline and new accommodation sprang up as cars became more affordable, within a short space of time there was an amazingly rapid rate of change. Earl Grey created the Trusthouse company by buying declining coaching inns around the UK and turning them into profitable lodging establishments. Due to the location of these businesses, as the towns grew so the property value increased, and the value of the company increased dramatically. Trusthouse was one of the first hotel chains and paved the way for further industry development (Stewart, 1991). From the 1960s the hotel industry became multinational and integrated within a wave of global tourism and travel (Dunning & Kundu, 1995). Brands from the USA such as Hilton and Marriott moved into Europe, Africa and the Far East to establish the first international network of hotels.

The influence of road, railways, the motor car and a growing middle class influenced larger scale hotel development in the UK, whereas in 18th Century America, political and mercantile endeavour precipitated the building of hotels. The development of international air travel partly drove the internationalisation of hotels. Financial structures in hotel investment were also crucial, the near demise of three of the UK's largest hotel groups in the 1930s (namely Trusthouse, the Savoy Group and British Transport Hotels) was due to difficulties in balancing the need to expand and the expense of procuring property. Shrewd negotiation, foresight speculation and disinvestment were key to maintaining profits. The significant growth also demonstrates a lesser focus on individuals and hospitality as a concept and on the economics and business of hotels. With the globalisation and diversification of the industry, contemporary operators face myriad issues relating to the business.

There is evidence, therefore, of hotels personalising their image through key individuals, be they proprietary family members, leaders or even high profile guests. These efforts sit within the context of the global industry, presenting challenges that go beyond simply hosts and guests, as was perhaps the case historically. Lashley and Morrison (2003) observe that the hotel industry attempts to depict itself as smiling, friendly, and welcoming of its guests into a space that is safe and social whilst providing for their moral, physical, spiritual, and material wellbeing. This gives way to a paradoxical situation, as there is ample opportunity for hosts and the guests to be abused in this supposed secure environment, particularly if the promise of such 'spiritual' wellbeing in reality has a price tag. Lashley and Morrison (2003) go on to highlight warnings given by police, insurance companies, and hotel safety organisations that warn of dangers related to hotels. There are, however, examples of commercial hosts acting in what could be described as a spirit of true selfless hospitality and giving personality and a hospitable veneer to this global, arguably impersonal, industry. The hotelier Hermann Simon’s actions in Kuwait in 1990, at the start of the first gulf war, were undeniably heroic:

> “Being in the Middle East can be an exciting experience both for the hotelier and the hotel guest...When the Iraqis decided to move into Kuwait overnight in 1990, Hermann Simon, an Austrian, was in charge (of one of the international hotels)... The hotel eventually became a barracks, but not before Hermann... had delivered each of his foreign guests to their respective Embassy compounds. The hotel car was bedecked with an enormous Austrian flag across the bonnet, and he personally drove his clients to the diplomatic area until the wheels were shot out by a zealous Iraqi guarding a road junction” (Picot 1993:42f).

The next section presents some of the issues faced by contemporary managers in more detail.

4.5 Trends in the Hotel Industry

As the hotel industry has globalised, diversified, vertically integrated and ultimately become a significant aspect of the global economy, the issues concerning it at a macro level and those relating to the frontline micro level of service work have become complex and ever-changing. The nature of modern service work is an area of concern within current research, illustrating the demands put upon the individuals who represent production, supply and consumption of the hospitality product. It also highlights the subsequent requirement for effective leadership and the impact the nature of service work can have on leadership. Similarly, research has been conducted into the impacts of macro level trends on hotels as they operate in a globalised economic environment. These areas are discussed to provide a more comprehensive impression of the contemporary hotel industry and the challenges those involved with it face, so informing the framing of the context in which modern leaders operate. There is a need for improved training and human resource management (See Karatepe, Yorganci, & Haktanir, 2009; Madera & Smith, 2009).

The hotel industry, in particular, has a reputation for treating its employees as expendable, low-skilled workers, de-valuing the labour and inhibiting the interests of career-orientated, educated individuals who have the potential to be future leaders (Martin et al., 2006).

The management issues identified below highlight the importance of leadership as they broadly relate to the effective organisation and direction of people. These issues provide context for the challenges faced by leaders. They are discussed in depth and then presented in summary form in the table. Challenges range from the most micro and unacknowledged areas of service work to problems faced by any large scale organisation, such as political or economic shifts. The following explores issues at multiple levels from individual, to firm, to the macro environment.

4.5.1 Macro level challenges

Day to day challenges faced by contemporary hotel organisations range from managing customer expectations to macro-economic issues including financial crisis, terrorism, war, political unrest and the environment (Ayuso, 2007; Glantz & Charlesworth, 1999; Knox & Walsh, 2005; Lee, Barker, & Kandampully, 2003; Madera & Smith, 2009; Okumus & Karamustafa, 2005; Paraskevas, 2006; Pine, Zhang, & Qi, 2000; Wharton, 1999). International hotel brands are now seemingly entrenched within the global political and economic landscape and, as a result, must adapt to and accept the challenges this creates. Recent financial crises and the ever-increasing pressure to be environmentally aware have rendered sustainability a high operational priority. Margins have become tighter and the visible impact of the industry through high-scale development can be intrusive and attract criticism (Chan & Lam, 2003). Harbinson (2009) notes the severe difficulties faced by the hotel industry in recovering from the 2008 global financial crash, illustrating the sensitivity of hotels to such events. There is evidently a tension where the billion dollar portfolios with myriad stakeholders and shareholders also have to find a way of giving the organisation a face and personality to support the product itself. Tieman (2005) highlights this in the Accor Hotel Group, where the chief executive was dismissed due to falling occupancy rates across the organisation. This decision illustrates the fact that the modern hotel industry is a ‘cut-throat’ environment that answers to the bottom line of profit and occupancy as much as it does to the creation of memorable hospitable experiences.

The political writer P. J. O’Rourke recorded his experience of hotels in Lebanon in 1984. Although his writing is satirical in style, the same idea of concern for the safety of those who are enjoying hospitality is reflected:

> “There are a number of Beirut hotels still operating. The best is the Commodore… only once in ten years of civil war has this bar been shot up by any of the pro-temperance Shiite militias. Even then the management was forewarned so only some Pepsi bottles and maybe a stray BBC stringer were damaged. Get a room away from the pool. It’s harder to hit that side of the building with artillery. Rates are about fifty dollars per night… The Commodore also has restaurants. These are recommended during fighting... The Commodore always manages to get food delivered no matter what the situation outdoors. The staff is cheerful, efficient and will try to get you back if you’re kidnapped” (O'Rourke, 1994, p. 22).

A notable account of tragedy and macro issues affecting the modern commercial hospitality industry is written by Knable (2002), who was the general manager of the Regent Wall Street Hotel, and who was running his hotel on September 11, 2001:

> “I am sitting at my desk when someone pops their head in my office to say a plane has hit one of the World Trade Center towers. Flabbergasted, I run up to the roof of the hotel…When I walk out on the roof debris is raining from the tower I grab a slip of paper out of the air, which turns out to be a boarding card from the doomed airliner. Dazed, I look at the tower, which has the clear outline of a commercial jet punched into it, and there a spiralling tornado of debris flying through the air, like in a ticker-tape parade. The bright sun reflects off all the paper in the sky like glitter. Looking around me on the roof

> I see a lady's shoe, insulation, and some terrible items from the upper floors of that tower. I can see people gathering at and hanging out the windows of the stricken tower….Rushing back to my office, I call my wife, Nicole, and shout at her to turn on the television. Without waiting for her to reply, I run to the lobby, which was eerily calm. The word is not yet out; we have time to gather ourselves. With other managers, we quickly advise colleagues present of what we know and urge them to remain calm and to assist guests as best they can. I don't know why, but I am drawn back to the roof. As I walk out I see the second plane go in" (Knable 2002, p. 15).

The manager of the hotel kept a journal of what happened during and after the events of that day. Against the advice of the risk assessors, he did not shut the hotel, which became a refuge, a hostel for the homeless. Without electricity it fed anyone who came to its doors.

> "The buffet turns out to be a hit. Word starts to get around, 'The folks at The Regent have laid out a pretty good spread'. Strangers are still wandering in off the street, and our team is asking me what to do with them, everyone gets directed to the ballroom, and I pass the word that no one is to be turned away and all are welcome. That impetuous decision turns our hotel into a major operation churning out tons of food that serves thousands each day of the disaster. Soon, rescue workers are streaming out from Ground Zero for a meal" (Knable 2002:15).

Knable (2002) gives an account of the hotel operations for the next few months. Rescue workers and volunteers were welcomed, fed, and supplied with washing and sleeping facilities. Staff who could not come into work because of fear or stress were still paid and throughout the rescue and clean-up phase no one was charged, everything was free. The hotel became a successful commercial operation again and Knable (2002) attributes the hotel's renewed success to leadership, teamwork, communication and involvement in the local community.

Today, accommodation design at corporate level is often perceived as a strategic tool, through which technical ability is transferred into competitive advantage by emphasising customer needs (West and Purvis, 1992). Pannell Kerr Forster Associates recognised that other emotive factors include fashion, image, and style; design, redesign, and interior design will be an integral part of marketing and positioning. At present, in terms of their design and range of services, hotels are trying to appeal to the fantasies of business people and tourists: good hotel design communicates quality, value for money, and demand (West and Purvis, 1992). UK designer Josef Ransley believes that current design trends stem from hoteliers' quests for greater individuality and a sense of personality as the global competitive climate is fierce. He states, "the industry has become so competitive, hoteliers realise they have to offer customers something different so they are going for contemporary classics that offer theatre and entertainment" (cited in Gillespie 1999, p. 199).

According to the international study conducted by Moutinho et al. (1995), the areas of greatest importance for the hotel industry were (in order of decreasing importance): personnel; marketing; finance; accountancy; and catering. The three key strategic inputs that would enhance the contribution made by the hotel sector to society are: an active policy of intervention and support by public administration; the adoption of a policy which encompasses an ecological orientation; a balanced policy of human resource management. Moutinho et al. (1995) indicate that all international hoteliers who responded were concerned about the conservation of cultural heritage, the protection of buildings, and the local countryside, as well as the need for the global protection of the environment. Lee-Ross (1999) identifies a general operational dichotomy in the hospitality industry whereby large multinational corporations who effectively fly the flag for the industry have expanded more quickly than their human resource capabilities. As such, there are countless issues in the industry relating to the emotional work of frontline service work and the demands associated with it.

Hochschild (1983) discusses the emotional labour of frontline service workers. The study concludes that service workers' emotions, feelings, and nature of engagement with others are suppressed and ‘transmutated’ versions of the private selves that have been commoditised by the control of the management: “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” (Hochschild, 1983, p. 7). Proposed by Hochschild (1983), the concept is that in order to conform with the expectations of the organisation when engaging with customers, workers suppress the private self in favour of their public self. From this suppression of the private self, the potential increases for the private and public self to become integrated to the point that the private self is emotionally alienated from the worker.

Debate on this topic has been catalysed by research carried out by Bolton (2004; 2005, 2009, 2007), Bolton and Boyd (2003), and Bolton and Houlihan (2009, 2010). Collectively, this research represents a body of work that challenges some of the assumptions of Hochschild’s (1983) research into emotional labour and further identifies ambiguities and contradictions in the fabric of its argument. Through a study of air cabin crew, Bolton and Boyd (2003) present evidence of frontline service workers actively disengaging the private self from the performance of public sphere engagement in order to protect themselves from the interaction. Karatepe and Uludag (2007) and Karatepe et al. (2009) describe such situations in the hotel industry, where conflict arises with guests, and service workers have to emotionally manage the resolution of problems.

One of the most persistent images of service work in hotels is of the ‘actor waiter’, who emerges from a squalid back of house to deliver a wonderful performance to the guest, giving guests the feeling of control (Guerrier & Adib, 2000). This and other similar ideas are presented by Goffman (1959) and Mars and Nicod (1984). Picot (1993) shows a more attractive and humorous dimension to working in the industry, developing the question: “Does the waitress get the jump on the customer, or does the customer get the jump on the waitress?” The below quotation from George Orwell, working as a waiter in Paris in the 1930s, is an oft-used image of service performance in the hotel industry:

> "It is an instructive sight to see a waiter going into a hotel dining-room. As he passes the door a sudden change comes over him. The set of his shoulders alters; all the dirt and hurry and irritation have dropped off in an instant. He glides over the carpet with a solemn priest like air... And you (cannot) help thinking, as you see him bow and smile, with the benign smile of the trained waiter, that the customer is put to shame by having such an aristocrat serve him" (Orwell, 1945, p. 67).

Gabriel (1988) highlights the less glamorous parts of the commercial hotel industry, painting employees as those who suffer from dehumanising work, demeaning management styles and inadequate pay. Lockwood and Jones (2000) argue that the industry is locked in a self-reinforcing cycle:

> "As long as customers are prepared to accept mass-produced goods and services, the markets for these grow and this allows prices to be reduced through better economies of scale and scope and still allow the firms to make improved profits through the efficiency of their systems. These lower prices and the improved consistency inherent in the system result in a growing gap between the individuality offered by 'mom and pop' operations and the homogeneity of the chains" (Lockwood & Jones, 2000, p. 167).

This notion is contested by some research, where the mass-production and commoditisation of service and related goods results in frustrations among workers and customers (See for example Bolton & Houlihan, 2010; Korczynski, 2002; Korczynski, Shire, Frenkel, & Tam, 2000). As customers receive further assurance about the standard of products and services, and focus primarily on a cheaper price, the gap is further widened. Efficient, cheap, and mass produced hospitality work can demean employees, in both what they have to do in their jobs and how they interact with customers (Leidner, 1993).

Hochschild (1983) and Giuffre and Williams (1994) highlight the concept of doing whatever it takes to please the customer, and study some of the pressures and abuse to which this can leave employees vulnerable. Guerrier and Adib (2000) emphasise certain aspects of hotel work which place stress on employees: dealing with unreasonable requests and behaviour from guests; balancing professional behaviour and personal feelings; dealing with gender and racial discrimination; sexuality; and exploitative and incompetent management. Furthermore, the expectation of genuine service in an increasingly commoditised service environment increases the pressure on employees at all levels.

Dealing with such stresses is a daily characteristic of service work in the hotel industry. Subsequent engagement and disengagement of private emotions is a product of the degree of subscription among employees to organisational feeling rules (Hochschild, 1983). These rules are an implicit protocol that is underpinned by myriad factors such as the organisational culture, mission, vision and, indeed, specific dynamics among organisational actors. An issue facing the hotel industry, however, is described by Knox and Walsh (2005) as the structures imposed by many large hotel organisations being distinctly inflexible in an environment that requires dynamism and a high degree of flexibility. The nuanced and complex management of public and private self is alluded to by Bolton and Boyd (2003, p. 297):

> "Organisational actors are highly effective emotion managers, who are able to present themselves in the proper manner according to the implicit rules of the situation."

This builds on Goffman (1967) who notes the social conditioning of day to day life that imbues employees with the skills to act accordingly in different situations and among varying social dynamics; Bolton (2001) refers to this as 'emotional juggling'. However, the range of dynamics makes it challenging to articulate categorically the balance between public and private 'selves' that is adopted within an individual service employee. Many hospitality companies are using scripting as a technique to attempt to provide both consistency and efficiency in service delivery. Tansik and Smith (2000) suggest 11 functions for scripting: to assist the service employee to discover what the customer wants or needs; to control the customer; to establish historical routines that may be relevant to the service encounter; to facilitate control of workers; to legitimise organisational actions; to serve as analogies; to facilitate organised behaviour; to provide a guide to behaviour; to buffer or exacerbate role conflict; to provide a basis for evaluating behaviour; and to conserve cognitive capacity. Whilst Johnston and Clark (2005) accept that scripts can play a valuable part in service design and delivery, they highlight a number of problems with scripting, as scripts: may become too inflexible; may lead to a customer perception of animated behaviour or may lead to defensive behaviour. The global scale of hotel operations also encompasses a large range of nationalities and cultures, and sensitivity to this increases the challenge of managing the service product.

In his study of the anthropology of hospitality, Selwyn (2000) tells a modern day story, illustrating the importance of cultural awareness.

> "There is a bridge over the river just outside Sarajevo (the *kozja cuprija*) which traders and visitors from the east need to cross before entering the city. Beside the bridge there is a lodging house which has traditionally offered hospitality to such visitors. Apart from anything else these are customarily offered coffee, of which there are three types. The vernacular name for the first type of coffee is *docekusa,* 'welcome coffee'. Following this the guest, if he has not yet left for the town, is offered *razqa vorusa* 'talking coffee'. If he has still not departed for the town having taken some cups of this second variety, the guest is served a third type which is known as *sikterusa*, which my informant translated wittily and pointedly as 'fuck off coffee'".

Cross cultural management is an additional facet of service work, particularly in the hotel industry (Bendix, 1989; Bryce, 2007;2009; Leong, 1989; Sarkissian, 1998). The nature of different cultures and the communication difficulties that can occur create issues and even barriers to entry or fair treatment for particular groups (Chang & Tsai, 2011; Tsai & Huang, 2008). Cultural diversity can also be cultivated as a marketing aspect of a hotel product according to Appiah-Adu, Fyall, and Singh (2000), whereby the range of cultures represented by staff creates a unique culture of its own found in that particular organisation, which can add value to the service experience of customers. Such micro issues require management in a subtle and perhaps insignificant way relative to other more macro issues faced by the industry. Yet the micro issues discussed here have a direct relationship with a leader's ability to drive an organisation toward coping with macro level challenges, thus, the management of micro issues become part of the strategy of managing macro issues. The following table offers a summary of the main issues addressed by the literature concerning contemporary hotel management.

Table 4-2 Management Issues in the Contemporary Hospitality Industry

Issue	Description	References
Change management	The transient customer base requires the retention of guests and relationship management to increase repeat business. Change management is required to adapt to the ever-changing market and customer environment.	Appiah-Adu et al., (2000); Fyall, et al. (2003); Gilbert, et al. (1999); Karatepe & Kilic, (2007); Lee et al., (2003); Luck & Lancaster, (2003); Page, (2006); Piccoli, (2002); Stockdale, (2007); Williams & Bal·û, (2000); Zgener & Raz, (2006);
Cross cultural management	Cultural consumption involves elements of a hotel's location plus, potentially, the cultures represented among staff who facilitate cultural engagement through the consumption of the service product itself.	AlSayyad, (2001); Bendix, (1989); Brunet, et al. (2001); Bryce, (2007); Bryce, (2009); Chang & Tsai, (2011); Leong, (1989); McTaggart, (1980); Maharaj, et al. (2006); Rao, (2002); Sarkissian, (1998); Testa, (2002) Yamashita, (1994); Zamudio & Lichter, (2008)
Crisis management	Response to crises is manifest in a multitude of contexts from financial crashes to natural disasters. Research focuses on the effect crises have on hotels and measures taken to be prepared to deal with them.	Barton, (2007); Fall & Massey, (2006); Henderson & Ng, (2004); Madera & Smith, (2009); Mitroff, (2005); Okumus & Karamustafa, (2005); Paraskevas, (2006); Ritchie, (2004); Rousaki & Alcott, (2006); Pizam & Mansfeld, (1996); Santana, (2004); Yu, et al. (2006)
Emotion management	The nature of service work is demanding on the emotions of employees, the dynamic customer-facing environment that requires constant production and delivery of the product. The effects of this require consideration and understanding for successful leadership.	Bolton, (2004; 2005, 2009, 2007); Bolton & Boyd, (2003); Bolton & Houlihan, (2005); Giuffre & Williams, (1994); Guerrier & Adib, (2000); Johanson & Woods, (2008); Karatepe et al., (2009); Karatepe & Uludag, (2007, 2008a); Keung, (2000); Knox & Walsh, (2005); Madera & Smith, (2009); Prabhu, (1996); Sherman, (2005); Hochschild, (1983); Rees, (1995); Wong & Ko, (2009)
Employee behaviour	Leadership style affects employees' behaviour and the nature of the service product created.	Karatepe & Uludag, (2008b); Lockwood & Jones, (2000); Madera & Smith, (2009); Mok, et al. (1998); Madera & Smith, (2009); Ritzer, (2002, 2007); Wong & Pang, (2003);

Environmental management	The impact of the hotel industry and its wider networks on the environment is significant. Managing the impacts and ensuring minimal environmental harm is done by operations is a daily challenge.	Ayuso, (2007); Cater, (1993); Chan & Lam, (2003); Knowles, et al. (1999); (Rao, 2002)
Financial management	Financial structures and peculiarities of ownership and control make financial management essential.	Knox & Walsh, (2005); Pine et al., (2000); Schlup, (2004); Williams & Bal·û, (2000)
Innovation management	Innovation in service work creates new opportunities and may change the manner in which hotel services are delivered.	Tajeddini, (2010); Tseng, Kuo, & Chou, (2008); Victorino, et al. (2005);
Legislation	Legal and political shifts affect the way in which hotels operate and the market which they are able to position within.	Glantz & Charlesworth, (1999); Kim & Yong, (1993); Wharton, (1999)
Technology and innovation	The need to innovate through technology is essential in minimising the costs of the otherwise labour-intensive nature of hotel operations.	Baines, (1998); Lee et al. (2003)

4.6 Conclusion

The notions of being hospitable or acting as a good host have been established as touchstones for leadership in the hotel industry, which has its roots in hospitality in a traditional sense. Historical evidence of hospitality as a tradition and common practice also relates to key figures that contributed to the evolution of hospitality as a concept and an industry. This chapter has reviewed and discussed literature that provides a comprehensive context for the study leadership in hotels, the nature of the industry and the underpinning constructs that inform the commercial hospitality product. Extant research in the context of hotels engages with leadership theory and entrepreneurship. It is demonstrated as a rich context in which to consider such ideas and equally it is valid given its depth and reach in global terms as a developed industry that is arguably as old as organised society. There are also some areas in which enquiry into leadership and entrepreneurship within the hotel industry could benefit practice within it, summarised in Table 4-2, highlighting challenges relating to leadership that would benefit from a qualitative perspective. Furthermore, a lack of engagement with the influences of the past is apparent, despite the influence of history on the state of the modern industry. As such, the approach of enquiring into the way in which personal histories inform practice can add to greater understanding of how the past informs the present.

5 Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter builds on the discussion from the previous two chapters that identify effectuation as a theory that represents a common set of processes for both entrepreneurs and leaders. The hotel industry has been presented as a rich context in which to explore this overlap, and the following discussions outline the opportunity to explore narratives as a means of enacting effectuation. To reiterate, this is in order to develop qualitative scrutiny of the hotel industry, explore the role of narratives in enacting the role of hotelier, and demonstrate the relationship between causal and effectual logics in process. This chapter establishes effectuation as a research territory that can service empirical enquiry beyond a specific subject domain such as entrepreneurship.

5.2 Aim

The principal aim of this research is to explore the role of personal narrative in informing the enactment of entrepreneurship and leadership processes among hoteliers.

5.3 Research Questions

Following the review of the literature, the main research questions are:

- How do hoteliers interpret their personal narratives in a manner that informs the process of enacting roles?
- How do personal narratives mediate understanding of entrepreneurial leadership?
- How do entrepreneurship and leadership interact within the context of the hotel industry?

5.4 Ontology

5.4.1 Interpretivism

The ability of the interpretivist paradigm to illustrate the "complexity and meaning of situations" is explained by Black (2006, p. 319). In his exploration, Black (2006) discusses the process of stripping back the various layers of meaning contained within a research subject. The complexity of meaning and knowledge that can be uncovered is also described and such significant findings make valuable contributions to culture and society. Black (2006, p. 319) goes on to state that through the use of the interpretivist paradigm, data can be found to contain a "myriad of meaning". Interpretivism could be considered a relevant paradigm for this research because it seeks to observe the general trends and perceptions of social dynamics. As the research works towards an understanding of different perceptions of leadership, this suggests the appropriateness of the interpretive paradigm. This view is supported by Strauss' (1991) position that qualitative methods are useful for unravelling and understanding what lies behind any phenomenon about which little is known. Drucker (1974) points out that management is a practice rather than a science, and Checkland (1999) observes that even proponents of the unity of science (such as Popper (1957), who assumes that facts can be gathered in the social sciences in much the same way as in natural sciences) have unfortunately devoted little attention to the particular problems of social science. Creswell (1998, p. 7) states that it must be accepted that "qualitative research is legitimate in its own right and does not need to be compared to achieve respectability".

There are fundamental differences in the nature of the natural sciences and the human sciences, and so different approaches to their investigation are necessary (c.f. Giddens (1979) and Huberman and Miles (2002)). Friedman (1974) articulates the distinction between enquiry in the natural sciences and social sciences as being in the aim of the natural sciences to explain phenomena, and that of the social sciences to understand phenomena. Interpretivism is founded on the concept that there is interaction on varying levels between the researcher and the subject of research. Hussey and Hussey (1997) allude to the reciprocal relationship between the researcher and their environment in interpretivist research. Interpretivist research lends itself to a constructionist, or “psychophysical” (Husserl, 1999, p. 38) impression of reality, where reality is considered to be as much how one interprets it as to how it actually ‘is’. The assumption of reality being fixed and permanently existing separately from humans is described by Barthes (2006) as ‘concrete’ reality. Checkland (2000) contests this by illustrating the ability of social systems to alter and evolve in light of observations and predictions made about them. While physical systems may not change, the ability of social systems to change and evolve shows that a concept of reality that acknowledges the interaction between subject and object is required to understand and study them.

The subjective nature of interpretivist research is reliant on the creation of knowledge by the researcher (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). The researcher is integral to the process, acting as a particular lens through which the subject is studied. Therefore, there is an inseparable link between the research subject and the researcher. Goldman (1999) discusses the inseparability of the observer and the observed in interpretivist research, noting that process and context have a direct influence on the knowledge contribution ultimately made by the research. This creates value-laden results where the values and beliefs of the researcher are accepted as influencing the interpretation of the research results (Goulding, 1998). The value-laden results of interpretivist research relate to its ontological position by creating knowledge that is only applicable within the social and experiential context that the research subject exists.

One of the strengths of interpretivism is that it places a value on experience, according to Gadamer, Weinsheimer, and Marshall (2004). In this sense, the relationship between the researcher and the subject is the catalyst for knowledge generation. Jünger (1929) discusses experience as not simply being determined by the object but going beyond the object; and Simmel’s (1950, p. 151) work echoes this:

> "the objective not only becomes an image and idea, as in knowing, but an element in the life process itself".

The strength of interpretivist research is in its ability to analyse, explain and understand phenomena. Huberman and Miles (2002, p. 1), describe interpretivist data as "sexy", identifying its ability to "preserve chronological flow, see precisely which events led to which consequences, and derive fruitful explanations." Within this research, chronology and identifying the drivers and root causes of events and decisions is vital to the value of the research. Therefore, the interpretivist position (summarised in Table 5-1) is seen as an applicable vehicle through which to address the aim of the research.

Table 5-1 Interpretivism: Research Assumptions

Assumption	Relation to research
Ontological	Reality is represented by the relationship between the researcher and the research subject and exists as one of a multitude of realities. Reality is subjective and formed by the researcher. Interpretations of reality are subjective for the researcher and the results of the interviews relate directly to the researcher.
Epistemological	Knowledge is created as a direct product of the interactions between the researcher and research subject during encounters. Knowledge creation is reliant on the researcher as much as it is on the research subject.
Axiological	Results are value-laden and specific to the researcher. Biases of both researcher and research subject are taken into account when analysing results and creating knowledge.

5.4.2 Positivism

The popularity of positivism in business research is because the data used are highly specific and precise (Hussey and Hussey (1997). Babbie (2015) argues the place for positivism in social research, pointing out the interacting links between positivism and phenomenology by noting that "every observation is qualitative at the outset" (Babbie 1998: 36), whilst observing that "qualitative data seem richer in meaning is partly a function of ambiguity" (1998: 37). Babbie (1998) further argues that in social science, unlike physical sciences, paradigms cannot be true or false; as ways of looking, they can only be more or less useful.

The assumptions of positivism (summarised in Table 5-2) create difficulties for this research. Checkland's (2000) discussions of positivist interpretations of reality existing beyond and separate from the researcher highlight the problems of studying people and their interactions. In the context of this research, the results will be based on the meaning inferred onto the reality of the research subjects, and thus findings solely applicable to the research subjects will be impossible to generate (Berg, 1989).

Table 5-2 Positivism: Research Assumptions

Assumption	Relation to research
Ontological	Results of research are separate from the researcher and form social facts than can be applied to all examples of the subject.
Epistemological	Knowledge is created separate from the researcher thus for this research the relationship between the researcher and subject will not be considered or valued. Biases of researcher and research subject are not taken into account.
Axiological	Results are value-free and unbiased; the values of the researcher and subject are not considered as formative in the research results.

5.4.3 Paradigm Selection

These discussions have presented a justification for the chosen paradigm within which this thesis will be framed. This has been achieved by comparing the philosophical assumptions of two paradigms within the context of this particular research question. Framing a study within one philosophical paradigm is considered necessary in the contemporary literature in order for the study's results to be coherent, demonstrably robust, and easily interpreted. Contrasting two paradigms establishes that the basic research assumptions must fit within the chosen paradigm, and together the chosen paradigm and research aims must be compatible and clearly understood.

Table 5-3 Comparative Research Assumptions presents a summary of research assumptions that relate to the philosophical paradigm. These are: ontological considerations (interpretation of reality); epistemological considerations (relationship between researcher and research subject); and axiological considerations (importance of values).

Table 5-3 Comparative Research Assumptions

Assumption	**Positivism**	**Interpretivism**
Ontological	Singular reality, separate from the researcher.	Multiple realities that are interpreted by the researcher.
Epistemological	Research subject is independent from the researcher.	Interaction between research subject and researcher.
Axiological	Value-free and unbiased.	Value-laden and biased.

The positivist assumption that social reality exists independently of the researcher is a challenging ontology for this research, as it fails to accommodate the subtleties of the narratives involved in leadership activities, and will find it difficult to interpret the influences of the past upon current decision making. The reality being analysed is a product of personal histories; furthermore, it is a socially reconstructed reality within the narratives generated between researcher and subject. Therefore, the positivist ontology is not viable as reality is at once multiple and interpreted by the researcher. Moreover, the positivistic approach to the question of 'How do we obtain knowledge of that reality?' is inappropriate, as it infers that investigating such a reality would have no effect on it. Here it is expected that the investigation of this reality will have a direct influence on it.

Axiological assumptions within the positivist paradigm assume research to be value-free and unbiased. Perhaps unsurprisingly in an investigation into perspectives on and attitudes towards constructed narratives about the self that influence future decision-making, the personal bias and beliefs of the researcher will surely influence this research. Grasping the true opinions and desires of the hoteliers is dependent on the researcher's ability to distil stories, figures of speech, imagery, humour and events, and the evidence harvested from such incidences is reliant on the interpretation of the researcher. The true value of this research lies in the ability to discern a dialogue from the myriad sources of information available during the interviews. In consideration of these thoughts, it would prove difficult to investigate such individuals with a positivist, value-free and unbiased axiological approach. It is thus pertinent to adopt the interpretivist position of value-laden and biased research. Interpretivism requires results to evolve from informal decisions, and the resultant rhetoric is strengthened by personal voice. Language and rhetoric are relied upon heavily in interpretivist research, and the continually evolving decisions required of international hoteliers indicate interpretivism as the appropriate philosophical stance for this study. Justifying the use of other paradigms is possible; however, these discussions show that interpretivism is the strongest and most appropriate philosophical stance to be adopted.

5.5 Epistemology

5.5.1 Use of Language and Narrative in Research

Extant enquiry into narrative analysis discovers that a rich and diverse collection of information can be amassed that would not be able to be obtained through more traditional means of investigation. Stutts and Barker (1999, p. 213) discuss this wealth and diversity:

> "Organisational story and storytelling research has produced a rich body of knowledge unavailable through other methods of analysis".

This observation gives an indication of the use of interpreting storytelling and narrative as opposed to simply enquiring into structured data or rudimentary scientific fact. Mitroff and Kilmann (1976) base a study around the short stories used by managers within organisations in order to convey their idea of an ideal organisation, thus illustrating the potency and potential of narratives. Hummel (1991a) also credits stories as being a useful source of information. Such studies represent a general call for narrative to be taken seriously as a form of accurate description. It could even be argued that narrative analysis offers deeper insight into the area of study than other methods by providing natural context and perspective. Dyer and Wilkins (1991) take this concept one step further by suggesting that research itself is rooted in the structures of narrative commentary; thus, the concept is self-perpetuating and allows research to scratch progressively further beneath the surface of the subject area. Although Dyer and Wilkins (1991) cite this as an evolution of methodological tact, Clegg (1993) in fact claims that, "disciplines in the social sciences ranging from sociology to ethnography and to organisation studies had long been founded on the ability to tell a good story" (Rhodes, 2005, p. 169). Thus Clegg (1993) suggests that there is something latent about the narrative element to research.

In light of the value of narrative analysis discussed above and the contribution it has made to the knowledge base of organisational enquiry, it is apparent that carrying out a study on narratives of key figures in the hotel industry may further contribute to the body of leadership research. Further, there appears to be a research gap in exploring historical influences manifest in the espoused leadership styles of contemporary key figures in the hotel industry.

5.5.2 Stories

Stories are defined by Cupitt (1995, p. xi) as:

> "Interpretative resources, models and scenarios through which we make sense of what is happening to us and frame our action. Unlike the forms and concepts of philosophy, stories are stretched out in time...They shape the process of life. It is through stories that our social selves, which are our real selves, are actually produced."

Stories are considered to be the most common communication tool available to us, they allow construction, meaning, sense-making and identity to be drawn and interpreted by their audience (Chand, 2006; Havelock, 1988; Hummel, 1991b; Koenig, 2008; Orr, 2009). The bond and level of engagement that can be achieved through stories is unmatched according to Grisham (2006), who considers storytelling through metaphor and poetry fundamental to effective communication. Attention to the use of stories as a legitimisation tool among business leaders is described by Brown (1997). Business elites use stories as a leadership tool to drive employees and legitimise organizational actions, Brown (1997) also discusses the ways in which elites can construct narratives of success around their own career histories in order to legitimise their position.

Sense-making, interpretation and construction should not necessarily pertain only to stories of success, leadership and valour. Previous studies have considered the use of stories in this vein, focusing on objectives to motivate, lead, and instil positive attitudes among organisational actors (Boal and Schultz, 2007; Boje, 1995; Denning, 2005; Denning, 2006; Grisham, 2006; O'Gorman, 2010a).

5.5.3 Perspective

The apparent tension between stories and science is analysed by Rhodes and Brown (2005), who assess the arguments both for and against the value of using stories to develop organisational theory. It is suggested by Rhodes and Brown (2005) that the creative element of stories removes their rationality and, therefore, undermines the potential for them to be used to interpret science and philosophy. Habermas (1992) warns of the danger of letting literature evolve from science and philosophy. However, Rhodes and Brown (2005) suggest that the world that surrounds us is what inspires and contextualises daily events; thus, its relationship with stories and creativity is constant and relevant.

The idea of 'sense-making' is discussed by Reissner (2005), a concept considered broader than cognitive development but one that supports the views of Rhodes and Brown (2005) in saying that narrative analysis is the only thing that can bridge the gap between cognition and context. Narrative analysis discerns from the story the discoveries made by the author when offering their thoughts within a certain context. Reissner (2005) discusses the relevance of narrative analysis as a powerful method of interpretation, capable of anchoring specific observations to the perspectives of particular people thus, contrary to the thoughts of Habermas (1992), concepts and themes are given context in the real world, making them easier to understand. Narrative can also work its way into the real world and influence behaviour. Taylor (1994) looks at corporate behaviour in a car manufacturing firm whose mission statement has become reflexive and real, thus, suggesting that narrative and the creativity that drives it has the capability to contribute to the progress of existing and functioning ideas.

Narrative and the use of stories are cited as contributing to the process involved in legitimising ideas and bringing stakeholders onboard with businesses, according to Lounsbury and Glynn (2001). Their core message is that storytelling is fundamental to the entrepreneurial process and should be investigated as such. Stories are part of culture according to Sims (1999, p. 46), who describes human beings as "weavers of narrative". Narrative is our facility for meaning making, according to Boje (1994), and as a result is part of the fabric of the construction of memory. Narrative and storytelling are described by O'Gorman and Gillespie (2010) as strong aids in creating a corporate culture in a business. Bochner (2001) and Goodall (2005) also discuss the value of narrative and storytelling and their importance to human enquiry. Christie and Orton (1988) describe man as a species as *homo narrans* and it is also described as offering a portal into the true meaning of ideas as, according to Boje (1995, 2001, 2008), the metaphorical language allows conceptualisation and discussion. These studies gesture towards delving deeper into the meaning of phenomena and strengthening the foundations upon which theory is based. The imaginative and metaphorical element of narrative seems to actually aid in the development of the understanding of tangible, physical things. Boyce (1996) comments on how there is a traditional requirement for solid, contextualised ideas in the exploration of scientific theories which often more closely relate to quantitative approaches. However, McFague (1982, p. 75) states that, "Science…is an affair of the imagination". The work of McFague (1982) upholds the value of storytelling and narrative in scientific research and it seems natural to think that one needs a certain amount of imagination to quantify and fathom what was previously unknown. By the same notion, quantitative methods offer solid facts that provide information but little context and do not deliver the ability for the reader to discern ‘why’; such data can only tell the reader ‘what’.

A qualitative narrative packages the ‘why’ and provides a catalyst for understanding it, thus allowing further depth to the understanding of the subject. Gabriel (2000) discusses post-modern discourse and how society, to a certain extent, is actually constructed around narrative and stories. Gabriel’s (2000) idea that in the contemporary context stories exist everywhere suggests that narratives form a useful source of data. This seems agreeable since the advance in the understanding of contemporary phenomena would have to be developed from working with sources that represent the fabric of contemporary society.

5.6 Axiology: Research Ethics

According to Elliott (2005), one of the strengths of social research is the context and depth of information it provides. Elliott (2005) also notes that creative reconstruction and an empathetic approach are required for the researcher to make sense of the data and tell a valuable story. Much debate surrounds rhetoric in the literature; this concerns the manner in which rhetoric is employed, why it is used in such a way, how it should be used and the impact these elements have on the findings of the research (Cherwitz, 1990). This further highlights the need for an empathetic approach whereby the researcher understands their subject and can draw the best quality information from them. From an axiological perspective the interpretivist paradigm as outlined in Section 5.4.1 is both biased and value-laden. Creswell (2008) and Denzin and Lincoln (2005) note that any such research will be driven by the researcher’s own beliefs and understanding of the world. Richardson (2000) discusses the way in which the subjective nature of such research causes the author to be inseparable from the overall findings of the study.

The need for ethical awareness to control the impact the research has upon its subjects and, indeed, upon the researcher is outlined by Bulmer (2008). The Social

Research Association (2003) outline five key areas for consideration in research ethics, Table 5-4 details the attention paid to each with regard to this research.

Table 5-4 Key Ethical Considerations

Key Considerations	Action Taken
Informed consent	All interviewees were approached neutrally and from then participated voluntarily. They were welcomed to terminate the relationship at any point should they grow uncomfortable with the research. They were aware of the research aim, their part in it, and their free access to anonymised research outcomes upon completion.
Respect for privacy	The nature of this research was somewhat intrusive in that it required subjects to be engaged with in depth at times and often in their place of work. However, the utmost respect for subject privacy was maintained and all manner of enquiry was designed in order not to compromise the subject's personal life.
Confidentiality of data	Confidentiality of the gathered data has been guaranteed to all participants. Within the thesis the names of each interviewee has been left, however, when the thesis is archived in the library names and company information will be redacted to protect their identity and ensure anonymity.
Harm to subjects and researcher	Private information concerning the subjects has not been recorded in order to ensure absolute confidentiality. On occasions when the researcher had to be involved in the work environment of the subjects or situations of heightened risk, the researcher accepted the risk as borne solely by them.
Honesty in research	Openness with participants has been maintained throughout and at no point have methods of enquiry been employed in a manner intended to deceive or lead the research subjects.

Having described the research methodology employed in fulfilling the central research purpose, being to explore the role of narratives in informing the enactment of entrepreneurship and leadership processes among hoteliers, the thesis now progresses to present and analyse the data, and discuss findings.

5.7 Data Collection: Life History Interviews

5.7.1 Sample

The data for this study are derived from individual hoteliers and their careers. Determining whether it was the individual or the firm that was being explored was supported by recent work on the theoretical development of entrepreneurship research, which supports the focus on the individual (Davidsson, 2003; Davidsson et al., 2001). This was especially necessary since the context of the study was of hoteliers who lead large firms that were a mixture of proprietary and third party-owned businesses, and the focus was to scrutinise the career paths of the individuals and the processes they followed in driving their businesses towards success. The emphasis was on establishing common practices and experiences that inform about the nature of performing the role of hotelier, rather than to highlight what distinguished a firm as entrepreneurial or otherwise as a whole. As such, the taxonomy applied to identifying participants was contingent on position within the hotel industry (executive position in an international organisation) rather than a taxonomy of identity derived from the literature that identified participants as ‘entrepreneurs’, ‘non-entrepreneurs’, ‘leaders’ or otherwise. This is in line with the discussion on taxonomy in section 2.3.2 where Sarasvathy (2004b) is noted as discussing the tendency of the literature to focus on a definition of entrepreneurs, it is the ambition of this research to focus on the ideas of entrepreneurship and leadership in terms of their processes and enactment rather than deconstructing exactly what requisite characteristics are required to define them as one or the other.

The literature reviewed in chapters two and three defends the understanding that entrepreneurship and leadership will be processes that are enacted by people in the positions of the participants, therefore their identities are purposefully categorised as ‘hoteliers’ in order to mitigate for confusing identity with process enacted. This is not intended to make the implicit suggestion that enquiring as to the relationship between identity and process would be lacking in value, it is simply not the aim of this thesis.

With research that intends to target globally reaching organisations, access is a significant determinant on the sample engaged with. Rynes and McNatt (2001) note that access is one of the most challenging aspects of research as even if access is granted, the level of cooperation and openness from participants can determine the success of the research. Pettigrew (1990, p. 322) describes organisational access as "planned opportunism", highlighting that the sample selected will inevitably always be influenced by the researcher's own professional network, luck and the context of the research.

Access to the participants was won over the course of the research project as hoteliers were contacted and subsequently agreed to take part in the research. These individuals are not only the face of particular organisations; they are synonymous with hotels at a global industry level. They are featured in the media and noted as personalities in their own right. Career stories continue to be formed and the lasting influence of their endeavours has yet to be established; thus, choosing them requires a certain degree of conjecture and assimilation of the reputational pedigree they have amassed to date.

All leaders were chosen according to a snowball sample design (Cousins et al. 2010) as long as all the leaders were in senior executive positions (either Founders, President or CEO of Global hotel chains). The sample began with the support of one particular Hotelier who is exceptionally well known in the industry with a personal global profile. This hotelier was the first participant of the study and, interested in the focus of the thesis, offered to make introductions to individuals on a similar industry standing to him. This precipitated direct introductions to members of the elite echelon of the global hotel industry, many of whom were willing to participate. This process is almost identical to that employed by Cousins et al. (2010), where an emergent convenience sample was used since a relatively small number of appropriate participants exist within the chosen industry and their close network allows for testimonials to be made in support of the research to improve opportunities for interview. In some cases, several emails were required to finalise the actual date of interview but many of the introductions were completed by virtue of the first participant's generosity.

5.7.2 Interviewing

As this research is time constrained and conducted within an interpretivist paradigm, unstructured, life history interviews allow focus and flexibility. Gillham (2005) notes that the main implication of employing such a strategy is that dialogue can be developed, primarily due to the openness of questions, and probes might be used if the interviewer feels that more could be said. Life history interviews are not a new data collection tool for business and management, and are used extensively when speaking to leaders in particular, this is illustrated in Table 5-6. One of their main advantages is that, as Boudens (2005, p. 1287) notes, some "data gathering techniques may serve to suppress stories because interviewers cut off accounts that might otherwise become stories, and fail to record them when they do occur". However, Boudens (2005, p. 1287) also warns that "if they are recorded, they are often discarded as too difficult to interpret, or split into parts to fit into predetermined coding schemes." This point indicates that some kind of highly interprevist data analysis technique is required so that the richness of the data is not lost.

According to Curran et al. (2014) there are three basic types of interview, which are detailed along with their strengths and weaknesses in Table 5-5. Life history interviews are normally unstructured with open-ended questions, that, as Anteby and Molnar (2012, p. 515) observe that "…organizational identity and collective memory share the assumption that 'imagined communities,' whether historical or organizational, bind members together." As with Isabella (1990) this allows the interviewees to describe and discuss specific organisational events as well as anything else they perceive to be critical (Balogun et al., 2014). Mantere et al. (2012, p. 173) observe that it is this "understanding of the sense making history in an organization [that] is needed to fully explain the success and failure of strategic change efforts."

Table 5-5 Types of Interviews

	Strengths	Weaknesses	Applicability
Unstructured	Provides rich information. Explores previously unknown themes that arise from the interview. Creates relationships which may lead to more information. Uses natural language.	Very time consuming. Resource intensive. Lacking in generalisability. Can generate vast, often irrelevant data. Susceptible to interviewer bias.	Exploratory research investigating past events when subjective views and experiences are sought in conjunction with other research methods.
Semi-Structured	Questions prepared in advance to cover critical points, useful when the researcher is inexperienced. Interviewees still retain freedom and flexibility to express their own views. Increased reliability and scope for comparability. Interviewee is able to respond in language natural to them.	Time consuming. Resource intensive. Needs good interview skills to keep on topic. Interview questions are open to researcher bias. May lack in generalisability.	Multiple interviewers. Only one chance to conduct the interview. Researcher has some knowledge of the topic. In conjunction with other research methods.
Structured	Can produce consistent generalizable data. Minimal risk of bias. Large sample size. Can be conducted quickly. Sophisticated interviewing skills not required.	Little opportunity for feedback. Question responses are limited and restrictive. Little scope to cater for the unforeseen. Real-time changes to the interviews cannot be made.	Clear focus and a question to be answered. High level of knowledge on a topic to allow for appropriate question formulation. A well-developed literature.

Adapted from: Curran et al. (2014)

Table 5-6 gives an overview of the application of life history interviews. From a life history interview perspective, individuals' past experiences "may influence how they perceive their current occupation" (Berg et al., 2010, p. 990) and as McCracken (1988, p. 9) notes, one of the particular advantages of these types of interviews is the interviewer can enter into "the mental world of the individual, to glimpse the categories and logic by which he or she sees the world" and how it affects them. Fundamentally, studying "phenomena such as decision making, learning, group interaction, or technological adaptation in an organizational context demands careful attention to the occurrence of events over time" (Avital, 2000, p. 665).

Table 5-6 Uses of Life History Interviews in Management Literature

Theme	Application	Author(s)
Change Management in Organisations	Explore conflict that accompanies change coalesces around different dimensions of organisational and professional identity and management practices.	Bansal (2004); Lee et al. (2011); Maclean et al. (2012); Mantere et al. (2012); Townley (2002)
Understand Organisational Meaning	Within organisations there are cultural meanings on which members differ or disagree and evolve over time.	Avital (2000); Watson and Watson (2012); Zilber (2002)
Organisational Sense-making	History storytelling by elite actors, with the lens of sense-making processes and becoming, for purposes of articulating how legitimising is accomplished.	MacLean et al. (2012); Weick (2011)
Organisational Enculturation	Collect data on the newcomers' work experiences before and after assuming their new jobs.	Beyer and Hannah (2002)
Organisational Memory Studies	Conceptualisation of organisational memory as the accumulation of individual memories	Maclean et al. (2012); Rowlinson et al. (2010)
Organisational History	To discover how those inside an organisation understand interpretation of itself developed over time.	Crossan and Berdrow (2003); Cunliffe and Coupland (2011); Tripas and Gavetti (2000)
Organisational Identity	To explore how organisational identities are constructed in the stories people tell about themselves.	Karreman and Alvesson (2001); Halfor and Leonard (2005); Watson (2009)
Organisational Architecture	To generate theoretical propositions on how organisational architecture shapes business unit adaptation	Joseph and Ocasio (2012)
Organisational Legitimisation	Provide a means of accessing leaders' attempts to legitimise and (re)frame their accounts of their own success.	Maclean et al. (2012); Sillince and Mueller (2007)

Cunliffe and Coupland (2012, p. 83) highlight that everyone struggles "to make our lives intelligible by working out meanings, constructing narrative coherence, and telling stories: by connecting action, plots and characters, attributing intentions, evaluating, judging, searching for our sense of identity, and anticipating action".

This is particularly true of entrepreneurs O'Connor (2002) argues, who as "'good' narrators make sense by connecting plot-lines in which they plot themselves, imagine themselves in others' stories (investors, customers, etc.), and narrate the company in a convincing way." It is not surprising, then, that entrepreneurial leaders would be used to telling stories about themselves, and that life history interviews would seem to be one of the ways to capture the richness of that data, which might be easily lost if another data collection technique were used.

Maclean et al. (2012, p. 19) used life history interviews to "explore how business leaders present themselves in life-history narratives, using their storytelling as a vehicle for self-legitimization, justifying their success to themselves and others in an inequitable world." However, this should be taken in tandem with the advice from Danneels (2011, p. 2) that ''more informative, often, than success stories are stories about failure—especially the failures of once successful enterprises to adapt to new circumstances." As such, when asking the hoteliers to tell their life histories, efforts are made to ensure that it is not only stories of heroic success that are collected. There is also the warning of Denis et al. (2001, p. 813) who note that life history interviews "although more subject to hindsight bias than documentary records" do "allow a greater degree of understanding of why events occurred as they did and how people felt about them"; so, care must be taken to discover why particular events occurred, how they led to success or failure, and how the hoteliers grew or learned from them.

The narration of life history through interview "is concerned with transitions from one set of personal and organizational circumstances to another. It is analogous to the notion of the odyssey, with becoming, journeying towards greater self-knowledge and pleasure" (Maclean et al., 2012, p. 21). This is highlighted by Czarniawska (2004, p. 13) who states that "a life is lived with a goal but the most important aspect of life is the formulation and reformulation of that goal. Life-history narratives are evolutionary, changing as unforeseen events are accommodated purposefully within the interwoven schema of time, space and meaning. Updating has the purpose of restoring order and (re)establishing self-legitimacy."

One of the main features of life history interviews with business leaders is "their emphasis on meaning-making, not only for themselves in the stories they tell about their own lives, but also for others within their organizations, whom they must carry with them to remain in the vanguard of business leaders." (Maclean et al., 2012, p. 36).

An illustrative example of exploratory style interviews being used to acquire sensitive data on a particular phenomenon is found in Alexander, Chen, MacLaren and O'Gorman (2010), where respondents were asked to disclose details about their sexual habits and peccadilloes, highlighting that if conducted appropriately a great deal of rich and insightful data can be gathered. The strength of deeply qualitative work is in its ability to analyse, explain and understand phenomena. Huberman and Miles (2002, p. 1), state that they:

> "preserve chronological flow, see precisely which events led to which consequences, and derive fruitful explanations."

Life history interviews give control to the interviewee but may be supported by a series of prompts/questions. Formal questions are not always required, and the particular skill comes in ensuring all topics are covered even if they are not in chronological order. Table 5-7 shows the benefits and drawbacks of using this technique. As described by Gubrium and Holstein (2002), the sociocultural and temporal bounds of the interview will have a significant impact on the nature of the data collected and therefore must be acknowledged in the reflective practice of the researcher. This process is adopted at the beginning of each stage of analysis in Chapters 8 and 9.

Table 5-7 Benefits and Drawbacks of Life History Interviews

Benefits	Drawbacks
• Multiple realities can be determined • Subjective epistemology allows rapport to be built • Can gather information on complex/sensitive issues • Attitudes, opinions, values are divulged • Questions are not objectively predetermined allowing flexibility • Interview probes can ensure pursuit of interview goals • Reflexive - can clarify issues • Can record verbal and non-verbal clues • Follow up questions can extend responses • Relaxed interview setting	• Different interviewers can give different perceptions • Interviewees are able to interpret reality • Critics focus on reliability and validity • Replication is impossible due to context of setting, time, date, and social circumstances • Relies on the skills of the interviewer • Needs rapport between interviewer and interviewee • Researcher can manipulate data and bias the data by doggedly pursuing one line of questioning

Adapted from Jennings (2001)

5.7.3 Collecting the Data

Narratives, even those told through life history interviews "in both their basic form and their more elaborated story shape, pervade social life and are key elements of the 'socio-historical a priori' that precedes our entry into the world" (Watson and Watson, 2012, p. 687). According to Maclean, Harvey and Chia (2012) "life-history interviews, like stories, are 'relational processes.'" Gaining access to individuals who operate at the apex of their industry is a long-acknowledged challenge for researchers (Pettigrew, 1992). People in positions such as CEO, Managing Director or Chairman represent a small pool of people who are notoriously guarded about whom they disclose information to:

> "Those who sit amongst the mighty do not invite sociologists to watch them make the decisions." (Kahn & Cannell, 1957, p. 10)

Highlighted here is one of the principal obstacles facing this study: gaining access to a closed group of elite individuals who are relatively few in number, and typically guarded. Pettigrew (1992) discusses the history or difficulty of access to business elites both in the United States and Britain. He stresses the barriers to access, particularly within Britain due to its tradition of privacy. Suggestions are made for enriching our insight into managerial elites without necessarily gaining direct access to them, such as publically available reports or organisational archives. Nonetheless, the value of gaining direct access to such individuals is presented as being particularly high and rare (Norburn, 1989; Pahl & Winkler, 1974). With reference to the significance of the global hotel industry and the relatively few large players that operate within it, the opportunity of accessing the key figures within such organisations is considered to be analogous to Pettigrew's (1992) discussions and the privilege of being granted permission to conduct research within their small and closed world. Following initial correspondence with the offices of leading hoteliers, 14 offers of access for research were achieved. Of note is that there was not one explicit rejection of the request for research access, however, six attempts to make contact were either unreturned or scheduling fell through due to changes of plans.

In total, 14 hoteliers participated in this study. The arrangements with these individuals were made on the basis of a two-hour life history interview being conducted. As discussed in Section 5.7.3 14 hoteliers was considered adequate. However, the quality of data collected from the group of 14 took on a new dimension once the interview process commenced. As a result, a more accurate definition of the time spent with these individuals would be 'encounters'. On the majority of occasions (11 out of 14), the invitation was extended to engage with the hoteliers beyond the bounds of a traditional interview dynamic. Such privileged extension of the research access ranged from conducting the interview over a meal, through being invited to industry networking events, to spending the entire day with the hotelier and being entertained as a special guest. All interviews were audio recorded in their entirety and transcribed by the author. There were three occasions when some of the time spent together did not allow for sound to be recorded but field notes were taken in those instances. Field notes were taken throughout the process whenever possible and served as a support in the transcription of the interviews if sound quality was disturbed by background noise or if the participant's accent affected the manner in which a word or phrase was heard on the sound recording. English is not the first language of all the participants, however, every participant is fully fluent in English and their English ability is not considered to inhibit the quality or value of the data collected. The nature of the interviews led to rich data being collected and saturation was reached with no new meta-themes identified after six interviews; this is discussed further in section 5.9.

This development represents a significant change in the nature of the data collected and the symbolic value of the size of the sample group. Despite the achievement of an adequate sample size in light of Guest, Bunce, and Johnson's (2006) study, the unprecedented engagement afforded by the participants elevates the group of 14 hotelier interviews to the same level as Maclean, Harvey, and Chia (2012, p. 399) present, one of deep and engaged discussion that enabled the disclosure of personal feelings and opinions on a host of subjects; this included conversational and free-flowing dialogue. 13 encounters were facilitated within a convivial environment, for example, over a meal, with interaction from other employees or even friends of the hoteliers on three occasions; the remaining interview was conducted in an office within the company's European headquarters.

The importance of dialogue is key in the emergence of themes relating to being in an elite business position according to Maclean et al. (2012). This is referred to by Beech, Macintosh, and Maclean (2010) as 'generative dialogue', something that can only be achieved if the researcher and practitioner are able to meet as equals within the dialogue. The consequent generative dialogues generated a large corpus of data that consisted of transcriptions of recorded dialogue. This corpus represents in excess of 400,000 words and forms a comprehensive view of the individuals engaged with. From this, the hermeneutical process allows additional data to be generated as the corpus is engaged with and reflected upon, therefore evolving the data into thematically distinct subsets. The hoteliers that participated are detailed below in Table 5-8.

Table 5-8 Interviewees

Hotelier	Position(s)	Short Biography
A	Founder, President, CEO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
B	CEO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
C	CEO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
D	CEO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
E	Founder, Chairman, CEO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
F	Chairman	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
G	CEO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
H	Managing Partner	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
I	MD	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
J	MD, Founding family	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
K	Founder, Chairman, CEO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
L	MD	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
M	President, COO	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement
N	President	Details have been removed upon arrangement with the participants due to confidentiality agreement

5.8 Data Analysis: Hermeneutics

5.8.1 Technique: Hermeneutics

Within business management research, a common method has been to use an inductive approach, for example grouping narratives into categories by theme (Boudens, 2005). Hermeneutics allows for the progressive and systematic interpretation of narratives in order to synthesise the emerging themes. Its application allows for the "plastic and fantastic" interpretation of stories, according to Gabriel (1991, p. 870). Morrison and O'Gorman (2008) explore the use of hermeneutics to establish the relationship between hospitality management and hospitality studies. From this example it becomes apparent that it is:

> "essential that comparison and cross-interpretation be undertaken to validate emerging understanding and themes." (Morrison and O'Gorman 2008, p. 218)

Notably, Lashley et al. (2007, p. 186) cite the study of hospitality as "a significant means for exploring and understanding society". Morrison and O'Gorman's (2008) research is highly relevant to the interpretation of narratives, and a hermeneutic approach to the analysis of narratives would allow for the narratives to find context and relevance within the physical world, and therefore offer insight into its workings.

The method of data analysis used is hermeneutics, various other authors, including Alvesson and Sköldberg (2004); Denzin (1989); Hayllar and Griffin (2005) suggest and adopt four epistemological practices and Van Manen (1990) proposes two methodological principles for hermeneutics. O'Gorman and Gillespie (2008) synthesised the epistemological practices and the methodological principles in hermeneutical research and structured them; that structure has been modified for this research and is shown below (Table 5-9). The first column gives the name of the epistemological practices or methodological principle while the second column gives a generic description of how these could be applied to any research project.

Table 5-9 Epistemological Practices of Hermeneutical Interpretation

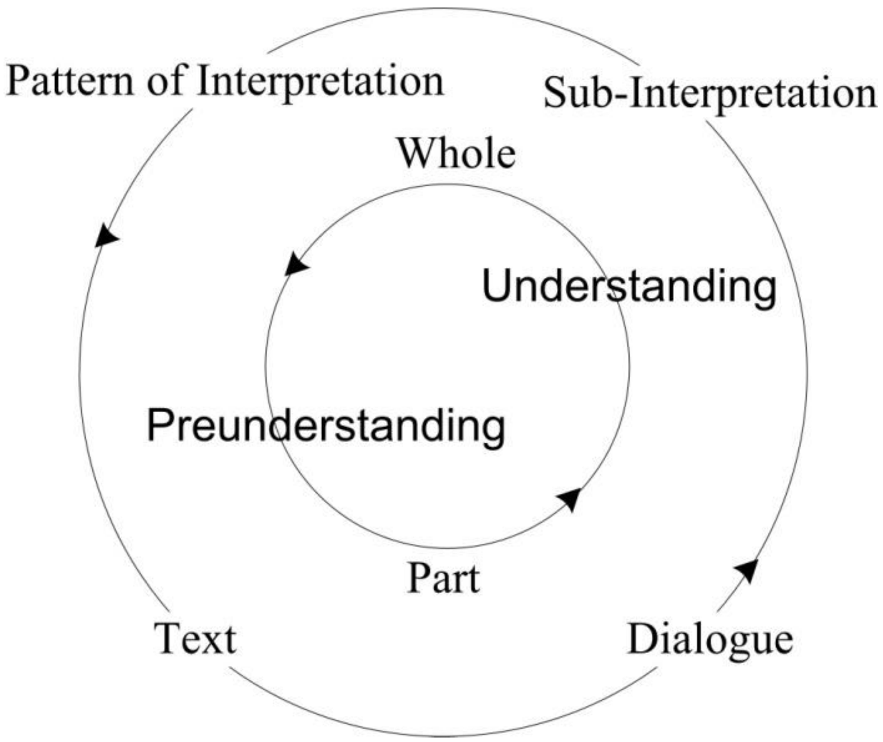
Practice	Generic Description of Practice
Investigating the Phenomenon	It is important to clearly define the phenomenon under investigation in order for the data collection to remain focused.
Reflecting on essential themes	Moving from data collection to data interpretation involves a process of phenomenological reflection. The first step in reflection is to conduct thematic analysis, which helps give a degree of order and control to the task.
Writing and rewriting	During the analysis the procedure of asking questions to the text, and listening to it, in a dialogic form is central in the writing and rewriting phase. Reflection and writing tasks can be false dichotomies as they tend to be symbiotic tasks.
Maintain a strong and oriented relation	Writing and interpretations must remain oriented to the phenomenon under investigation, thus superficialities and falsities will be avoided.
Considering parts and whole	The overall interpretation is consistent with the various parts of the analysis, step back and look at the total, and how each of the parts needs to contribute towards it.

Source: Adapted from O'Gorman and Gillespie (2008)

The work of O'Gorman (2007a) is a clear example of interpreting a cultural narrative to establish theory. O'Gorman (2007a) draws out valuable academic material through the use of narrative analysis of ancient texts such as that of Homer's Odyssey. This is similar to the methodology of another study, O'Gorman, Baxter, and Scott (2007) whereby similar analysis is used to interpret the cultural fabric of hospitality in ancient Pompeii. By employing a hermeneutic approach to the analysis of a corpus, a progressively deeper understanding of the subject matter is achieved. When applied to the subject in question, new meanings and themes often develop, allowing cross-comparisons and new discoveries to be made. According to Gabriel (2000), this progressive engagement with the themes, descriptions and metaphors within the particular narrative allow understanding to be stimulated through the personal engagement of the researcher. The apparent effect is that the stimulation of the researcher's emotions by the empathetic nature of metaphoric description in narrative allows a deeper and more personal interpretation of the themes that emerge. These points are echoed by Black (2006). This means that the qualitative data collected not only explore the subject in a deeper way but also offer a richer interpretation of what is discovered than would normally be achieved.

When the methodological principles and practices are combined they form, as described by Alvesson and Sköldberg (2004), the hermeneutic circle of interpretation, as is shown in Figure 5:1.

Figure 5:1 Hermeneutic Circle of Interpretation



Source Alvesson and Sköldberg (2004, p. 66)

Error! Reference source not found. has been developed so that instead of giving a generic description of how the hermeneutical practices could be applied to any research project, details how they are applied to this research and what the particular results are. The hermeneutic circle of interpretation is used to reflect upon, discuss and analyse the corpus; this is done by making three consciously distinct revolutions of the hermeneutical circle. How this was done is demonstrated in Section 5.8.2.

Table 5-10 Applied Epistemological Practices of Hermeneutical Interpretation

Practice	Application to this research
Investigating the phenomenon	The phenomenon under investigation primarily is 'the hotelier'. From the literature it is proposed that the enactment of the role of the hotelier will be informed by the literature from multiple disciplines including leadership and entrepreneurship. However, the phenomenon of the hotelier invites analysis at a level of individual engagement.
Reflecting on essential themes	The thematic analysis will draw from the data the most prominent themes discussed both explicitly through rhetoric used most frequently and through researcher interpretation of commonly referred to concepts and ideas. These themes will be informed by the material explored in the literature review chapters and emergent common areas of discussion among the respondents.
Writing and rewriting	The development of underpinning themes will be reconciled by reflecting on the literature and determining what domain is informing particular emergent themes. The dialogue between researcher, text and reflexive practice enables coherent development of the outlook of a hotelier and what informs the enactment of their role.
Maintain a strong and oriented relation	The participants of this research are leaders in their field and by virtue of that position have strong personalities and defined beliefs. Superficialities of these beliefs must be recognised and not allowed to cloud analysis in relation to the literature.
Considering parts and whole	This research uses multiple fields of literature and attempts to reconcile them through the role of the global hotelier. Understanding how these constituent elements will interact and indeed communicate independently of one another is necessary to make a clear contribution.

Source: Adapted from O'Gorman and Gillespie (2008)

The NVivo qualitative software package was used to help manage the large volume of data. As many authors note, this package allows a researcher, while reading through transcripts of the data, to attach labels or codes to any portion of the transcribed text (Gordon, Clegg, & Kornberger, 2009; Lamertz & Heugens, 2009; Reay & Hinings, 2009). The software facilitates aggregation and pattern searching (Detert & Treviòo, 2010; Kirton & Healy, 2012), and is designed to "assist researchers with organizing, managing, interpreting, and analyzing non-numerical, qualitative data" (Houle, Staff, Mortimer, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2011, p. 95), however, it is a fallacy to claim that the tool actually does any analysis. Carter, Shaw, Lam, and Wilson (2007) effectively employ NVivo as a data analysis support and demonstrate its power by providing accurate frequency of the mention of words and the density of coverage of particular themes. This enables a more comprehensive understanding of the significance of emergent themes relative to the entire data corpus and, therefore, allows for a more robust qualitative study. As such, in the subsequent discussion chapters, the NVivo tables form the structure around which the analysis is carried out, and they are used to illustrate the significance of themes and how these relate to the developing results of the research.

5.8.2 Analysing the Data

As discussed in Section 5.8.1 and shown in Table 5-9, O'Gorman and Gillespie (2008) presented a synthesis of the epistemological practices and the methodological principles in hermeneutical research. From this, the analysis process being followed in this study is based. The process begins with a thematic analysis to explore for the emergent themes that relate broadly to the *a priori* concepts of leadership, entrepreneurship, personal context and industry context (See Table 5-11). The process involves coding the data based on components and grouping these components into sub-themes that ultimately relate to the a priori themes. Once organised, these components can be mapped against their sub-themes and ultimately their main a priori themes, as shown in Table 5-11:

Component → Sub-theme → Theme →

Table 5-11 Initial Thematic Analysis

Components		Sub-themes	Themes
Be proactive Know your staff	→	Opportunity seeking	Entrepreneurship
Getting the job done Having a go Tacit knowledge	→	Opportunity exploitation	Entrepreneurship
Open to change Enjoying the ride Working with what you've got Self-belief	→	Risk and Uncertainty	Entrepreneurship
Empathising Verifying Ethical leadership Leadership processes Narcissism Regrets and lessons	→	Empathy and Verification	Leadership
Metaphors Narcissism Traits and influences	→	Charisma	Leadership
Being entrepreneurial	→	Mission and Vision	Leadership
Competitive advantage Laissez-faire leadership Self-belief Skills	→	Organisational	Leadership
Personal values Narcissism Networking Perseverance	→	Personal philosophy	Personal Context
Acting as an interface Education Personality Traits Experience Family Identity Interests Regrets Training	→	Background	Personal Context
Leadership adaptability Brand identity Effective strategy Embrace technology	→	Strategic Planning and Implementation	Hotel Industry
Understanding and working with frontline staff House keeping Environmental management Retail Rooms Selling an experience Effective use of space Branding	→	Product	Hotel Industry
Staff as the face of the organisation Importance of training Importance of education Need for leadership education Importance of experience	→	Staff Development	Hotel Industry

Source: adapted from Corley and Gioia (2004)

Starting from the a priori themes and the data associated with each, the second step in the data analysis consists of an inductive reflective process that follows the procedures illustrated by Corley and Gioia (2004), this is shown in Table 5-12. The raw data associated with each of the initial broad themes is partitioned into discrete paragraphs. The criterion for partitioning into discrete paragraphs is that the paragraph can be summarised through a single concept, which is referred to as a “first order concept” in Table 5-12. First order concepts stay close to the original data and can be considered a summary of the meaning that the participant intended in the paragraph. Once the first order concepts are gathered, they are compared and contrasted with each other and in relation to the phenomenon under investigation in its context so that *second order themes* emerge. Following more reflection on the themes, a pattern begins to emerge whereby some second order themes appear to speak to the overall approach of the hoteliers, whereas others seem to refer to the antecedents that allow the hoteliers to develop such approaches. This leads to separating second order themes into two distinct sections of *aggregate themes*. One section of aggregate themes is labelled “Constructing Virtuous Personal Narrative”. The other section of aggregate themes consists of three antecedents underpinning the construction of virtuous personal narratives, namely “Varied Background”, “Being Used to Change” and Personal Freedom”.

These aggregate themes form the structure for the discussion and findings section in chapter 8, thus helping to bring into focus a sometimes-opaque view on how progression is made from the original data through the theming process and on to the contribution of the research. The inductive thematic analysis moved through coding the components of sub-themes that inform the four main themes, and then using those themes to inductively re-engage with the literature to develop the discussions around the aggregate themes:

Component → Sub-theme → Theme → 1st Order Concept → 2nd Order Concept → Aggregate Theme

Table 5-12 Inductive Analysis

A priori Themes	Representative data	First Order (informant) concepts	Second Order Themes	Aggregate Themes
Entrepreneurship	"The only way I got interviews was because, again, three people I shared a house with, one of them bought... I'm going back more than 20 years, bought an Apple Mac computer with the desktop publishing and we reconstructed a standard application form on the Mac so we didn't have to fill out all the forms. You just typed one out and in every interview I got they said "you got the interview because we don't know how you constructed that form". Everybody else's was hand written, in those days, on the form. They said, "that's a real stand out. How did you do that?"	Standing out because of an electronic application form	Constructing events as favourable	Constructing Virtuous Personal Narratives
Entrepreneurship	"So, some things you've got to do by customer research and some things were done that were truly innovative and you think "oh, let's do it." So, we did some pretty scary things that were risky. And they worked."	Risky approaches paid off	Constructing risk taking as favourable	
Entrepreneurship	"This is a great industry and it's a tough industry, in many ways because it's relatively challenging but, um, if you're resourceful you can do so much more."	Being resourceful in a tough industry	Constructing self as resourceful	
Leadership	"So I think team work and the ability to get in and just show people that you are not above anything, you have empathy and you care. Good leaders I think tend also to be quite humble about their own accomplishments. There is not a lot of horn blowing that goes on with a good leader because a lot of that should be implied."	Be humble, have empathy and care	Constructing self as humble and caring	
Leadership	I can tell now, a bad trainer from a good trainer because I go and do the 15 repetitions and he comes back and says do another 15, oh, and you're doing this wrong, you are not getting the results, and there is another one I work happily now with every day, and he sits there looking back at me and says stop, raise your elbow, so, I raise my elbow and then he watches me again and says stop, put your feet back, so I put my feet back, what he does is supervision, he has communicated the message to me originally, and I did get the message, I understood that I had to pull on these, and I need to push on those.	Preference for personal trainer who corrects form	Constructing self as willing to learn and improve	
Leadership	Before you step out, you get dressed, and you have your car keys out, you get out of your house, but you don't know where you are going, so you have to say to yourself where am I going? Should I turn right or left? Should I back out of the driveway or should I move forward? I think what I have always been focused on is where do I want to go in the immediate next step."	Focus on what the next step should be	Constructing self as focused	
Leadership	The other thing is to have a very, very lateral mind so you hear about something and you actually think "how can I use that in my business?" So, I met a woman at a conference, she works for xxx, you know, so you think xxx our hotels, "ok, nice to meet you". Actually how could we work with her?	Leveraging contacts made in the industry	Constructing self as resourceful	
Leadership	"it's recognising what as an individual you can do or, even better, who you can call upon to help you because I'm sure as many people have told you on this thing it's you can never have all the skills yourself but if you've got a good finance director, and marketing manager, and you sort of trust them, there is a kind of a phrase about trusting and verifying. Let someone completely have autonomy because I take the view unless you're psycho no-one comes into work wanting to do a bad job, they actually want to do something, that's why they're there."	Leveraging individual talents and skills as resources	Constructing self as resourceful	
Leadership	"When I deal with people I take my experiences and try and build a way to reinforce my guidance around those experiences, they might be professional, they might be random personal ones."	Use own experience to inform how staff are treated	Making use of idiosyncratic background	Antecedent 1: Varied Background

Personal Context	"I think the company you keep makes a huge impact on where people end up. And I know parents try to engineer who their kids' friends are and things like that and I think they are probably quite right to do so."	Your life encounters determine where you end up	Background determines future	
Personal Context	"Growing up after the war, I learnt my work ethic from my mother"	Growing up after the war	Background teaches strength	
Personal Context	"I was about 15 or something and they were like "oh, do you want to, do you want to wait on tables in the restaurant?" I said, "well, I've never done it but it can't be that difficult, why not?" you know, and the trouble... again, you ... no training, not even ... literally you just ...there's some tables kind of take their orders, as it were. And so I did that."	Thrown in at the deep end	Background teaches to learn by doing	
Entrepreneurship	"So, to survive you've got to think of quick ways of getting where you want to get to. So, it's about trying to think as much about immediate solutions."	Thinking of solutions quickly	Adapting to changing circumstances	Antecedent 2: Being Used to Change
Leadership	"Change implies that what you are doing isn't working, I'd better change, that is like a revolutionary change, it is what revolutions are all about. Dramatic change. Ours is more of an evolution"	Need for learning from mistakes and change	Embracing change	
Personal Context	"I've never been living in the same place more than three years in my life, always sort of shifted around. I guess that the upbringing meant that I'm sort of used to travelling and packing up and moving on and meeting new people and so on."	Moved around a lot as a child	Change as the norm	
Personal Context	"So, my background is very much be on the lookout and make decisions quickly. If you make a mistake, correct it and move on with your head and your eyes open. Don't make the same mistake twice but keep moving your business forward. And it's a different mind-set, really."	Be on the lookout and adapt quickly	Change as continuous adaptation	
Leadership	"Tom Cruise was called the maverick because he never did what the trainer said and just flew his own plane. But, I think that in a lot of ways that's quite appreciated." (Hotelier F)	Tom Cruise did not listen to superiors and was appreciated	Freedom to challenge orders	Antecedent 3: Personal Freedom
Personal Context	"I think I made a career out of going against the grain. I used to throw out the contents because I didn't believe that you could create rules like that in this industry." (Hotelier H)	Made a career out of going against the grain	Freedom to challenge status quo	
Entrepreneurship	"I would love to take that one up! It's funny. I probably see myself, to be honest, more as a maverick. I actually see myself as someone who respects rules but doesn't follow the rules. Sometimes circumnavigates things, not in an illegal sense but just in a way of getting things done quickly as opposed to going through the... I don't... I'm not a fan of great detail. I don't like detail and I don't like... yes, just that, I don't like procedures as such, you know, I always think there is a quicker route to market, and quite often there is." (Hotelier C)	A maverick, circumnavigating rules	Freedom to challenge rules	
Entrepreneurship	"And I took quite a leap, actually. I said "well, you can't afford me, you've got no salary base, could I work three days a week for you and be paid three days a week and I'll try and find something else to do with the other two?" And they agreed. They said "yeah, ok, we'll give you six months' probation and see how you get on." (Hotelier C)	Challenging employer / not accepting a job for 3 days a week	Freedom to challenge status quo	

This demonstrates the development of the data from the literature base presented in chapters 2, 3 and 4, and offers an underpinning to the reflexive analysis that takes place in chapters 8 and 9, where the themes are considered at a deeper level of analysis to draw out new meaning relating to the role of the hotelier in context. The components that are considered at the end of each section in this chapter had to have been represented by at least 12 out of the 14 participants in order to be included so that they could be considered a valid representation of the role of the hotelier.

As framed within the methodological practices of hermeneutics, the first stage of the reflective process in preparation for engagement with the data is to orientate consideration towards the industry context that the participants operate within. Returning to the material discussed in the literature review chapters, the process began by positioning the analytical outlook within the literature's discourse. This gives meaning to the data in a manner that is underpinned by literature relating specifically to the empirical context of the study, located within the global industry context through the breadth of literature reviewed, and unbiased as it forms a base assembled through peer reviewed, analytically orientated materials.

This process also allows a degree of perspective to be achieved so the data engagement itself is not affected by biases, arbitrary judgments or spurious knowledge that may relate to the data. Initial data reflection and thematic appraisal is then able to take place from a considered and academically anchored position. Initial engagement with the data was facilitated by transcribing the career histories (See: Lofland, Snow, Anderson, & Lofland, 1995), reading the transcripts and noting the core codes as they emerged.

The initial consideration of the data established the four overarching themes within the data collected. These relate to the fields of literature reviewed in the first four chapters. It is no surprise that much of the discussion relates to the theme of the hotel industry and the service industry at large, specifically these included: staff, strategy, and the hotel product among other topics. Of the four main areas, the industry was the third most referred to. The most consistently discussed area was leadership. This was, once more, of no surprise as the participants were being asked to discuss their career histories in relation to their roles in principal positions in the industry. Sub-themes were identified within the discussion to establish the manner in which the themes related to the prevailing discourse within the literature. The identified sub-themes included traits, vision, staff, customers, and philosophy. Entrepreneurship was covered regularly as a theme relative to the coverage of concepts relating to the literature on leadership; given that respondents identified themselves as occupying a 'leadership role' the amount of attention paid to entrepreneurship was notable. Themes of entrepreneurship related to risk taking, uncertainty and opportunity seeking. Themes that are directly informed by the literature on effectuation and effectual logic also emerged. These discussed identity and philosophy associated with the role. Thus, four broad areas for consideration relating to hoteliers' roles were defined: Industry context; Leadership; Entrepreneurship; Personal Context.

The overall coverage of each main theme is displayed below by percentage. Due to different themes being covered to varying degrees over varying quantities of interviews across the corpus, the percentages are not directly representative of the whole corpus, therefore they do not total to 100% exactly since some themes are represented by the same data, for example a quotation referencing *entrepreneurship* may also discuss ideas relating to effectuation.

Table 5-13 Cumulative Representation by Theme

Theme	Cumulative % representation
Leadership	45
Entrepreneurship	26.66
Personal Context	12
Hotel Industry	17.6

The following table presents the themes and the sub-themes identified that correspond to these areas. Sub-themes were identified through reflective engagement but were verified by establishing the most frequently mentioned words in each interview. This allowed thematic importance to be matched against word frequency to ensure the themes analysed represented significance for: the respondents (through emphasis within interviews); the researcher (through reflective engagement); and the literature (based on the first stage of analysis through re-engagement with the home-based literature).

Table 5-14 Presentation of Coverage of Themes

Theme	Sub-Theme	Interview Count	References	Average % coverage per interview
Leadership	Mission and Vision	14	67	4.15
	Organisational Change	12	7	1.04
	Metaphors	13	39	10
	Empathy and Verification	14	304	19.39
Entrepreneurship	Uncertainty	14	49	4.95
	Risk	12	64	4.82
	Opportunity Seeking	12	79	10.85
	People	12	84	3.6
Personal Context	Interviewee’s Background	14	260	20.2
	Human Action	13	52	1.64
	Personal Philosophy	13	214	15.02
Hotel Industry	Strategic Planning and Implementation	14	251	14.78
	Product	14	151	6.4
	Staff Development	14	154	9.66
Total			1775	

The average coverage per interview was taken and then the aggregated coverage was calculated to ensure there was no skew or over-emphasis of a particular theme throughout the entire data corpus. Not all sub-themes were covered in all interviews; thus, it was necessary to establish if this influenced the apparent prominence of different themes. The hierarchy of sub-themes is presented below by average coverage (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

Table 5-15 Hierarchy of Sub-themes by Average Coverage

Theme	Sub-Theme	Average % coverage per interview
Leadership	Empathy and Verification	19.39
	Metaphors	10
	Mission and Vision	4.15
	Organisational Change	1.04
Entrepreneurship	Opportunity Seeking	10.85
	Uncertainty	4.95
	Risk	4.82
	People	3.6
Process	Interviewee's Background	20.2
	Personal Philosophy	15.02
	Human Action	1.64
Hotel Industry	Strategic Planning and Implementation	14.78
	Product	6.4
	Staff Training and Education	9.66

The data relating to each theme are presented in Chapter 7, this leads to the expression of each sub-theme. Further reflection then takes place in Chapters 8 and 9 in order for the reflexively induced components to be discussed in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4.

The thematic development takes place in Chapter 7 (the inductive thematic analysis). Reflection upon these themes and further analysis takes places in Chapters 8 and 9. The hermeneutic circle of interpretation (Figure 5-1) is used to reflect upon, discuss and analyse the corpus. This is done by making three consciously distinct revolutions of the hermeneutical circle, this process is carried out in Chapters 7, 8 and 9, which begin with a clear explanation of how the data was further analysed in those chapters to demonstrate how hermeneutics was used to develop the discussions and subsequent contribution. For the sake of increased clarity a summary of the results obtained are shown in table 5-14 below. In Chapter 7, the interview data are engaged with to develop clear themes that are presented relative to the frequency with which they appear across the corpus of interviews. The emergent elements of the hotelier's enactment of their role are presented against thematically categorised aspects of the literature reviewed in Chapter 8, these are then discussed in depth. Chapter 9 further discusses the literature with the findings to define distinct aspects of the process of being a hotelier in relation to the positive harnessing of personal narratives, these discussions are also cognisant of the particular context of the research, the international hotel industry.

Table 5-16 Review of the Data Analysis Process

Level of Analysis	Location	Summary of the results obtained from the analyses
Thematic	Chapter 7	Four broad themes are developed that encompass the components of: leadership, entrepreneurship, personal context and the hotel industry in relation to the role of the hotelier
1st Reflective	Chapter 8	The outcome of this level of analysis shows the hotelier to go through a process of developing virtuous narratives for their career journey that defines them as belonging in a principal position in the industry. What emerges as a key element of being a global hotelier is the socialisation that takes place during childhood allowing them to cope with the dynamic environment and reflexively draw upon experiences to be effective in their role.
2nd Reflective	Chapter 9	This chapter defines what a global hotelier does, this is characterised by the harnessing of narratives to drive and justify action. The key element to the use of narratives in the navigation of the hotelier's role is that there is a perpetually positive interpretation made of any situation and the narratives that are constructed around it are harnessed as a means to continue to make progress and develop growth.

5.9 Validity and Reliability

As suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (2005) and Lincoln and Guba, (1985) a qualitative study conducted according to an interpretivist paradigm should make various attempts to ascertain the trustworthiness of findings, in place of the quantitative and/or positivist criteria of internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity. Relative to these criteria, the four aspects of trustworthiness suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (2005) are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Following Yin (1994), Shenton (2004) describes each of these in some detail, offering a multitude of provisions to ensure qualitative academic rigour. This section addresses provisions from each of the four aspects (credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability) in order to assert the trustworthiness of the research undertaken here.

Related to internal validity in quantitative and positivist research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that this is one of the most important aspects of trustworthiness. Shenton (2004) breaks this down into fourteen provisions, of which eight have been chosen in relation to this study, in order to establish the trustworthiness of this research. These are: adoption of established research methods; development of familiarity with participating organisational culture; triangulation; tactics to help ensure informant honesty; frequent debriefing sessions; peer scrutiny; member checks; and examination of previous research findings. A brief description of the place of each in this study is now offered.

Narratives shape the theory, method and data of this research. Cook, Campbell and Day (1979) assert the importance of designing a study that is appropriate to the development of the field, noting the impact of apt design upon perceived validity, reliability, and generalisability. As this thesis is centrally concerned with stories told by hoteliers, face-to-face interviews were deemed an appropriately complementary method through which to better understand these stories. In their review of entrepreneurial effectuation literature, Perry, Chandler, and Markova (2012) suggest that it is appropriate to collect data through interviews and observations, whilst noting the increasing importance of sampling subjects who are not explicitly classified as entrepreneurs. Following Sarasvathy's (1998) analysis of think-aloud protocols in her pioneering doctoral study on the principles of effectuation and causation, this study employs unstructured life history interviews, with open-ended questions that afford interviewees the expressive freedom and comfort to converse and digress. Achieving a critical mass of 14 hoteliers was considered adequate based on Guest, Bunce, and Johnson's (2006) findings that with such data collection techniques, 12 interviews are adequate to achieve data saturation within a specific sample and no new meta-themes are expected to be identified after six interviews. Hermeneutics allows for the progressive and systematic interpretation of narratives in order to synthesise the emerging themes.

In summary, the research methods adopted are established extensively. Access to the participants has been won over the course of a year as hoteliers have been contacted and subsequently agreed to take part in the research. These individuals are not only the face of particular organisations; they are synonymous with hotels at a global industry level. The quality of data collected from the group of 14 took on a new dimension once the interview process was commenced. As a result, a more accurate definition of the time spent with these individuals would be ‘encounters’. On the majority of occasions (11 out of 14), the invitation was extended to engage with the hoteliers beyond the bounds of a traditional interview dynamic.

The importance of this environmental aspect should not be overlooked as it directly serves four specific elements:

- The facilitation of genuine, free-flowing dialogue
- Trust between researcher and participant
- Relaxation and ease of disclosure
- A level of alternative activity that allows engagement time to be drawn-out and particular thematic avenues to be explored in greater depth

As such, familiarity with the participating organisational culture(s) was developed both externally, in arranging the interviews, and internally, during the interviews and engagement with the hoteliers outside of the traditional interview dynamic.

In accordance with Guba (1981), Brewer and Hunter (1989) and Shenton (2004), triangulation was achieved through the combined use of supporting data, a wide range of participants (as exemplified in the hoteliers’ biographies), and the participation of hoteliers from several organisations, in conjunction with the primary method of gathering data, being interviews. In alignment with Shenton (2004), interviewees approached were given the opportunity to refuse to participate at any time, and only those fully willing to participate and offer free and frank discussions were included in the sample. Whilst it seems cynical to brand the openness with which the researcher approached the interviewees as ‘tactical’, the robustness of the dialogue and evidence of trust was often apparent in some of the disclosures that were made in parallel to the main points of discussion. Often reference was made to disciplinary issues they were facing; candid appraisals of peers’ decisions or styles were made and on one occasion advice was sought from the researcher on the hotelier's next career move. This also privileged a degree of reflexive observation on the hotelier, seeing them in their environment, speaking with staff, even interacting with guests or members of the general public. This gave a further insight into the character of the hotelier and opened an additional dimension to the data. As such, participants were offered anonymity to the best possible extent it can be achieved. Due to the narrative nature of the data and the way in which it is engaged with, the participants are given character titles rather than names, which will be used to identify them and characterise them through the analysis process, in order to retain the personality of the narratives and provide a further means of easy identity without disclosing the true identities of the individuals. As (Mello, 2002, p. 232) notes:

> "Since the essence of narrative is ephemeral and personal, we must seek ways to negotiate meanings and findings using the stories of data, varied perceptions of the field, and our creative work as writers of research discourse."

In accordance with Lincoln and Guba (1989), interviewees were asked to check the reliability of the data acquired through transcription in order to check that the written words matched their verbal communications. A full examination of previous research findings was undertaken in the form of a literature review, which situates the current research relative to this scholarship. Having established the credibility of the study according to these criteria, this section now moves on to look at the transferability of the study.

Related to the external validity of quantitative and positivist research, transferability refers to the possibility of applying the results of the study to a broader population. Given the critical role of contexts in this study, absolute transferability cannot be asserted, nor suggested as an achievable outcome. The problem of context is articulated and supported by Kuhlthau (1999) and Gomm, Hammersley, and Foster (2000), who also note the rarity of replicated studies. Despite this, following Gross, it is important to note that the already broad range of high-level participants in this study provides an eminently usable foundation upon which further studies may be based, or against which they might be compared. As Shenton (2004, p. 71) writes: "it should thus be questioned whether the notion of producing truly transferable results from a single study is a realistic aim or whether it disregards the importance of context which forms such a key factor in qualitative research.” Whilst there may prove to be a certain portability to various aspects of the study, this should not be understood as a primary aim.

It is hoped that similar results would be obtained if this study were repeated in the same context; however, the role of the researcher in conducting the interviews is crucial. Despite this, the processes of the study is fully reported in the following section, including the use of NVivo, being the qualitative software package employed to help manage the large volume of data. NVivo enables a more comprehensive understanding of the significance of emergent themes relative to the entire data corpus and, therefore, allows for a more dependable, confirmable qualitative study.

Whilst scholars continue to debate the relevance of quantitative measures of validity and reliability to qualitative studies (Denzin, 2009; Gherardi & Perrotta, 2014), the adherence to the qualitative equivalents established above demonstrates the care taken to build a robust research methodology, thereby offering a trustworthy study.

5.10 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the methodological approach this research has taken. The nature of a study such as this shows data, theory, context and philosophy to all be united by a theme of multiple and free-flowing perspectives. This is something that creates weakness and strength for the thesis in that it requires clear outlining of the perspectives taken on validity and reliability, yet it also allows deep and interpretive exploration of complex ideas related to narratives, role enactment, engagement with context and apparent relationships between ideas in the fields of entrepreneurship in leadership. The limitations on this thesis are therefore apparent at its outset, it is unlikely to yield generalisable results that get close to paradigm shifts or a change in the research agenda of any field of enquiry. However, the access gained and the depth of engagement offered by the participants forms the foundation for analysis that deals with intimate themes with veiled connections. As a result, the following chapter presents the individual story of each participant in detail to create a basis from which the subsequent inductive analysis and discussions can take place in Chapters 7, 8 and 9.

6 Hotelier Biographies

[removed for in accordance with confidentiality agreement]

7 Thematic Analysis

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the emergent themes from the data, they are presented and organised according to the themes that were discussed in the literature review chapters, namely: Entrepreneurship, Leadership, and the Hotel Industry. Alongside the themes relating to Entrepreneurship and Leadership, the key area of Process is presented discretely as it relates directly to the personal histories of the participants, which are explored in greater depth in chapters 8 and 9. In this chapter, for each thematic section, the coverage of the themes from the overall corpus of the interviews is displayed in a table at the start of the section to give an indication of the amount the theme was referred to by the participants. This creates a platform for the reflective analysis that takes place in chapters 8 and 9 and leads to further inductive insight into the themes and how they are developed to build towards the contribution of the thesis.

7.2 Entrepreneurship

The below table presents the coverage of the most prominent sub-themes relating to entrepreneurship; following this table, each theme is discussed in detail.

Table 7-1 Entrepreneurship Sub-Themes from NVivo

Sub-theme	Average % coverage per interview
Opportunity Seeking and Exploitation	10.85
Uncertainty	4.95
Risk	4.82

7.2.1 Opportunity Seeking

Being open to opportunity and within that, creating opportunities by having an open attitude is evident among the respondents. The below quotation is illustrative of this:

> "My philosophy was always say "yes". You know, I never waited to ... and I think throughout my career I've never waited to be asked, or told, or even shown. I've always been 'look it can't be that difficult.'" (Hotelier L)

The notion of being entrepreneurial is not alien to the respondents. Here, there is a direct comparison with being an entrepreneur:

> "It's almost like the entrepreneur in a funny sort of way and it's no different, maybe from some of these financially successful, you can either cash everything in and then... but knowing that you are actually fine. Or you get these people who just want to... just want more all the time. It's almost more the adrenalin side of it." (Hotelier F)

Understanding the ways in which opportunities might present themselves is demonstrated. This extract shows the creation of opportunities through the immediate network of the respondent using new technology. This gives him a competitive edge:

> "The only way I got interviews was because, again, three people I shared a house with, one of them bought... I'm going back more than 20 years, bought an Apple Mac computer with the desktop publishing and we reconstructed a standard application form on the Mac so we didn't have to fill out all the forms. You just typed one out and in every interview I got they said "you got the interview because we don't know how you constructed that form". Everybody else's was hand written, in those days, on the form. They said, "that's a real stand out. How did you do that?" (Hotelier E)

Here there is tacit awareness of the opportunities the respondent can create for others through his role as well as for himself:

> "But, it really toughened me up into just the sort of circumstances people live in, the sort of opportunities that our industry can provide for them but only if you can connect with people to actually make them." (Hotelier C)

The below quotation illustrates an opportunity being genuinely designed and created by the respondent to further their career. There was no realistic job role for him so he created it:

> "And I took quite a leap, actually. I said "well, you can't afford me, you've got no salary base, could I work three days a week for you and be paid three days a week and I'll try and find something else to do with the other two?" And they agreed. They said "yeah, ok, we'll give you six months' probation and see how you get on." (Hotelier C)

There is also evidence of entrepreneurial opportunity seeking in the respondents' backgrounds. This example shows an explicit entrepreneurial endeavour at a young age, making money during the summer holidays from school:

> "I used to sell ice creams on Milford beach in the summer. So, I would go and get a cool box, fill it up with ice cream out of the local supermarket and walk along the beach with it, you know, just loads of stuff, just to make money and to get by. So, I guess there's always been a money making streak in me." (Hotelier N)

Reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed further stratification of what the respondents considered to be the key components of opportunity seeking; these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-2.

Table 7-2 Entrepreneurship and Opportunity Seeking

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Entrepreneurship	Opportunity seeking	Be proactive	26
		Know your staff	19

7.2.2 Opportunity Exploitation

Despite their operating in large organized businesses, opportunity exploitation is described as rather iterative:

> "I would love to take that one up! It's funny. I probably see myself, to be honest, more as a maverick. I actually see myself as someone who respects rules but doesn't follow the rules. Sometimes circumnavigates things, not in an illegal sense but just in a way of getting things done quickly as opposed to going through the... I don't... I'm not a fan of great detail. I don't like detail and I don't like... yes, just that, I don't like procedures as such, you know, I always think there is a quicker route to market, and quite often there is." (Hotelier C)

This respondent directly explained typical entrepreneurial opportunity during his career:

> "So, I said "oh, that sounds interesting." He said, "well it would be just the three of us. We've got to set up a design team and ... but you'd be the operations input because the designers always need to know how does this work, does that work, it looks great but does it work?" So, I said "this sounds interesting, kind of entrepreneurial, try to be an entrepreneur and see if I like it and if I've got that in me, if I'm an entrepreneur or not". (Hotelier F)

And he now describes himself within his current organisation as an entrepreneur:

> "I am entrepreneurial within a company. This is my favourite, that's what I like to think." (Hotelier F)

The opportunity exploitation below is general; there is a process described where understanding the limits of the business and the overall vision determines whether something is considered to be an opportunity or not:

> "Yeah, when it comes to opportunities, we are very mobile, both from a business point of view,…it is very easy to determine this is worth working. So our concentration and focus gives us an advantage in being able to move quickly and with certainty of being able to bring it to a conclusion." (Hotelier K)

Reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed further stratification of what the respondents considered being the key components of opportunity exploitation; these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-3.

Table 7-3 Entrepreneurship and Opportunity Exploitation

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Entrepreneurship	Opportunity exploitation	Getting the job done	14
		Having a go	30
		Tacit knowledge	15

7.2.3 Risk and Uncertainty

Along with being informed by background and experience, the respondents discuss the manner in which opportunity recognition and exploitation is tempered with their attitude towards risk and uncertainty:

> "I think we have been more of a risk taker than anybody else…and the risk was to me as a person obviously, because if my programme does not work out I will not be here." (Hotelier B)

There is an acknowledgement of the general uncertainty involved with making decisions in the hotel industry and the need to act in a way that allows you to have more control over the immediate impact as opposed to thinking long term:

> "So, to survive you've got to think of quick ways of getting where you want to get to. So, it's about trying to think as much about immediate solutions." (Hotelier H)

There is at the same time an embracement of uncertainty, almost an attitude that risk is what you must seek in order to pull-off successes:

> "So, some things you've got to do by customer research and some things were done that were truly innovative and you think "oh, let's do it." So, we did some pretty scary things that were risky. And they worked." (Hotelier F)

Another example of embracing uncertainty is seen below; there appears to be no desire to plan too far ahead or follow much more than instinct:

> "But I was part of that and that was thrilling because we didn't know what we were doing. No-one else knew what they were doing so we just had to do what we thought was right and if it worked, great, if it wasn't change it." (Hotelier E)

Even the uncertainty of the physical environment is referred to:

> "This is a great industry and it's a tough industry, in many ways because it's relatively challenging but, um, if you're resourceful you can do so much more." (Hotelier N)

Reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed further stratification of what the respondents considered to be the key components of risk and uncertainty, these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-4.

Table 7-4 Entrepreneurship, Risk and Uncertainty

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Entrepreneurship	Risk and uncertainty	Open to change	23
		Enjoying the ride	18
		Working with what you've got	28
		Self-belief	38

7.2.4 Emergent Components of Entrepreneurship

Following the reflective process associated with each sub-theme, the emergent components of each sub-theme are presented in full below. Once presented in full it is apparent that these can be mapped back directly to the literature; the four stand-out components of entrepreneurship according to the data are as follows: *be proactive, have a go, work with what you've got, self-belief*. These components are shaded below to highlight the frequency with which they were referred to.

Table 7-5 Entrepreneurship, Risk and Uncertainty

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Entrepreneurship	Opportunity seeking	Be proactive	26
		Know your staff	19
	Opportunity exploitation	Getting the job done	14
		Having a go	30
		Tacit knowledge	15
	Risk and Uncertainty	Open to change	23
		Enjoying the ride	18
		Working with what you've got	28
		Self-belief	38

7.3 Leadership

The below table presents the coverage of the most prominent themes relating to leadership; following this table, each theme is discussed in detail.

Table 7-6 Leadership Themes from NVivo

Sub-theme	Average % coverage per interview
Empathy and Verification	19.39
Charisma	10
Mission and Vision	4.15
Organisational Change	3.02

7.3.1 Empathy and Verification

When discussing their roles as leaders in their organisations, the respondents were explicit about their thoughts on leadership as a concept and their personal philosophies towards being an hotelier. They used metaphor to describe themselves, their jobs and the nature of the industry and they also discussed vision and its position relative to leadership.

As an hotelier it is necessary to be seen as one of the team. Humility is evident in much of the rhetoric associated with the role of a leader:

> "So I think team work and the ability to get in and just show people that you are not above anything, you have empathy and you care. Good leaders I think tend also to be quite humble about their own accomplishments. There is not a lot of horn blowing that goes on with a good leader because a lot of that should be implied." (Hotelier M)

The need to value your employees and understand what they can do for your business informs the manner in which the hoteliers frame their position relative to even the lowest paid staff in the organisation. Therefore, viewing even low paid auxiliary staff as a source of potential added value rather than as replaceable is evident here:

> “you know, our lowest paid staff are the same as the lowest paid staff in the three star hotel down the road and, therefore, it’s how you engage those people and, actually, how you make them... you kind of turn them into your secret weapon as it were and there’s nothing stopping you doing that at any level and it doesn’t cost anything to do it but it’s like making them feel good about themselves and communicating well and all of these things.” (Hotelier M)

The following quotation exemplifies an awareness of understanding oneself and the value of those around them to achieve the greatest overall results. The enactment of the hotelier role is described as a mediator between other skilled individuals who has utmost trust in their abilities:

> “it’s recognising what as an individual you can do or, even better, who you can call upon to help you because I’m sure as many people have told you on this thing it’s you can never have all the skills yourself but if you’ve got a good finance director, and marketing manager, and you sort of trust them, there is a kind of a phrase about trusting and verifying. Let someone completely have autonomy because I take the view unless you’re psycho no-one comes into work wanting to do a bad job, they actually want to do something, that’s why they’re there.” (Hotelier C)

The arbitrage of the hotelier is also tempered with honesty and directness. Leadership is described as having the confidence to disseminate the truth and do the right thing even if it seems challenging:

> “It doesn’t mean you have to be soft or namby pamby but just straight down the middle so people know what they’re dealing with, you know. And people respect you for it as well, whether you’ve got good news or bad news to tell them, for God’s sake, just tell them!” (Hotelier I)

The need for humility is evident again in the following quotation. No matter how much power an individual has, they need to be able to empathise and communicate at all levels to ensure sustainable leadership:

> "But, that's not always people to blame, I mean, leadership is often to blame for that. A lot of companies behave abominably towards people. Well, you reap what you sow. If you behave that way you can get... I have seen it done, you can get a lot done through fear, actually. I don't know that it's particularly sustainable but you can do. When I deal with people I take my experiences and try and build a way to reinforce my guidance around those experiences, they might be professional, they might be random personal ones." (Hotelier I)

Further reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed more stratification of what the respondents meant by empathy and verification, these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-7 and represented by 'components'.

Table 7-7 Leadership and Empathy

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Leadership	Empathy and Verification	Empathising	122
		Verifying	102
		Ethical leadership	3
		Leadership processes	19
		Narcissism	14
		Regrets and lessons	15

7.3.2 Charisma

The depicting of personal beliefs and approaches to the roles was a source of charismatic narrative. Charisma was extensively evident in the hoteliers' narratives and these are now presented. The value of the use of the creative narrative allowed the hoteliers to articulate particular beliefs without perhaps appearing to be pontificating. This seems analogous to their previous expression of retaining empathy and humility:

> "I can tell a bad trainer from a good trainer because I go and do the 15 repetitions and he comes back and says do another 15, oh, and you're doing this wrong, you are not getting the results, and there is another one I work happily now with every day, and he sits there looking back at me and says stop, raise your elbow, so, I raise my elbow and then he watches me again and says stop, put your feet back, so I put my feet back, what he does is supervision, he has communicated the message to me originally, and I did get the message, I understood that I had to pull on these, and I need to push on those. That is not any different from leadership in the hotel field." (Hotelier H)

The above quotation describes a need for small manipulations and keen supervision as the product is a living breathing entity that needs attending to. Similarly, below, the nature of the environment is described as being so difficult to predict that imagining into the future and then dictating actions would be challenging:

> "You know if we were all cave people again or something, back to that and you can only learn so much from just thinking about what would be a natural reaction in a certain circumstance if you didn't have any real issues surrounding it, it was all just personal. It is likely that humans will react in very similar ways when faced with issues of a business nature on that front." (Hotelier M)

Metaphor that depicts the need to get on with the job in hand, otherwise things will go badly very quickly, is evident below:

> "I always think these things are a bit like swimming. It doesn't matter whether you're in a mile of water or 12 inches of water, you can swim or you can drown." (Hotelier I)

In the same manner as the above quotation, the idea of being in the trenches is illustrated here but, as well as this, the notion of having to be creative to find ammunition is suggested:

> "I use the analogy that it's a bit like being in the trenches. You would be firing bullets at all the incoming rubbish that you were kind of getting, and you'd turn round and say to head office "I need some more bullets; I'm running out". And they would say "no, no, sort it out, find your own bullets". So, I'm getting all this flak from the front; I'm getting flak from behind and you've kind of got to find a way with what's around you." (Hotelier F)

Going against the grain is apparent in the below metaphor where the respondent literally flies in the face of the environmental structure:

> "Tom Cruise was called the maverick because he never did what the trainer said and just flew his own plane. But, I think that in a lot of ways that's quite appreciated." (Hotelier F)

The idea of making things happen is quoted below as a story from a respondent's wife but the theme of creativity appears once more as it did above:

> "My wife always says successful people make things happen. I like to be in that camp. I never liked being second. Second too much in sport, I don't like being second." (Hotelier D)

The dichotomy between the hotel industry being simple in theory and complex in practice is explicit from the findings. The principle of providing hospitality to guests is not a challenging concept to grasp yet the below quotation illustrates that delivering that product is so complex that it is unwise to think of one's moves beyond what is required next:

> “I don’t know if you can call me a visionary, as I said this is a very simple business. You just try to understand what it is that you want to accomplish first. Before you step out, you get dressed, and you have your car keys out, you get out of your house, but you don’t know where you are going, so you have to say to yourself where am I going? Should I turn right or left? Should I back out of the driveway or should I move forward? I think what I have always been focused on is where do I want to go in the immediate next step.” (Hotelier H)

Further reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed more detailed stratification of what the content of the hoteliers’ use of charismatic narrative was, these emergent elements are presented in Table 7-8 represented by ‘components’.

Table 7-8 Leadership and Charisma

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Leadership	Charisma	Metaphors	16
		Narcissism	17
		Traits and influences	119

7.3.3 Mission and Vision

Vision was tinged with a distinct element of self-doubt yet the need for a clear vision and confidence in one’s abilities is evident:

> “[Someone else] could be doing a better job than me. So, that is where you have, as a leader, there is always that element that you have to have confidence because you have to be seen to have the confidence to lead and to have a vision but, at the desk, there is always that element of self-doubt.” (Hotelier E)

Lateral thinking and peripheral vision were seen as more important than the traditional notion of corporate vision and strategic planning:

“The other thing is to have a very, very lateral mind so you hear about something and you actually think “how can I use that in my business?” So, I met a woman at a conference, she works for xxx, you know, so you think xxx our hotels, “ok, nice to meet you”. Actually how could we work with her? (Hotelier G)

Further reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed just one particular focus for what the respondents considered to be their vision for the future, the single emergent element is detailed in Table 7-9.

Table 7-9 Leadership Vision for the Future

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Leadership	Vision for the future	Being entrepreneurial	33

7.3.4 Organisational Change

Organisational change was mentioned but to a lesser degree than other sub-themes, 0.37% of discussion. An illustrative quotation is presented below:

> “Change implies that what you are doing isn’t working, I’d better change, that is like a revolutionary change, it is what revolutions are all about. Dramatic change. Ours is more of an evolution.” (Hotelier H)

This quotation shows the emergent nature of the industry through the description of the industry as evolutionary.

Despite less coverage of this theme, further reflection on the data did reveal component elements of perceptions of change. Interestingly, one component was laissez-faire leadership which is worthy of note within the context of change since it subscribes to the idea of asserting less control over employees. Despite this, the illustrative quotation shows acknowledgement of a belief in evolutionary change and the unpredictability and dynamic environment of the industry.

Table 7-10 Leadership and Organisational Change

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Leadership	Organisational change	Competitive Advantage	12
		Laissez-faire leadership	11
		Self-belief	9
		Skills	7

7.3.5 Emergent Components of Leadership

Following the reflective process associated with each sub-theme, the emergent components of each sub-theme are presented in Table 7-11 Emergent Components of LeadershipOnce presented in full it is apparent that these can be mapped back directly and be considered as the emergent components of leadership. The four stand-out components of leadership according to the data are interpreted as follows: *empathising, verifying, traits and influences, being entrepreneurial*. These components are shaded below to highlight the frequency with which they were referred to.

Table 7-11 Emergent Components of Leadership

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Leadership	Empathy and Verification	Empathising	122
		Verifying	102
		Ethical leadership	3
		Leadership processes	19
		Narcissism	14
		Regrets and lessons	15
	Metaphors	Charisma	16
		Narcissism	17
		Traits and influences	119
	Mission and Vision	Being entrepreneurial	33
	Organisational	Competitive advantage	12
		Laissez-faire leadership	11
		Self-belief	9
		Skills	7

7.4 Correlation between Entrepreneurship Themes and Leadership Themes

From the initial thematic coding it is apparent that there is correlation between the most frequently referenced themes from both the entrepreneurship codes and the leadership codes. In both cases the top four theses from each field correspond to the characteristics highlighted in the literature as being representative of the cross-over between entrepreneurship and leadership. The themes from the thematic analysis are presented here beside the themes identified in the literature that they most closely correlate to.

Table 7-12 Correlation between analysis themes with literature themes

Entrepreneurship	Components	References	Themes from literature that are common between entrepreneurship and leadership
	Be proactive	26	Imagination, creativity and inspiration are central to success
	Working with what you've got	28	
	Having a go	30	Emergent through human action and interaction
	Self-belief	38	Strong self-belief and ability to cope with uncertainty
Leadership	Empathising	122	Inter-subjectivity and relationship management are essential
	Verifying	102	
	Traits and influences	119	Defined by traits
	Being entrepreneur-ial	33	Entrepreneurial leadership

The point that is presented by the manner in which these dominant themes map onto the themes from the literature that apparently unite leadership and entrepreneurship is that despite the varied backgrounds and forms of ownership and control represented by the participants in this research, the nature of their roles are demonstrably formed of aspects of both entrepreneurship and leadership (as they are defined by the literature). Therefore, it is the objective of the following analysis chapters to understand how these themes interact and relate to the concepts of entrepreneurship and leadership within the hoteliers' narratives, to form a picture of the role of the hotelier.

7.5 Personal Context

The below table presents the coverage of the most prominent themes relating to the personal context of the respondents; following this table, each theme is discussed in detail.

Table 7-13 Personal Context

Sub-theme	Average % coverage per interview
Personal Philosophy	15.02
Interviewee's Background	20.2

7.5.1 Personal Philosophy

The respondents expressed a personal philosophy of their role and of how that extends to contribute to the industry. Strong themes of the dynamism and emergence of the environment are evident and the philosophies reflect this:

> "There are never two days alike and there are never two clients alike. And, I have come from that belief and it has helped shape my philosophy and my vision, if you will, of the industry. If you begin with the premise that if no two people are alike, why would you try to treat everyone the same? Create standards so that everyone would behave the same way." (Hotelier H)

There are also hallmarks of creativity and challenging the way things appear to be done by others. Below, the phrase going against the grain is a common sentiment which makes for an intriguing approach when ‘the grain’ has been illustrated to be ever-changing and unpredictable.

> “I think I made a career out of going against the grain. I used to keep the head office operating manuals on my shelves so when they visited I looked like I was a good boy. But actually I used to throw out the contents because I didn’t believe that you could create rules like that in this industry.” (Hotelier H)

As well as going against the grain, there is the suggestion that not letting the environment develop its own personality through the chemistry of the constituent parts can result in an unsuccessful product: There is also an awareness of the formation of individuals and how that informs future success, even to the extent of beliefs concerning the company people keep, networks play a role in the ability of hoteliers to get on and create success,

> “I think the company you keep makes a huge impact on where people end up. And I know parents try to engineer who their kids’ friends are and things like that and I think they are probably quite right to do so.” (Hotelier L)

Despite the causal approach to managing one’s personal and professional network, humility in the role is prevalent in the philosophies presented too. An attempt to seem ‘normal’ and no different from others in personality or outlook, just with perhaps a different role and a greater degree of agency, below, it is apparent that leaving some of the job to the ‘gods’, as it were, is an important process:

> “Leaders are just natural people wanting to get on with things. But, I think through, either perseverance, through hard work, through luck, through just a bit of knowing who to call to get the right answer to make the right decision

plus a bit of guesswork, that's what gets all these people working. And, I enjoy working with them." (Hotelier C)

This extract articulates an approach governed by 'who you are', 'what you know' and 'whom you can call on' to make success. Similarly, going against the grain is evident below as well as the suggestion that making seemingly irrational decisions sometimes result in positive outcomes:

"And there's another expression I quite like: *leap and a net will appear*." (Hotelier C)

Further reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed stratification of what the respondents considered to be their personal philosophy, these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-14, with the personal philosophies represented by 'components':

Table 7-14 Personal Philosophies of Process

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Personal Context	Personal philosophy	Personal values	15
		Narcissism	10
		Networking	20
		Perseverance	17

7.5.2 Interviewee's Background

A common background feature of the interviewees was that they had challenging or diverse backgrounds that forced them to 'grow up fast' so to speak:

"The women brought up their children alone. And they taught them a work ethic." (Hotelier B)

There is also evidence of socialisation into both the hospitality industry but equally in generally being involved with organised activity, understanding team dynamics and cooperating with others of different ages:

> "When you look in my family you could sort of say that it might be obvious that I'd gone into hospitality…They were party people and they always had parties and they're still very good at recognising birthdays, anniversaries, that sort of thing, any excuse for a party. They always used it and again still... still to this day their best, their favourite thing ever is actually getting the whole family, it doesn't happen very often but round the table, as it were." (Hotelier L)

Above is an example of a more conventional introduction to the hospitality industry, below illustrates the socialisation of operating within an ever-changing environment in the headmaster's house where the respondent was brought up. This outlook involved a dynamic environment that forced the respondent to engage with people of all ages, from all walks of life, fostering an ability to empathise with people and deal with constant flux:

> "But, once again, growing up there, our house was constantly with people coming in and out and entertaining. So, I got quite into the ... just the informal hospitality just by the nature of living at the school, I learnt how to act, when to act in particular ways and I was able to read people and what was going on." (Hotelier C)

A similar example is seen in this respondent's upbringing in the RAF:

> "I've never been living in the same place more than three years in my life, always sort of shifted around. I guess that the upbringing meant that I'm sort of used to travelling and packing up and moving on and meeting new people

> and so on. So, if you like, not quite a gypsy, but certainly sort of an itinerant worker from many points of view." (Hotelier G)

Furthermore, this respondent was actually brought-up in a hotel, which gave exposure to the industry itself but is a further example of having a dynamic home environment from a young age:

> "I was brought up in the hotel business, I'm an only child, leadership started for me by the time I got to my early teens… 11, 12, 13, I suppose I was working in the hotel by then, so I was modelling a style then following what my father did, what my mother did and then I always say to people that my first job was when I was a patrol leader in the scouts." (Hotelier D)

The below quotation describes mentoring during one's professional upbringing but alludes to the need to be creative and develop beyond the socialisation of one's mentors:

> "and improved on it in my mind and so if I stayed, I was brought up into this business by old fashioned people if I stayed like them I would be old fashioned today and probably be the General Manager of The Savoy and I am not." (Hotelier B)

Below is an example of a challenge being set for the respondent as a teenager and the reaction is to cope and adapt and even speculate that it may not be that much of a challenge after all:

> "I was about 15 or something and they were like "oh, do you want to, do you want to wait on tables in the restaurant?" I said, "well, I've never done it but it can't be that difficult, why not?" you know, and the trouble... again, you ... no training, not even ... literally you just ...there's some tables kind of take their orders, as it were. And so I did that." (Hotelier L)

This quotation leads into the next set of sub-themes but illustrates the heritage of a business decision-making philosophy founded in childhood experience:

> "So, my background is very much be on the lookout and make decisions quickly. If you make a mistake, correct it and move on with your head and your eyes open. Don't make the same mistake twice but keep moving your business forward. And it's a different mind-set, really." (Hotelier G)

Further reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed stratification of what elements of their background the respondents considered to be significant, these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-15 Background and Formation

Table 7-15 Background and Formation

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
Personal Context	Interviewee's background	Acting as an interface	56
		Education	61
		Personality traits	26
		Experience	64
		Family	44
		Identity	31
		Interests	10
		Regrets	12
		Training	43

7.5.3 Emergent components of Personal Context

As with Section 7.3.5, in keeping with the reflective process associated with each sub-theme, the emergent components of each sub-theme are presented in a table. These can be mapped back directly and be considered as the emergent components of process.

Table 7-16 Emergent Components of Personal Context

Process and context	Personal philosophy	Personal values	15
		Narcissism	10
		Networking	20
		Perseverance	17
	Interviewee's background	Acting as an interface	56
		Education	61
		Personality Traits	26
		Experience	64
		Family	44
		Identity	31
		Interests	10
		Regrets	12
		Training	43

7.6 Hotel Industry Context

The final emergent area discussed by the hoteliers is the industry environment in which they operate. The following section discusses the emergent themes that form the characteristics of the context within which the hotelier enacts their role.

Table 7-17 Hotel Themes from NVivo

Sub-Theme	Average % coverage per interview
Strategic Planning and Implementation	4.84
Product	4.6
Staff Development	10.66

7.6.1 Strategic Planning and Implementation

All respondents were vocal about their opinions of the hotel industry, the state of it and where they thought it needed to go in order to develop and sustain its place within the global economy. This also gave an impression of what sort of pressures are experienced by the hoteliers from their industry environment:

> "It's bloody hard work at the end of the day! You know it's quite easy looking back on results and success and rationalising that success when you

> are starting and looking forward. It is not quite as easy and actually nothing comes automatically. Sometimes we have some lucky breaks. But nothing happens in a very smooth and even fashion. You have fits and starts and ups and downs in arriving at your destination. So the answer is (a) the most important thing is to persevere and have belief in what you are doing and (b) is patience sometimes and waiting for the right thing to come along and not to take something because you are in a hurry to get there." (Hotelier E)

There is also some truly positive discussion regarding the nature and future of the industry. It has longevity as there will always be a need for it:

> "So if you have to think of an industry to get involved with it is a pretty good one. And it will always be an industry that will be in need, for it changes according to the travel patterns and communications, the ability to use the technology that we have. But it is always going to be something that will fit with everybody's need. It is not a sunset industry, it is not one that technology will outdate, and all of a sudden what do I do with the mainframe computers." (Hotelier K)

The need to recognise the service element of the business is consistently referred to. This makes it clear that the organisations within the industry live and die by their ability to provide effective service. The intangible element and simultaneous production and consumption of the service product are issues for the industry as a whole:

> "You must have a good location, but your locations can be very different, that old saying of the three most important things are: location, location, location, for the 21st century it is service" (Hotelier K)

Even the reference to hospitality as an industry is challenged based on the importance of the intangible service elements being so integral to the product:

> "It is not an industry; there are no nuts and bolts and robots creating things. And, when we revert to the behaviour of industry, then we actually start believing that we should have manuals" (Hotelier H)

One of the issues raised by the respondents is the recent trend of moving towards a more industrialised structure with manuals and standard procedures. These leaders actually want that to be redressed to allow freedom of service delivery and creativity. The need to stay away from structures that represent formal industrialisation is related to the industry itself being based on a rather simple product that can never really be altered:

> "How will they all contribute to your own success? It is not philosophical and it is not too difficult, it is really common sense if you think about it. (Hotelier H)

That being said there are, equally, calls for the appropriate support of the product through technology:

> "And I think that is really difficult for our business and so in reflecting upon that I figured that we probably need to innovate much more in terms of technology in the hotel business which has not really evolved a great deal let's face it, you know." (Hotelier A)

The industrialised management styles and techniques are challenged as being old fashioned too, this leader wants to move away from draconian, corporate leadership styles:

> "So, all of that is a big, big mistake by our industry and I would say even today our industry is somewhat backward with regard to the acceptance of

various technologies, for sure, but also management style and techniques." (Hotelier G)

Within that, the need for good communication is considered vital:

"I think that's the downfall of most organisations is the communication because if you don't communicate well then people kind of make up their own stories or rationale for why things are happening." (Hotelier J)

Reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed further stratification of what the respondents defined as being involved with strategic planning and implementation within the industry, these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-18

Table 7-18 Strategic Priorities for the Hotel Industry

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
The Hotel Industry	Strategic Planning and Implementation	Leadership adaptability	9
		Brand identity	13
		Effective strategy	12
		Embrace technology	7

7.6.2 Product

The product within the hotel industry has a unique underpinning structure, as described below. The hospitality companies themselves are essentially management organisations that take care of the service product delivery within properties owned by third parties. This is now the industry trend and recognising that focuses the organisations on what areas their leadership skills need to attend to:

"The trend with hospitality companies, big hospitality companies has been to go towards the asset light end of the model and to either franchise or have management contracts and that, by definition, brings in third party investors, be they pension funds or be they individual entrepreneurs, successful businessmen, people in their own right with property investments and, to

> some extent, dealing with those people requires different skills than you might get through going through your traditional career path within hospitality." (Hotelier N)

According to the above notion, the criticism of formalising the fluid nature of service delivery is presented in a particularly negative light below:

> "The hotel opened and it was... unfortunately, if I was critical of the organisation it was very much all by a book, it was all... I mean, I remember spending hours and hours and hours and hours in the office writing SOP manuals and they just gathered dust." (Hotelier D)

Hoteliers are aware of the need for good and appropriate education in the industry. This aligned with the attitude towards the service product and the resistance towards indoctrinating employees through rule books and similar structures. The employees themselves are the product, the engine and production line:

> "I started realising that it is the people in each individual hotel that shape the style, that add their own personal style, their own personal creativity and their own personality to it, and, when I started travelling on my own I started searching and seeking places that have their own personality, that did not conform to some distant corporate office, and I think that these were the most important lessons I learned throughout my career and some of the most rewarding observations I had in our business is the things I learned from all over the world that did not conform, if you will." (Hotelier H)

Conversely, the lack of control of staff is an issue. It is termed "quality control" below but a balance is evidently important between allowing staff to let their personalities show and, at the same time, ensuring they deliver an appropriate product through their personalities:

"It is an odd business in the sense that we have no post production quality control once the employee opens their mouth and speaks to the guest, the product from a service perspective has been delivered. We think very strongly that the quality of the service is mostly about attitude, and that the attitude of the employee is mostly affected by leadership attitudes." (Hotelier M)

Reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed further stratification of what the respondents defined as the hospitality product; these emergent elements are detailed in Table 7-19 Hotel Product

Table 7-19 Hotel Product

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
The hotel industry in general	Product	Understanding and working with frontline staff	31
		House keeping	3
		Environmental management	7
		Retail	13
		Rooms	14
		Selling an experience	29
		Effective use of space	7
		Branding	13

7.6.3 Staff Development

The importance of staff was a key feature, described as being essential to the business:

"They are essential it is a business which is about people at the end of the day. The product is the people delivering the service. Or 80% of the product is that, so people are paramount." (Hotelier E)

Allowing staff to shape the product and the personality of the business is cited as being key too. In the following quotation, the difficulty in controlling the product that is delivered is alluded to:

> "There is a high potential for error in our business and so it should be. If you allow people, especially young bright people to come through the ranks with a fresh outlook, you can either use that freshness and the third party look if you will, or you can get them to the same staid, stale, concept that you have created thirty years ago and you carry it through." (Hotelier H)

The same need to allow staff to shape the business is mentioned here, where they are described as a core asset:

> "And our core value is our number one asset, our people and the diversity of our people." (Hotelier B)

The balance of guiding staff and also letting them have the freedom to express themselves and take initiative is important to the respondents too, something that chimes with the concept of laisez-faire leadership presented in section 3.2:

> "First of all I think they have to be nice people, they have to be well organised, vigilant, open minded, they have to be able to take initiative and take the lead. I am not the kind of person that goes and stands behind their backs and says…" (Hotelier A)

The responses from the leaders espoused a hunger for bright, receptive young people in the industry that were keen to embrace the creativity that the respondents cite as being essential to their own role. They also acknowledge that the human element of the service product must be allowed to evolve through the embracing of young people's contemporary outlooks and allowing these to inform the way they go about their jobs within the industry:

> "The industry will only change when young graduates are permitted to use their own initiative, their own thoughts, their own ideas, even if they make mistakes - and we all do. Heaven, I make mistakes every day and thirty years later I still make mistakes and that is how we learn." (Hotelier H)

Deeper reflection on the content of this sub-theme revealed stratification of what the respondents considered to be the components of the need for staff development in the industry, these emergent elements are detailed in the table below represented by 'components'.

Table 7-20 Staff Development

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
The Hotel Industry	Staff Development	Staff as the face of the organization	52
		Importance of training	40
		Importance of education	33
		Need for leadership education	11
		Importance of experience	14

7.6.4 Components of the Hotel Industry

Following the reflective process associated with each sub-theme, the emergent components of each sub-theme are presented in full below. Once presented in full it is apparent that these can be mapped back directly and be considered as the emergent components of the hotel industry.

Table 7-21 Components of the Hotel Industry

Theme	Sub-theme	Components	References
The Hotel Industry	Strategic Planning and Implementation	Leadership adaptability	9
		Brand identity	13
		Effective strategy	12
		Embrace technology	7
	Product	Understanding and working with frontline staff	31
		House keeping	3
		Environmental management	7
		Retail	13
		Rooms	14
		Selling an experience	29
		Effective use of space	7
		Branding	13
	Staff Development	Staff as the face of the organisation	52
		Importance of training	40
		Importance of education	33
		Need for leadership education	11
		Importance of experience	14

7.7 Conclusion

Having identified and reflected upon the elements cited by interviews as integral to their role, the thesis now moves on to distil these elements into sub-themes, thereby discerning the emergence of antecedents of virtuous personal narratives. This analysis allows for a deeper insight into the central research purpose, being to explore the role of narratives in informing the enactment of entrepreneurship and leadership processes among hoteliers.

8 First Reflective Analysis: The Emergence of Virtuous Personal Narratives

8.1 Introduction

This chapter builds on the raw data presented in Chapter 7. By going through a round of personal reflexivity and then re-engaging with the data from Chapter 7, insight into the components of the hoteliers' personal narratives could be gleaned and a deeper level of analysis could be achieved. This deeper analysis provides further insight into the framework(s) by which hoteliers enact their roles. Following this reflexive process, the themes from Chapter 7 are distilled into sub-themes, these sub-themes are described as antecedents of virtuous personal narratives: varied backgrounds, being used to change, and personal freedom. Virtuous personal narratives are the construction of positive meaning around memorable or significant events, which are harnessed for the ostensible lessons that can be drawn from them, and applied in the present. The hoteliers actively seek to cultivate these narratives from their own pasts, and irrespective of the nature of the story (be that unequivocally positive or negative), they construct virtuous meaning around the story, so that the story can be utilised in a proactive way.

The antecedents are established by first taking key emergent themes from the thematic analysis in Chapter 7, engagement and reflection on these themes precipitate the emergence of narratives being used to frame the role of being an hotelier. The use of narratives as both the means and the end resonates with previous discussions in Chapter 1, where narrative is cited as being a means of sense-making and persuasion for the audience (Chand, 2006; Havelock, 1988; Hummel, 1991a; Koenig, 2008; Orr, 2009). It is also simultaneously a form of sense-making for the self, as discussed in Chapter 5, Rowlinson (2004) notes the ways in which a story cements a sense of meaning and reflection within the storyteller themselves. It is presented in the analysis, here, that it is equally a process of live sense-making for the orator who is using the construction of virtuous positive narratives to define their role as hotelier. The sense of reflecting on experiences positions, and is informed by, a virtuous cycle of narrative construction. The reasons and process of personal reflexivity is described in more detail in the following section to show how the thematic analysis was developed from Chapter 7.

8.2 Personal Reflexivity

Before embarking on the analytical process involved with this chapter it was necessary to revisit my own perspectives and presuppositions towards the industry, the literature and, indeed, the respondents of the study following the completion of data collection. Much of the focus of this reflexive process involved the ontological position of me as a researcher and the apparent outlook of the leaders operating within the industry. There was a degree of alignment with our respective positions and this is significant in that the shaping of the future is considered to be at the mercy of the individual and determined by the immediate interactions of groups of individuals within a network. Any notion of an objective structure to the hospitality industry is rejected on the premise that the creation of the product by humans and the immediacy and unpredictability of what unfolds from there means the hospitality product and businesses that supply it are in a perpetual state of flux and unpredictability. References made by the participants to strategic planning and implementation were relatively few, thus we are directed towards the fluid and emergent character of the industry, driven by the creativity of individuals working effectively with others and dealing with the immediate rather than the distant challenges.

8.3 Antecedents

As described in Chapter 5, interviews were conducted in a manner that allowed the interviewee to influence the direction of the dialogue. This encouraged the aspects of the respondent's career that they cited as being most influential and important to come to the fore rather than the focus being solicited by particular questions from the interviewer. Categorically, the most cited area of influence on the respondents' respective careers was childhood and family background. There was a high degree of reflexivity espoused by the answers provided and it became apparent that 'who they are' was as important to their approach to business as 'what they do'. However, both of these elements had a reciprocal relationship with their belief system or personal philosophy. Several factors were identified that were associated with antecedents of the development of the role of hotelier. In each of the following sub-sections, the emergent points from the thematic analysis are presented and reflected upon in relation to the literature to draw out further meaning.

It is suggested within the area of the leadership literature concerned with trait theory that leadership ability is initially fostered in childhood through dynamic social exposure (Bernard, 1926; Homer, 2003; Zaccaro, 2007). Environments that involve challenging social encounters or that are unpredictable create opportunities for focused practice and application of teamwork, diplomacy, problem solving and coping with uncertainty. All of these elements are represented in the two most commonly referred to components of leadership from the thematic analysis: empathy and verification in section 7.3.1. There is association with the literature, particularly Simola, et al. (2010) who highlight the reflexive dialogue that takes place between the individual and those around them, one that espouses empathy and understanding. The nature of the family dynamic is influential on early leadership development, families that are embedded within a broad social network, whether that be through domestic environment, work commitments or personal networks, expose children to interactions and a mature outlook that offers them constant examples to follow and attempt to replicate.

This section presents examples of the antecedents that influence decision making in the role of hotelier and it also shows theoretical similarities among the backgrounds of the interviewees, the similarities being that often the family background was unusually dynamic, changeable and exposed the children to challenging social situations. Sarasvathy (2008) notes the influence of background and personal identity on the process of entrepreneurship, and similar sentiments are expressed in the responses of these individuals. Yet the theoretical significance of the backgrounds is important to highlight precisely due to their distinct contextual variation; particular developmental contexts are not being presented as necessary elements in the process of being an hotelier. Specifically, where Sarasvathy (2001) notes that who you are, who you know and what skills you have are important to the entrepreneurial process, it is shown by the hoteliers in this study that they choose to form a sense of positive narrative reflection on their own careers, which they see as supporting the enactment of their role. A narrative account of background and identity is harnessed to be used in the process of dealing with employees. For example, narratives could be expressed externally or be internally informative:

> "When I deal with people I take my experiences and try and build a way to reinforce my guidance around those experiences, they might be professional, they might be random personal ones." (Hotelier J)

Where the literature that considers process explains the disposition of individuals and offers context to their actions (Moroz & Hindle, 2012), other literature focuses on traits that are inconsequential to individuals who are faced with such unpredictable issues on a daily basis that whether they are narcissists (Campbell & Foster, 2007), charismatic (Howell & Shamir, 2005), or deeply moral in attitude (Ladkin & Taylor, 2010) does not make a difference. Labelling hoteliers' personalities is futile; understanding that personality will have an impact is essential, but the individual identity of the hotelier drives consequences that are informed by several factors: namely who they are, where they come from, and what they believe. In other words, considering the process of enacting their position is much more appropriate than what kind of a person they are. This can be illuminated by exploring the virtuous personal narratives that are constructed around their career histories. Offering a priori, predictable consequences of leadership style that are predicated on theoretical traits generalises their actions and privileges their outlooks with the ability to predict consequences. In reality, the participants of this study have shown that they act based on the immediate surroundings of people and resources coupled with a personal identity informed by background, experience and beliefs. Their actions, reactions, interpretation of consequences and resultant judgments are iterative, changeable, and contingent on a multitude of elements that preclude us from judging the enactment of a role solely on something as subjective as narcissistic tendencies or charisma (or indeed other ascribed traits). This echoes Gartner's (1990) suggestion of the combination of views between entrepreneurial traits and entrepreneurial behaviour, taking the *dance and the dancer* as a whole.

The hotelier is likely to be uncertain of both their preferences and future consequences; they act irrationally with the resources they have available to them informed by a combination of subjective and intersubjective decision-making processes that either end in success or failure (Weick, 1979). This is characterised by the quotation from Hotelier H:

> "Before you step out, you get dressed, and you have your car keys out, you get out of your house, but you don't know where you are going, so you have to say to yourself where am I going? Should I turn right or left? Should I back out of the driveway or should I move forward? I think what I have always been focused on is where I want to go in the immediate next step." (Hotelier H)

These individuals act and make retrospective sense of their actions because the multidimensional nature of what they are faced with through environmental, personal and exogenous factors make discerning realistic consequences and choosing between predicted preferences almost impossible; thus, they must create as is suggested in the entrepreneurial process through *chance encounters* (Moroz & Hindle, 2012) in a *non-teleological process* (Sarasvathy, 2008). And creative they are: the story of change and challenge is one that all respondents have delivered, arriving in a foreign country with effectively nothing and carving out the means to continue is the core narrative running through Hotelier F's responses, and similar evidence of creativity prevails. There is a strong sense of a journey; the discussions were aimed at what they did but the participants felt it necessary to explain how they got there in order to give perspective on what they did.

The respondents allude to conditioning in their childhood years as influential in their journey towards leadership. In itself this is perhaps unsurprising, as it is accepted that childhood shapes an individual for the rest of their lives to a large extent. However, what is evident in the illustrative quotations presented is that these leaders continued to draw upon their childhood as their careers developed towards higher positions of responsibility. Below, the respondent declares his ‘wow’ work ethic was instilled in him as a child by his mother and it continues to underpin his application in the present and his identity as an hotelier:

> “The women brought up their children alone. And they taught them a work ethic.” (Hotelier B)

Both the entrepreneurship and leadership literature have driven the trait theory as a determinant of success (Bernard, 1926; Jago, 1982; McCarthy, Puffer, & Darda, 2010; Peters, 2005). The clear declaration of the respondents, here, is that their childhood environment squarely shapes their people skills and capabilities in dealing with the dynamic challenges of global business. This contests the implication of personality traits underpinning leadership; rather it is socialisation that informs their approach. This socialisation is framed as a philosophical education:

> “It is really *l’art de vivr*e, it is lifestyle; it is how to do things certainly in the traditions and the techniques which are quite refined, and the combination of these factors.” (Hotelier A)

The willingness to reflect upon and employ the socialisation that occurred during childhood is marked in the responses. Above, reference to learning is made and the idea of these experiences being a rite of passage towards management is tangible. The below quotation hints at an acknowledgement of traits in the parents that are recognised in the self. However, it is not so much the traits that are drawn upon by the hotelier, rather the process of being offered the freedom to develop one’s personality and the appreciation of having been challenged by the family environment to develop as an individual. The differentiation between the socialisation process of family environment and the theory of traits is that traits suggest fixed, predictable and causal outcomes. The focus on socialisation suggests leaders develop capabilities to thrive in the environment as described by Sarasvathy (2008).

> "A lot of what you think about in that context comes to you very late in life, right; it is not something you dwell on when you are a teenager. It has come to me in a series of ways, my childhood is a big part of the leadership approach that I have." (Hotelier M)

There is a resonance here with Ladkin and Taylor's (2010) definition of leadership as informed by strong personal ethics enacted through co-creative exchanges. The above respondent grounds her leadership value system in her socialisation in childhood, and continues to reinforce that system through reflexivity that engages with her parents' values in the present and indeed particularly in work experiences. However, there is also an inference that this value system is irreconcilably instilled beyond a child's control, thus the speaker could easily be construed as a narcissistic leader (Kernberg, 1979). Whether the leader could be defined as authentic or narcissistic is partially trivial; what emerges is that the experiences they draw upon and use to inform their approach to their roles are located largely in their socialisation, representing a process of self-affirmation of belonging in one's position.

The sort of experiences the hoteliers draw upon posit their growing up in a socially challenging environment as a key to being equipped with leadership potential. The following narratives describe childhood backgrounds that are called upon to establish both an identity as someone who copes with multiple spheres of influence and who is used to being empowered to be independent and comfortable making decisions. This description of family life illustrates such social dynamics being commonplace:

> "When you look in my family you could sort of say that it might be obvious that I'd gone into hospitality. They were party people and they always had parties and they're still very good at recognising birthdays, anniversaries, that sort of thing, any excuse for a party. They always used it and again still... still

> to this day their best, their favourite thing ever is actually getting the whole family, it doesn’t happen very often, but round the table, as it were. We’d all mucked in, always, we’d never had, I guess, parents who did everything for us, if that makes sense, it was always a sort of team effort and as I say we’re all quite independent and probably very mature both socially and I’m not quite sure how to... but, you ... I guess we were sort of beyond our years in terms of how we would help out around the house.” (Hotelier L)

This extract chimes with Sarasvathy’s (2001, 2008) assertions of the importance of identity informing the ability to enact a process. The identity described by the above quotation is one that is comfortable operating amongst multiple spheres, and used to challenges from the environment. As well as this, being left to “get on with it” is cited as important to leadership ability:

> “In primary school, I guess, for things like debating and discursive things and things like that; probably top in the class for that, generally. Our family never had, overly, much money and so you go to school and you see people with a lot more stuff, money and whatever else and it doesn’t matter how much money you’ve got you’re always going to find somebody with some more but…my parents just left us to get on with it.” (Hotelier I)

‘Getting on with it’ was a component in the thematic analysis relating to the entrepreneurship coding stream, seen in section 7.2.4. Further, it was determined that this component belonged to a set of elements that were representative of both entrepreneurship and leadership in section 7.4; thus the challenging background can be considered an important aspect in the underpinning process of being a hotelier and one that informs their outlook on the world.

8.3.1 Comfortable with change

A relationship between having a childhood where children were treated with a respectful and ‘adult’ nature by their parents and being encouraged to develop their own opportunities and interests rather than having such things forced upon them is distinctly espoused in the data. Some of this challenge was driven by the very environment the hoteliers were raised in, as the following extracts describe:

> "I've never been living in the same place more than three years in my life, always sort of shifted around. I guess that the upbringing meant that I'm sort of used to travelling and packing up and moving on and meeting new people and so on. So, if you like, not quite a gypsy, but certainly sort of an itinerant worker from many points of view." (Hotelier G)

The following quotation offers a similar example of the influence of environment:

> "I was brought up in the hotel business, I'm an only child, leadership started for me by the time I got to my early teens... 11, 12, 13, I suppose I was working in the hotel by then, so I was modelling a style then following what my father did, what my mother did and then I always say to people that my first job was when I was a patrol leader in the scouts. Because I was brought up in a dynamic environment I was with staff all the time, and guests all the time, and meeting, probably even before I even went, finished school, I had met some famous people." (Hotelier D)

From the review of literature, the creation of value is discussed as being an element of success both for entrepreneurs and leaders (Kirzner, 1999; Pieterse et al., 2010; Wong & Pang, 2003). The suggestion, below, is that the ability to identify opportunities for value creation, and the manner in which interfacing within a social dynamic can create value, is learned through the flux of a changing environment in childhood and practiced throughout the life course:

> "My father was a Headmaster. Living in a school, though, which retrospectively is probably always different from the people side of things living in the Headmaster's house, particularly, you always had visiting rugby teams, squash teams, tennis teams, the whole lot; parents, staff and other

> visitors. But, once again, growing up there our house was constantly with people coming in and out and entertaining. So, I got quite into the ... just the informal hospitality just by the nature of living at the school, I learnt how to act, when to act in particular ways and I was able to read people and what was going on.” (Hotelier C)

The above quotations are indicative of the hoteliers finding their abilities to accommodate and respond appropriately to guests and staff from a wide range of socio-economic backgrounds rooted in adolescent and pre-adolescent experiences. These experiences are incorporated into personal narratives as instilling an openness to change in hoteliers that informs the enactment of contemporary daily processes in their industry.

8.3.2 Personal Freedom

The skills espoused by the hotelier in being a key interface amongst groups and institutions and being a creative driving force for their organisation have been directly learned through situations that are seemingly trivial such as focusing on handwriting as it can be relied upon to achieve marks at school next to relative weaknesses:

> “My father actually came from was sent by his family, he was the younger brother, just before the war to get out before it was too late…he survived because he was sent away but the others didn’t survive and so he had to... which is ... really because he had...you are the only one left in your family in a strange country, not speaking the language or not well. He had to find a way of coping and the same happened for me at school. So actually school life all the way through was pretty horrible because it was all about failing exams and not doing well and you know school reports because I was dyslexic. So I thought, well, what can I do? I did like people. I was quite good with people. As a child, and I guess there are two things I seem to compensate with. One is I’ve got incredibly neat handwriting because I taught myself italics, actually,

> but handwriting because at least you got a mark for neat handwriting, so that was one mark, or a couple of marks. I now use my school reports. I go out to schools and show people my school reports and say "listen, if I can do what I've done with these, you can do anything!" And it's quite inspirational, especially with people who are struggling." (Hotelier F)

The challenge to the literature, here, is to extend the notion that 'making it happen' is 'other-worldly' or special, the respondents describe that 'making it happen' has been a way of life for varying reasons that relate directly to their formative background and, thus, it is this that is called upon when affirming their role as leader rather than a specific set of rules that may have been prescribed during the professional career. This chimes with the literature discussing entrepreneurial process, where resourcefulness is part of the process. There is an apparent grammar of entrepreneurial process presented by the data here, explaining what process is applied in order to cultivate a sense of the aspects authors such as Sarasvathy (2001, 2006, 2008) cite as being integral. The emergent concept is that virtuous narrative that is harnessed positively around previous experiences is used to make sense of one's set of resources and they choose to reflect on these positively so that they may be used as a means of enacting the process (be it of entrepreneur or hotelier, or otherwise). Actual leadership roles in childhood are cited too:

> "I was always very sporty, I was captain of the school football team, school cricket team, I went on to play for XXX Firsts, they're a very good side in the county league. That's my abiding memory of my childhood, really playing a lot of sport." (Hotelier N)

Reflecting on mistakes and lessons from the past is a prominent characteristic of the approach to the hoteliers' role. Being able to reflect on seemingly small incidents from childhood experiences or more generally within family life directly informs current actions. This approach is embedded and confidently enacted within business contexts despite them seeming erroneously accrued from childhood reflection. A point of note in this context is the willingness to apply lessons from a childhood that was exposed to dynamic situations that involved adults. The application of childhood experiences in the present is perhaps affirmed at some level because they took place commonly in the company of adults and, thus, there is implicit verification of their continued utility. The result is a wealth of experiences that can be directly drawn upon to inform action in the here and now. The key factor is that the hoteliers choose to draw upon these aspects of their careers in a positive way and consider them to be sources of adding value and strength to their own positions.

Lessons learned also cultivate a sense of empathy with those around you; the adaptability discussed among the hoteliers is located within family background and growing up. Adaptability has developed into the ability to cope with uncertainty, isotropy and difficulties in discerning preferences. Being perpetually on the move or different people perpetually moving through their own environment is a common feature; this is referred to as a precipitant of contentment in unpredictable, dynamic and emergent situations. There is a well-practiced, embedded and secure attitude towards the dynamism of the hospitality industry which is attributed to being socialised into a disruptive environment as a child. This is certainly not to say it was a negative habitus for the hoteliers as children but it was both different and dependent on their ability to cope with its characteristics.

The cultivation of this outlook also informs much of the identity and outlook of the hoteliers. It is rationalised as being fundamental to their identity, who they are. What they do as leaders is not something that comes along with their job; it is something they reflexively interpret as being an integral element of their individual ontology. The manner in which they enact their roles is inseparably intermeshed with their identity and the willingness to continually rationalise this through drawing parallels with experiences in their own narratives both supports that sentiment and distinguishes their position as something that has been acquired over time through environment, circumstance and application. Their abilities in the role of hotelier are learned behaviours that are predicated on inimitable experiences absorbed, interpreted and learned from over a lifetime. There was a noticeable difficulty across all participants to espouse the actions of their roles without telling stories and giving examples from their own pasts and philosophies. Their attempts to pin down the processes of being an hotelier were always built upon the story of their own journeys. The suggestion that emerges is that the process of being an hotelier has more to do with the construction of narratives in action to create purpose and justification as the situation arises, potentially more closely aligned with the entrepreneurial process.

8.3.3 Where they come from

The sort of experiences the leaders draw upon highlight being socially challenged as a key to being equipped with leadership potential yet further reflection reveals that it is the strength and lessons that are actively taken from these experiences that are harnessed in their day to day dealings and decision making. Childhood backgrounds are called upon to establish both an identity as someone who copes with multiple spheres of influence and who is used to being empowered to be independent and comfortable making decisions.

The importance of identity informing the ability to enact the entrepreneurial process is noted by Sarasvathy (2001, 2008). Like the entrepreneurs that Sarasvathy describes, hoteliers are comfortable operating amongst multiple spheres and used to challenges from the environment. As well as this, being able to simply "get on with it" is cited as important to leadership ability, as noted by Leitch, McMullan and Harrison (2013). These insights allow deeper understanding into how identity is created within Sarasvathy's theory; it is harnessed through drawing support from any experience, be it deliberately formative or informally challenging.

There is a relationship between having a childhood where one is treated with a respectful and 'adult' nature by their parents and being encouraged to develop their own opportunities and interests rather than having them forced upon them. Some of this challenge was driven by the very environment in which the leaders were raised. This leads to the ability to recognise and create potential for value. From the review of literature, the creation of value is discussed as being an element of success both for entrepreneurs and leaders (Kirzner, 1999; Pieterse et al., 2010; Wong & Pang, 2003). The suggestion from the respondents is that the ability to identify opportunities for value creation and how interfacing within a social dynamic can create value is learned from childhood and practiced throughout the life course by positively seeking change, flux and creativity. Despite this, the apparent framework that emerges is not that the experiences themselves are particularly important, rather the choice made to build them in a positive way into personal narratives is. This is resonant with narcissistic leadership in terms of the source of the belief system being self-reverent and underpinning virtuous positive narratives (Campbell & Foster, 2007).

The legacy of parents' lives informs the respondents' actions too. The pride in a father's need to cope with challenging circumstances forges an identity of being capable to cope with challenges and find a way to achieve:

> "he survived because he was sent away but the others didn't survive and so he had to... which is ... really because he had...you are the only one left in your family in a strange country, not speaking the language or not well. He had to find a way of coping and the same happened for me at school." (Hotelier F)

This resonates with the entrepreneurship literature of 'finding a way' or 'making it happen' and creating opportunities by being effective in one's approach, as defined by Sarasvathy (Sarasvathy, 2004b, 2008; Sarasvathy, Dew, Velamuri, & Venkataraman, 2005a). However, what this also suggests is that this ability is learned through other contexts. The skills espoused by the leader in the contemporary in being a key interface amongst groups and institutions and being a creative driving force for their organisation have been directly learned through situations that are seemingly trivial such as focusing on handwriting (Hotelier F) as it can be relied upon to achieve marks at school next to relative weaknesses.

8.4 Conclusion

The challenge to the literature, here, is to extend the notion that 'making it happen' is other-worldly' or special, the respondents describe, as illustrated in the above quotation, that 'making it happen' has been a way of life for varying reasons that relate directly to their formative background and, thus, it is this that is called upon as they shape their role as leader rather than there being a specific set of rules that may have been prescribed during the professional career. Even more than this, there are narratives being constructed that are purposefully positive and the choice to reflect on experiences as virtuous and positive is the pivotal aspect of the apparent antecedents of hoteliers' approach to their roles, not the experiences themselves but the approach to the sense-making process of incorporating them into one's personal set of narratives. The aggregate themes that were emergent from the inductive process also present a strong sense of the antecedents of the narratives that are formed. The antecedents are in some way analogous to concepts associated with effectual logic such as understanding one's sense of identity and being comfortable with themes relating to uncertainty. The inductive process revealed a sense of antecedents informing the construction of virtuous narratives and the discussions have animated these themes, which will be discussed further and developed in the following chapter. The antecedents themselves are shown to inform further emergent themes in chapter 9, such as embracing uncertainty and being creative, ideas that align with being comfortable with change and having personal freedom. Furthermore, the manner in which the participants freely harness all kinds of stories in an effort to make sense of their roles and approach problems is significant in that it often has little direct relevance to their roles yet it is constructed in such a way that meaning can be expressed internally and externally to inform action.

9 Second Reflective Analysis: The Entrepreneurial Leader in Context

9.1 Introduction

Having acknowledged the importance of context (Zahra, 2007, p. 716), and asserted the suitability of the hotel industry as a context in which to explore the theories of causal and effectual logic, this chapter explores the processes enacted by hoteliers in their specific context. The bridging element that allows the hotelier to graduate from being an hotelier to enacting the role successfully is the personal use of narratives to navigate the uncertain territory with which they are faced. In order to explore that territory, this chapter deploys a second reflective analysis of the entrepreneurial leader in context (Fernald, Solomon, and Tarabishy, 2005), examining the threshold between causal and effectual logic. Crucially, in theory and out of context the processes might seem to indicate only effectual logic, but in context there is an oscillating relationship between causal and effectual logics. By contextualising what we have found in Chapter 8, we can see effectual and causal logic at work in tandem, with causal logic facilitating effectual logic, which feeds back into causal logic, and so on.

9.2 A Process of Actions

Four constituent parts of the hotelier's role have been factored together from the action-based themes presented in Chapter 7: embracing uncertainty, creativity, bias to action, and verification of others. The previous chapter illustrated the primary importance of the journey of becoming someone that considers themselves to occupy a *leadership* position. The following discussions develop this notion to present a process of personal narrative construction that both justifies and leverages decision making in a positive way. This process is anchored in the narratives of the developmental journey by harnessing positive reflections upon past experiences in a manner that highlights and frames the advantages of current decision making and equally provides the confidence to stand by those decisions.

The stories of positive reflexivity are simultaneously dependent and independent of context in that their meaning is context-specific, yet the process of searching for the lessons or positive outcomes from a challenge or impediment is universal across all participants. This creates the impression of a double-helix process of meaning making; the narratives from the past that are recounted as examples of positive reflexivity could be framed as being necessary experiences in order to follow the passage of becoming a leader and learning the entrepreneurial process. However, given the non-context specific character of these stories and the established power of narrative to form and perpetuate meaning for an individual, these stories are, in fact, sought by the hoteliers as a means of justifying the process they now follow. These narrative bases for current action are retrospectively sought forms of precedence that positively reinforce action and underpin a sense of confidence in creative and bold action in the present. What this means is that the experiences discussed in section 0 are not so important in terms of their content, rather the fact they are recalled in the first place and actively cited as useful narratives to apply to the hoteliers' current roles. How these narrative journeys are then applied in the day to day lives of the hoteliers is now discussed. In each of the following sub-sections, the emergent points from the thematic analysis are presented and reflected upon to draw out further meaning. Again, the overarching actions discussed are as follows: embracing uncertainty, creativity, bias to action, and verification of others.

9.2.1 Embracing uncertainty

The following points were identified in the thematic analysis as being themes that relate to embracing uncertainty: opportunities can be exploited through perseverance and the encouragement of the network; the emergence and unpredictability of human action creates organic opportunities; and accepting multiple dynamic options and outcomes creates comfort in embracing the unpredictable and taking the leap of faith. This has clear links to the logic of effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2003), with the hotel context creating the need to accept and embrace unpredictability.

Along with being informed by background and experience, the respondents discuss the manner in which opportunity recognition and exploitation is almost spurred-on by their attitude towards risk and uncertainty. The following quotation highlights the creation of a positive approach to risk taking, showing a narrative that vilifies safety and celebrates uncertainty:

> "I think we have been more of a risk taker than anybody else…I do it freely." (Hotelier B)

There is an acknowledgement of the general uncertainty involved with making decisions in the hotel industry and the need to act in a way that allows you to have more control over the immediate impact as opposed to thinking long term, "So, to survive you've got to think of quick ways of getting where you want to get to. So, it's about trying to think as much about immediate solutions" (Hotelier H). There is, at the same time, an embracement of uncertainty, almost an attitude that risk is what you must seek in order to pull-off successes:

> "So, some things you've got to do by customer research and some things were done that were truly innovative and you think "oh, let's do it." So, we did some pretty scary things that were risky. And they worked." (Hotelier F)

Another example of embracing uncertainty is seen below; there appears no desire to plan too far ahead or follow much more than instinct:

> "But I was part of that and that was thrilling because we didn't know what we were doing. No-one else knew what they were doing so we just had to do what we thought was right and if it worked, great, if it wasn't, change it." (Hotelier E)

Even the uncertainty of the physical environment is referred to: "This is a great industry and it's a tough industry in many ways because it's relatively challenging but, um, if you’re resourceful you can do so much more.” (Hotelier N). These extracts show narrative in action where the positive reflection on times of risk are seen as moments that create competitive advantage and even bind the team together, “I was part of that”. It is clear that the hoteliers leverage the positive outcomes of uncertain times as a way to mythologise the decisions made and reinforce them as positive, returning our understanding of risk to its etymological roots as being a representative of reward as presented in Chapter 2 (Simpson, 2012). The perpetuating narrative accounts that are presented by hoteliers of times where they have actively exposed themselves to risk and described stories of risks they took, are examples of positive reflexivity in action (Weick, 1995). This positive reflexivity is a continuation of the attitude they take to the experiences they had early in life that formed the foundations of their development, and graduates it to a tool for doing business where they are able to build narrative accounts around their actions and the direction of the organisation that heightens the meaning to their employees and fits it into the ever-evolving story of their own success.

9.2.2 Creativity

The following points were identified in the thematic analysis as being themes that relate to the creativity in the role of hotelier: going against the grain allows advantage to be gained and often opportunities to be exploited; innovation is how each day should be lived; carving out the future through immediate resources is central to success; and the emergence and unpredictability of human action creates organic opportunities. Hoteliers referred to the industry as being driven by its human element; the interactions of individuals, whether that was between the leaders themselves and staff or owners, or if it was between staff and customers or other dynamics, drive the industry in an emergent fashion, this resonates with the ideas presented previously relating to productivity emerging from interactions and relationships (Conger and Kanungo (1987); Polanyi, (1957); Covin & Slevin, (2002)).

> “I probably see myself, to be honest, more as a maverick. I actually see myself as someone who respects rules but doesn’t follow the rules. Sometimes circumnavigates things, not in an illegal sense but just in a way of getting things done quickly as opposed to going through the... I don’t... I’m not a fan of great detail.” (Hotelier H)

The unpredictability of the hospitality product forms a base upon which the hoteliers enact their job roles. This is indicative of effectual logic (embracing unpredictability) forming a solid foundation for causal processes (predictable outcomes). The difficulty in controlling elements of their product and the need to rely on the individual production of frontline staff means that the myriad choices and preferences that populate their decision making landscape are rarely considered with long term consequences in mind, the means are central to their approach and what resources they have in their immediate surroundings are deployed to their maximum potential and the degree of uncertainty experienced (Knight, 1921) is mitigated by their ability to use narratives to frame uncertainty as an opportunity for creativity rather than an obstacle.

A mind-set of going against the grain is prominent:

> “As you evolve through the years and through the business you start thinking well wait a minute - well yes this may have worked for the last 50 years but I know of another way to do it.” (Hotelier H)

Faced with a panoply of choices and a continuous state of unpredictability, ‘the grain’, as such, is often difficult to read in itself and part of the skill of the hotelier is in trying to discern the direction of the grain and then embracing the uncertainty and creating the future in a way that changes the direction of the grain to suit the organisation. Hoteliers report that new beginnings and opportunities to create value emerge from going against the grain or taking the ‘leap of faith’. It would seem that often the grain is not understood until action has been taken and it is retrospectively considered to have been a different direction from the majority. Acting in this manner demonstrates that strategic direction is not necessarily borne out of attempting to be different, rather it is what seems ‘right’ for the particular set of outlooks for the individual and their people at that particular time. In relation to this mind-set, the hoteliers in collaboration with their team carve out the direction of the organisation based on what resources they have and what limitations they perceive. Preferences, predictions and consequences are abstract and rationalised in proportion to real outcomes rather than being strategically considered ex ante.

The organic nature of human action and the intersubjective organisational reality that exists among members of the hospitality industry, as articulated by the hoteliers, means that opportunities emerge from the network of human actions that drive the business at all levels. Relationships are organic processes and the consequences of interactions and what these interactions represent at a wider level iteratively create new direction at every occurrence. This leads to the individuals who are in control of the organisation to step back to an extent and allow this process to flourish and precipitate innovation, creativity and value. Hoteliers are conscious not to inhibit this process as it allows the organisation to develop its own inimitable identity and the core value of the hospitality product is intrinsically subsumed within that culture.

Creativity is fuelled by genuine passion for the industry, this inspires and motivates employees. Passion for the history of the industry and the sentiments that centre on providing sincere service allow the sense of empathy discussed above to be disseminated further to team members, it also allows strategic direction to be seen as empathetic to the role being performed by the majority of employees.

Strategic direction is not without goals amongst hoteliers. Leaders have long term goals and short terms goals. They have aspirations, expectations, hopes and dreams. Leading a group of followers headlong towards the horizon is not something hoteliers do; however, they may identify broad strategic goals that they wish drive towards. These goals are subject to daily drift as events take place, circumstance intervenes and the changing environment throws the organisation and the leader’s vision off course. Hoteliers enact two processes as they move along the theoretical strategic path. First, they persevere; continuing to commit in spite of unforeseen events that alter their course because persevering is all they can do based on being informed by their background, their network and their previous experiences. Second, they are creative within this process, they look to consider contingencies from consequences of unforeseen events in a positive light and, thus, can capitalise on them rather than be downhearted. The second element of the mind-set involves luck or serendipity and hoteliers are cognisant of its impacts but, also, note that luck is subjective to the individual and is only considered to be luck after the event. Luck is usually always first appraised as a 'problem'. Thus, it takes an individual who trusts themselves and is willing to persevere who can be reflected on as a creative individual.

9.2.3 Bias to Action

The following points were identified in the thematic analysis as being themes that relate to bias to action in the role of hotelier: you get nowhere without belief and perseverance; innovation is how each day should be lived; and being lean, agile and adaptable is a key characteristic.

Aside from their day to day roles, all respondents made a point of articulating what their philosophy of business is and what 'makes them tick' as individuals. Passion for the industry oozes from the extracts discussed in this chapter, passion that is embedded in these leaders from childhood and has been invested in everything they have done since. The overarching characteristic is a bias to action. The default position of the hoteliers is to be eager to move and willing to embrace change. There emerges a real care for the 'people side' of the hotel industry, an awareness of the product being in and of itself manufactured by the human spirit and this requires dynamic bias to action to ensure relationships are maintained. The notion of hospitality permeating everything they do is a hallmark of the strength of the background influences discussed in section 8.3 and it is notable that the same sentiment informs how they approach their role despite hospitality, as such, not necessarily being integral to their personal success. There is a clear sense of place and community both in the importance placed on people within their organisations and in the discussions of the business and how it impacts on its local environment. The sense of hospitableness drives a bias to action.

The focus on the human element of the industry articulates three key constituent elements concerned with successful operation in the contemporary hotel environment: owners, employees and customers. By applying the elements described by Sarasvathy (2008) that relate to the importance of network and partnerships, it is apparent that these individuals' appreciation of the value of people shapes the outlook they have on both their own roles and the industry at large. The idea of chemistry of the partnership rather than the perceived outcomes sits comfortably with the intangible hospitality focus that many of the participants retain. The fit of the individuals, whether that be of staff with the company or customers with the staff, is the single most important element of the networks that exist in relation to the leader and their organisation: "action succeeds planning" as noted by Sarasvathy (2008, p. 111), this is echoed in several respondents' approach:

> "We don't sell food and beds. We sell relationships; we sell building relationships first and foremost and everything begins with that." (Hotelier K)

This resonates with the entrepreneurship literature of 'finding a way' or 'making it happen' and creating opportunities by being effectual in one's approach as is defined by Sarasvathy (Sarasvathy, 2004b, 2008; Sarasvathy et al., 2005a). However, what this also suggests is that this ability is learned through other contexts, and this notion of 'just doing something' creates a sense of deliberate, strategic, and causal control. A bias to action, therefore, combines a sense of the effectual (utilising extant resources and relationships), with the appearance of being causal (doing this will get us that).

The importance of the human element of the hotel business must not be overlooked in these discussions. Respondents regard their industry as a people industry and, indeed, operate with multiple partners. Sarasvathy (2008, p. 91) notes that effectuation is primarily concerned with the controllable elements of an uncontrollable or uncertain future, “To the extent we can predict the future, we can control it.” She goes on to say that this logic is particularly pertinent when human action is central to the emergent future.

> “In my opinion, the new core competency is to be able to communicate with the employees and ask them to participate in this new endeavour. You get out there and you tell them your story and get them to relate to it and believe in it.” (Hotelier K)

The role of human action is abundantly evident in both the industry the respondents operate within and the immediate environment they occupy. The philosophy of their role is, therefore, bound with the people they deal with and is underpinned by a belief in the power of human action and the creativity that emerges from exchanges:

> “Focus on people, forget everything you learned in the past, create a hotel from scratch, make it reflective of its environment; make it friendly to its locale, to its community. Take care of its customers and of its staff, and it will succeed. You will be hard pressed not to succeed. It is a sound formula.
>
> It is about relationships with people – because you are dealing with people – what we really sell is experiences and we sell relationships.” (Hotelier H)

The hoteliers form narratives around their actions that are also the substance of their actions. The narratives that are presented to describe their bias to action and interest in developing relationships and ensuring others feel verified and empowered is enacted through narrative, which allows the shared construction of meaning, according to Boyce (1996).

9.2.4 Verification of others

The following points were identified in the thematic analysis as being themes that relate to the verification of others in the role of hotelier: empathy is essential for understanding the industry structure, too, in terms of owners, staff and customers; success and direction emerges from the relationships that exist throughout the company with: owners, staff and customers; political manoeuvring is central to the successful creativity and exploitation of opportunities.

Reference to the hospitality industry, the nature of the product and the structure of organisations that operate within the industry led to an overall impression of an environment in perpetual flux. There are obvious hallmarks of the dynamism of the hoteliers' childhood and early experiences in an industry context that exhibits constant change. Strategic direction is espoused in an emergent way; the focus of discussion never strays too far beyond discussing ways in which their team can disseminate a culture that ensures consistent and hospitable production of the product. The issues that travel upstream to management mean that the hoteliers are faced with day to day issues that require action with quick thinking and an accepted risk of making the wrong call with regard to the reactions of individual guests or even market segments. The service product is simple, it is rationalised as requiring only an empathetic and caring person who has the intelligence to understand another's needs and cater for the these needs. However, there is a dichotomous undertone to leadership of this product: it is simple in theory and infinitely complex in practice as the consistency with which it is delivered is challenging to manage.

The dichotomy is taken a step further by another aspect of being an hotelier, namely that it is futile to impose too much upon the employees. Although managing a service orientated business that is driven by human interaction, that same interaction has to be natural and come from within. Therefore, hoteliers are conscious of allowing the culture within their organisation to develop its identity through the individuals that collectively form its workforce rather than senior people imposing a way of thinking upon them. The emergence of the hotelier's role is both abstracted and co-created in this sense, it is in essence 'not leading' yet the collective direction the entire organisation takes is ultimately stronger as it is formed based upon a dynamic lattice of relationships. This dynamic lattice creates an emergent strategic direction and the hotelier tweaks and manipulates the narratives that frame it as they see fit along the way. Again, we find the mutual deployment of causal and effectual logics in process.

Tweaking and manipulating is an accepted part of leadership in the hospitality industry. Not able to look far enough ‘ahead of the game’, hoteliers concentrate on ‘playing the game’. Playing the game forms a central element to leaders’ roles because the dynamic environment calls for short-term decisions to be made that serve to solve immediate problems often through relationships using resources at the disposal of an individual within the hotelier’s network. These actions take the form of political-style operating and resonate as treading water, staying afloat, keeping the wolf from the door and other such phrases. Collectively however, they reiterate the notion of an emergent environment that requires an emergent approach to leading.

The structure of the macro environment and the relationship of the organisation with the environment is something leaders are perpetually aware of; negotiating between ownership (which could be from an individual or a conglomerate or shareholders), control and then delivery of the product by potentially thousands of subordinates makes the position of the hotelier crucial. Their position is somewhat in the middle, despite being the controlling figure with strategic agency, they are aware of the lack of control they have over frontline delivery and the challenge they have of communicating strategic direction to ownership since so much of that direction is emergent, as has been discussed. Even among hoteliers who are owners themselves, the guidance of the business in a strategic direction is a collectively discerned process with a great deal of flexibility for change. The leader is, therefore, the interface amongst all these forces, and these forces take the form of being both tangible and strategically measurable (such as room occupancy percentage and yield per square meter of property), and soft and intangible (such as the feelings of staff and how the identity of the brand is accepted by customers).

It has already been articulated that hoteliers rely squarely on the large numbers of staff that form both the organisation and the product. Understanding the workforce and empowering the individuals within to deliver an appropriate and valuable service is the central element of the empathy of the hotelier. Leaving them to get on with the job does not do justice to the manner in which hoteliers empathise with and consequently deal with their team members. The need to empathise sincerely with team members is essential as the product itself is delivered on the frontline through empathy and understanding. Without a culture of empathy the service product is devalued. Empathy is described by leaders as being a skill as much as it is a disposition and the reflexive acknowledgement of life experiences allows an ability to empathise with others to be recognised and honed as a personal competency. Empathy not only engenders this intersubjective, co-created service product, it can also lead to the identification of opportunities as team members are allowed to share thoughts, ideas and issues that can lead to value creation. The fact that hoteliers involve themselves with this process allows such exchanges to be interpreted and used in a positive manner. This is driven by verification meaning people are empowered to be proactive.

Creation, imagination and embracing uncertainty can be summarised as follows:

- Having a zest for life and passion for the industry can be infectious for employees
- Leaders need to be creative and adaptive like entrepreneurs
- Creative leaders create competitive advantage
- Carving out the future through immediate resources is central to success
- Accepting multiple dynamic options and outcomes creates comfort in embracing the unpredictable and taking the leap of faith
- Empathy with those around you makes risk and uncertainty seem less threatening

9.3 Effectuation

The evidence for effectuation is most clearly and immediately illustrated through direct quotation and analysis. The following quotations give a brief indication of effectual reasoning operating a personal narrative:

> “I think we have been more of a risk taker than anybody else…I do it freely.” (Hotelier B)

Here we find the first half of this statement embodying the exploratory logic of effectuation: rather than seeking to predict the future through cuts, like competitors, the hotelier eschews the security of such causal reasoning, instead fully embracing opportunities as they are presented. At the same time, we see causal logic being referenced in a sense in the final sentence, as the hotelier describes a chain of cause and effect, whereby success or failure is predictable perhaps at a meta-level but the uncertainty cannot be broken down into clear objectives or understood in terms of predictable outcomes. This references the idea of decisions being ‘non-teleological’ as described by Sarasvathy (2003). The following quotation distils the idea of effectual logic into two short sentences:

> “So, to survive you’ve got to think of quick ways of getting where you want to get to. So, it’s about trying to think as much about immediate solutions.” (Hotelier H)

The relationship of employing particular strategies of survival to get “where you want to get to” is clearly one of cause and effect, whilst the apparently required immediacy of solutions draws in the effectual element of embracing surprise and working from what is immediately available. A further example:

> The other thing is to have a very, very lateral mind so you hear about something and you actually think “how can I use that in my business?” So, I met a woman at a conference, she works for xxx, you know, so you think xxx our hotels, “ok, nice to meet you”. Actually how could we work with her? (Hotelier G)

Here, we find the effectual strategy of creating partnerships and sharing information and knowledge combined with the cause and effect logic of an ‘if…then’ statement.

This gives an idea of the dynamics that exist between causal and effectual logics in the processes central to enacting the role of hotelier. The strong presence of opportunity seeking presented as an emergent theme in Chapter 7 is framed here as something that is done speculatively and creatively through interactions and personal networks (Polanyi, 1957; Sarasvathy, 2000), but also strategically developed and formalised (Moroz and Hindle, 20102). The next section explores these processes as they pertain to personal narratives, asserting the interaction of causal and effectual logics within the action-based themes discerned in Chapter 7.

9.4 Harnessing Narratives

This section explores further how the effectual logic is used around positive narratives, constructed to inform action. The areas that are referred to were drawn out of the NVivo coding structures and related thematically to the literature, specifically that of the entrepreneurial process. These areas are namely: playing the game; opportunity seeking; coping with uncertainty; and understanding proximate resources. Following the previous chapter’s presentation of the backgrounds and experiences cited as important to their formation, this section examines their outlooks as individuals in positions of influence. It finds the respondents to operate more as entrepreneurs following the entrepreneurial process as described by Sarasvathy (2008), Dew, Read, Sarasvathy, and Wiltbank (2009) and Moroz and Hindle (2012) rather than leaders. They establish advantageous positions through situational manipulation, capitalising on a strong network, and drawing on past experiences to steer the ship through the uncertainty of running a business. The leadership literature is drawn upon to contextualise the conclusions that are found; specifically these conclusions challenge the idea that the activities hoteliers engage in on a daily basis relate to the enactment of inspiration, narcissism, transformation, and charisma. Hoteliers are found to have a means orientation rather than a goal orientation (Sarasvathy, 2008) and are engaged in the actions like entrepreneurs, demonstrating that a purposefully positive narrative instrument is used to both define oneself as a hotelier and enact that role.

All but one of the respondents referred to "playing the game". The one who did not explicitly articulate "playing the game" made reference to "always being aware of the politics in the background of a situation". The basis upon which playing the game is engaged is manipulation of surroundings; understanding the means to an end and what a particular situation can yield for the individual and the business. This stands slightly at odds with the notion of leadership. The entrepreneur will understand the politics, manipulations, and the need to arbitrate and negotiate between parties in order to gain a result. What these leaders do is identify what needs to be done in order to get ahead.

Anecdotes of when game playing had been an element recalled as useful when growing up were common. Entrepreneurs will have developed the skill in manipulating from a young age, just as these leaders have demonstrated, cultivating an awareness of how they will be seen as hard workers or as considerate by making the circumstances reflect that. Even within stories of the leaders ensuring they made a good impression on those that they knew could further their career it is evident that thoughtlessly following a vision may be an admirable sentiment but the reality is that part of any individual in a leading position's outlook is explicitly concerned with the furthering of the self. This sits rather comfortably with the enactment of entrepreneurial qualities and how they are described by the literature both as entrepreneurial leaders Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and human interactionists (Polanyi, 2001).

> "Someone said to me "oh you're very young to know how to play the game". And I was like "what do you mean, play the game?" But kind of when I think about it, in a way, I think throughout my whole career I was very, very good at playing the game and I knew exactly which way my bread was buttered, as it were." (Hotelier L)

Knowing who to please and how to get on is an indication of acting as a successful interface to create opportunities from human interactions both at an individual level and for the organisation. Opportunity seeking is a central part of the function of an entrepreneur. Opportunity seeking and opportunity itself was a topic of discussion addressed by all the participants. Opportunities were things that the leaders were always on the lookout for, recalling times when they had seen opportunities for themselves either in terms of careers or in terms of making them appear in a more positive light. Opportunities were articulated as being manifest in the following manner: staff development; career move; business acquisition; loss, change or failure; new ventures; and surplus or economy of scope.

Such discussion of opportunities at first seemed natural as it is the hotelier's job to grow the business; indeed, several of the respondents were, in fact, business owners themselves. However, the continual references to opportunities coupled with the discussion of "game playing" revealed a more entrepreneurial element to what these leaders actually do. They have a natural flair or desire to seek opportunities, to be creative and innovate. Several leaders expressed a desire to be innovative and be seen to be moving either with or ahead of the times.

Being at the coal face, as it were, and consistently working hard to have the knowledge and expertise to both recognise and exploit opportunities is described rather passionately by several respondents, dismissing the classic notion of a leader courting key account customers or playing the role of host. Opportunity seeking is constantly on the radar of these individuals and they are willing to take risks and make mistakes and learn from these mistakes if they need to, but they are not afraid to make mistakes. Along with the lack of fear of making mistakes, participants also discuss the propensity to bear risk and uncertainty, a commonly discussed action of an entrepreneur. Much of the risk and uncertainty literature would state that the willingness to burden risk and uncertainty is one of the main defining actionable traits of an entrepreneur and this willingness is driven by a passion for the profession (Cardon et al., 2005).

> "It's too easy to just arse about in the lobby talking to customers, which is important, don't get me wrong, but it's not the only thing. You've got to run

> the business as well; you can't shy away from the difficult decisions and uncertainties." (Hotelier I)

> "I like the big company dynamics, but I am entrepreneurial within that." (Hotelier N)

The second quotation squarely illustrates the suggestion made by Schloss (1968) that in the contemporary sense an individual can pursue the activities of an entrepreneur but within the context of a large organisation. These activities still burden the individual with uncertainty but they do so in a different manner from the traditional definition of an entrepreneur.

One of the elements that emerged most strongly from the analysis of data following the first reflective stage was that the participants were keen to acknowledge the influence of the team around them. This plays into the more general acknowledgement by the literature of the ability of entrepreneurs to make their surroundings and circumstances work to their advantage. Some of this ability will be discussed in the next chapters as it relates closely to the upbringing and formational years of the respondents but the continual reference to strong supporting members highlights an awareness of their success as individuals being related to an ability to recognise skill and ability in others. The respondents referred to this within the context of organisational growth, change, and staff development. The significance of this relates to its similarity to the actions of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs are described as individuals who understand the need to capitalise on resources most valuable and available to them (see Dew et al., 2009; Sarasvathy, 2001; Wiltbank et al., 2006). The respondents here insisted upon the recruitment of talented teams that were always better at their given function than the hotelier themselves.

> "I consider myself an extremely fortunate man, because I have assembled a great team of professionals. We have been together, most of us, the vast majority, since 1985, fifteen years now. We have gone through a lot of wars,

> we have had a lot of triumphs, we had a few setbacks. We have grown together and learned together." (Hotelier H)

Further, the respondents focussed on promoting the influence of others. Mentor figures are commonly discussed as having continual influence. These mentor figures are another example of resources that are sought for advantage to the business and to the individual's career. Other resources that are discussed as significant include the company the respondents keep within their wider network. Examples of exploiting access to new technologies to gain advantage and the impact of the circles that they themselves move in are present. Several respondents noted the benefits they enjoyed as a result of keeping particular friends either during university or in relation to the network that particular mentor figures gave them access to.

> "The only way I got interviews was because, again, three people I shared a house with, one of them bought... I'm going back more than 20 years, bought an Apple Mac computer with the desktop publishing and we reconstructed a standard application form on the Mac so we didn't have to fill out all the forms. You just typed one out and in every interview I got they said "you got the interview because we don't know how you constructed that form". Everybody else's was hand written, in those days, on the form. They said, 'that's a real stand out. How did you do that?'" (Hotelier G)

Weick's (1979) study describes the retrospective sense-making of individuals' enactments, navigating a space where there exists apparently multiple options to attend to. Within this space the subjective outlook of the individual determines the choice they make, most likely in the face of seemingly encouraging sources of information and potentially others that would discourage action altogether. Thus, understanding the process of operating within the environment requires acknowledgement of the ambiguity of any given set of choices as noted by Fodor (1983). Between apparently rationale and rational choice and contradictory perceived consequences, the downstream and ongoing results of action are almost impossible to predict and causally link. Therefore, the retrospective rationalisation of actions as

Weick (1979) describes becomes the only tool available to understand the true consequences of actions. The previous example shows a level of sense-making of how success was achieved through network and the lessons from that are acknowledged, internalised and put to further use in the future. The respondents note action sometimes based on apparent reasonable choice informed by market research or other indicators and sometimes completely in the face of conventional wisdom or market trends as seen below:

> "So, some things you've got to do by customer research and some things were done that were truly innovative and you don't really know what is the right thing to do nor whether you really believe in it but you think 'oh, let's just do it.' So, we did some pretty scary things that were risky. And they worked." (Hotelier F)

"Oh let's just do it" indicates the navigation of isotropic elements that are justified as rational after the consequences have yielded a success story, allowing the uncertainty or irrationality to be framed retrospectively as 'risk-taking' or high order vision. As presented here, such decision making is often mixed-in with more rational and simple actions. The same respondents use other language such as "just getting on with it" (Keller et al., 2007). Leaders articulated the power of their team, their network or 'human environment'. The impact of the role was not measured through charisma or other personality traits; it was simply defined through the people they collected around them. This is presented as a collaborative endeavour; Sarasvathy (2008) denotes the three elements of this approach as being a way of coping with multiple rationalities where there is no objectively and environmentally constrained goal nor is it possible to, therefore, orientate a group of people toward this theoretical goal when the 'leader' themselves is not able to fathom its existence, properties or the consequences of 'reaching' it. The three elements depicted by Sarasvathy (2008, p. 78) are: "non-predictive – i.e., not taking the event space for probabilities as given and immutable; non-teleological – i.e., not taking preferences and goals as pre-existent or unchangeable; and, non-adaptive – i.e., not taking the environment as exogenous or as something to respond to and 'fit' with."

If these elements are discussed within the context of responses within this study then the very notion of 'leadership' is fundamentally brought into question. Although the label of leader and leadership remains, understandably, the aspects of the role discussed are analogous with the above quotation from Sarasvathy.

> "Leaders are just natural people wanting to get on with things. But, I think through, either perseverance, through hard work, through luck, through just a bit of knowing who to call to get the right answer to make the right decision plus a bit of guesswork, that's what gets all these people working. And, I enjoy working with them." (Hotelier C)

"Hard work" and "perseverance" sit comfortably within the realms of being non-predictive, non-teleological, and non-adaptive. The very notion of being comfortable with uncertainty relevant to environmental isotropy informs our understanding of "luck", "guesswork" and "knowing who to call". When analysed in this context, the charismatic leader, as even Sarasvathy (2008) describes, is an unlikely precipitator of progress, the negotiation of the effectual space, even as an individual in a leadership role, is achieved through the logic of design rather than goals, vision or choice.

The linking process between hoteliers' antecedent components and their action components is positive reflexivity. Reflexivity has been addressed in the literature to date in acknowledging its existence, even suggesting that elite leaders are more reflexive than less successful individuals (Maclean et al., 2012). In the case of this research, the hoteliers espouse a high level of reflexivity, drawing on multiple experiences from their past and presenting them as key points that they refer to in their present roles. However, following the reflexive analysis process, it is apparent that the reflexivity that the hoteliers engage in is actively positive. The process described is one that represents part of the interface between the field of entrepreneurship and leadership. Current understanding of entrepreneurial leadership presents functional characteristics that have ends-driven objectives. The discussions here draw attention towards the appreciation of the role of harnessing positive narratives through activities that are designed to create opportunities whilst operating in an uncertain and unpredictable environment. The need to reflexively harness effectual means around personal narratives allows hoteliers to present strategic agendas despite being faced with a wide range of uncertainty and an industry landscape that fluidly shifts day by day. Being biased towards action yet committed to interpret challenges constructively, creatively, and positively yields productive and forward-thinking strategies that take challenges in their stride. The positive narratives that are harnessed and continuously applied on a personal level are reinterpreted and applied to provide confidence and a sense of precedence to decision making and strategic thinking to the extent that the unpredictable and uncertain are narrativised in such a way that they seem to become predicable and controllable.

9.5 Conclusion

There is a consistent orientation towards interpreting experiences in a positive way, actively seeking to draw lessons, knowledge or information from experiences whether they, by their nature, are good or bad. There is little difference between the reporting of one's father dying or suffering from the impacts of dyslexia compared with having a sociable and close family unit. 'Problems' are turned to their advantage, being creative about the future and ultimately reflecting on them as fortunate events. The second reflective analysis presented by this chapter establishes the processes through which hoteliers enact their roles, demonstrating the continuous construction of positive narratives that inform the application of effectual logic, framing the central function of harnessing and reflecting positively upon personal narratives in these processes. The concluding chapter draws together the strands of the thesis and highlights entrepreneurship as a viable process which informs leadership in the hotel industry.

10 Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

The outcomes of this thesis show a journey from considering two distinct fields of enquiry that in some areas compete for the same territory to some extent, ultimately showing leadership and entrepreneurship as being complimentary concepts that are mutually reliant on each other. Entrepreneurship requires a sense of leadership in order for it to be carried-through and enacted in a successful manner, and leadership relies on the process of entrepreneurship to *sell* its value and characteristics. Hoteliers construct virtuous personal narratives to use as a means of harnessing experiences and skills in a positive way (Chapter 8) that are used to underpin their confidence in acting effectually (Chapter 2) in the unpredictable industry context (Chapter 4) that they operate in; they marry this with strategic thinking (Chapter 3), defining them as entrepreneurial leaders (Chapter 9). This thesis finds entrepreneurial leadership enacted in unpredictable contexts, and asserts the central function of harnessing personal experiences and creating value from them. This chapter now presents the final reflection on the research by reviewing the aim and research questions, it goes on to discuss the distinct contribution made in relation to each of them. Contributions are presented in relation to theory and management practice, including the published contributions that have emerged from the process. Finally, further research opportunities are outlined.

10.2 Reviewing the Aim and Research Questions

Aim

The principal aim of this research was to explore the role of personal narratives in informing the enactment of entrepreneurship and leadership processes among hoteliers.

Research Questions

- How do hoteliers interpret their personal narratives in a manner that informs the process of enacting roles?
- How do personal narratives mediate understanding of entrepreneurial leadership?
- How do entrepreneurship and leadership interact within the context of the hotel industry?

This thesis has reported on what hoteliers do and, in particular, what processes represent the enactment of the role. From the exploration, clear findings have been demonstrated; these take the form of identifying that hoteliers demonstrate an entrepreneurial leadership process enacted through positively constructed narratives that are harnessed both to reinforce their own confidence in decisions and to allow meaning and sense to be formed among colleagues and employees. As its main research question this thesis asked: What do hoteliers do? The study has established that hoteliers follow an entrepreneurial process that involves the verification of others, a bias to action, a willingness to embrace uncertainty and a creative approach that are all enacted through the harnessing of narratives that affirms any action's value and frames it in a way that others can understand and make sense of. Further, what hoteliers do cannot be fully demonstrated without acknowledging the developmental journey they have taken to see themselves as a hotelier. A process of positively harnessing one's own personal stories is shown to have been used to make sense of one's own journey and is seen as a personal practice ground in which the hoteliers retrospectively seek the positive lessons from past experiences in an attempt to draw upon them in the present. This positively reflexive process is the same process used to construct narrative accounts into which the characteristics of hoteliers' actions are incorporated. The outcomes from the research questions are summarised in Table 10-1 below.

Table 10-1 Reviewing the Research Questions

Question	Developed in Literature	Developed from Data Analysis
How do hoteliers interpret their personal narratives in a manner that informs the process of enacting roles?		Has helped us understand how effectuation is enacted. This is demonstrated to be enacted through positively reflecting on one's life experiences and being biased towards harnessing them as tools for leading the business
How do personal narratives mediate understanding of entrepreneurial leadership?	Comparatively little qualitative work exists in the field and the hotel industry has been generally overlooked by the core entrepreneurship and leadership literatures.	Narratives are used to construct meaning around effectual logic, whereby effectual means can be applied by using the positively constructed narratives as a generative grammar for action.
How do entrepreneurship and leadership interact within the context of the hotel industry?	They are narrative fields by their nature but are scrutinised predominantly in a quantitative manner.	In contexts where there is uncertainty, flux and cyclical emergence, an entrepreneurial framework of leadership is necessary to balance strategy with effectual reasoning.

10.3 Research Contribution

When forming the ideas for this research, it was evident that hospitality and tourism as an area for research enquiry was considered to be a separate silo of research with some forays into its subject matter by the core disciplinary fields in business and management, but not many. There was a sense that within much of the literature that did study hotels and other related industry contexts, this was considered to be a disciplinary field in its own right, without the need for other fields to disturb it with their own theories. That trend seems to be stifled somewhat now, allowing the fertile environment for enquiry that this industry definitely is to be celebrated and better incorporated into the research agenda of many fields. But the prevailing trend at the outset of this study was that, rather often, the studies engaging in 'leadership' or 'entrepreneurship' in hotels were applying the theoretical aspects of these areas in a rudimentary and often prescriptive way, not allowing the industry itself to be showcased properly for its depth of potential for research and also not highlighting what it could offer as a context to other fields of enquiry.

10.3.1 Contribution to Theory

The core contribution to theory made by this thesis is to present positively constructed narratives as a generative grammar in the effectual process. This allows a greater understanding of how means are harnessed effectively. Being able to distinguish between means and ends when it comes to the enactment of one's role is much more challenging when the number of possibilities of outcomes is infinite and each emergent consequence is contingent on the last. The narratives of the participants in this thesis demonstrate a deliberate reduction of the problem space to relate it to proximate means so that any form of decision can be made. Problems are not always specific but are always complex and thus they need to be framed in a way that creates a reference point for action. By its implicit nature, an ends-driven objective has a clear 'problem space' with a specific and measurable set of consequences. However, when we acknowledge the following two things, we must re-address how we consider causal logic in the literature. First, problems are complex and cannot be definitively quantified by potential outcomes. Second, higher order goals can rarely be broken down into specific, measurable actions, which have clear outcomes. Therefore, when there is no objective causal outcome that can be aimed for, it must be acknowledged that there is no objectively identifiable correct answer to a problem, therefore in reality the answer must be constructed through narrative.

Effectuation is argued to be the process by which narrative is harnessed around a complex problem set and by wedding that narrative to the individual, sense is able to be made of the problem in its specific context and give the consequent action a kind of meaning. Thus a generative grammar for action is created: understand yourself and your personal story, proactively seek the positive lessons and strengths that can be gleaned and learned from that story, apply those lessons to your current circumstances, make sense of it subjectively and act accordingly.

This represents the 'how' of effectuation; the literature on effectuation shows its theoretical value and the empirical applied value of the consequences of effectuation, however the principles that represent it do not inform how someone would approach its enactment. This is captured in the emergent process of actions in chapter 9: embrace uncertainty, be creative, be biased towards action and affirm those around you. This set of actions is characterised by the positive approach and narrative structure. Emergent from all of this is the sense that, where causal and ends-driven reasoning is driven by calculable problem space, effectual and means-driven reasoning is driven by virtuous narrative, furthermore it is feasible to suggest that when measurable consequences are absent, there remains only space for narrative to make sense of a problem. In terms of entrepreneurial leadership, the alignment between the dominance of uncertainty and flux in the context studied and the distinction between the leadership and entrepreneurship literature bases being couched in ideas relating to uncertainty and opportunity is apparent. The role entrepreneurship plays in informing the enactment of leadership positions in terms of strategic planning and implementation is to use narrative to make sense of problems and therefore inform effectual action. The contribution to entrepreneurial leadership is therefore to cite the use of virtuous positive narratives as being an indicator of entrepreneurial leadership in the hotel industry.

Beyond the core contribution to theory, contributions to context, method, and practice of entrepreneurship, leadership, and business management are made, ultimately demonstrating the crucial function of personal narratives in the processes, practices, and development of those running hotels. Reflecting upon seemingly small incidents from childhood experiences or, more generally, within family life directly informs managerial and organisational action and reaction in the here and now. Although those interviewed were selected on the basis of being hoteliers, rather than entrepreneurs, leaders, or entrepreneurial leaders, the thesis contributes to these fields of research by providing a qualitative analysis of the development of entrepreneurship and leadership in the specific context of the hotel industry. This resists and challenges attempts to derive from or impose particular characteristics upon leaders and entrepreneurs, finding structural similarities in the stories they tell, rather than in the people they have become.

The hospitality sector provides an environment where immediate feedback is available because production and consumption of the service happen simultaneously; as such it provides an excellent context in which to study leadership and entrepreneurship. This thesis effectual logic working within both the narratives and actions that are shown to drive this industry, implying that the relationship between leadership and entrepreneurship is found in the way in which narrative can be constructed as a personal tool for decision making but also informs a generative grammar by which the path to effectuation is created. Beyond the literature that cites narrative as a powerful tool in itself in both leadership and entrepreneurship, the findings of this thesis highlight that narrative also underpins the enactment of effectual reasoning. In contrast, causal and strategic approaches are not borne out in the findings of this thesis in the manner that was expected. In engaging with the leaders of a global industry who sit at the helm of large organisations, a significant amount of attention towards calculations of risk and strategic analysis would have been expected. This form of discussion was disproportionately lacking in the data collected.

As stated in the introductory chapter, this study contributes to a deeper understanding of issues surrounding the running of hotels in the 21st century, and in doing so offers insights into that foundational issue of socio-economic theory proffered by Smith, that considers the international impact of decisions made in the interests of the individual (Smith 1776). Navigating an industry context that is forever in flux and constantly emerging and being reinterpreted on both sides of the provider and consumer threshold requires the ability to harness a sense of underpinning purpose and capability from a place beyond a text book or operating manual, but simultaneously requires decisions to be embedded and reflected upon so that strategic and purposeful progress may be made. The emergent approach is informed by the reflexive and positive harnessing of personal narratives that provide structure to substance to effectual action.

The contribution to theory subsists in the area of entrepreneurial leadership, which represents the interface between two fields of enquiry, entrepreneurship and leadership. This thesis develops understanding of the complexities between entrepreneurship and leadership by exploring the role of narratives in framing the process of enacting the role of hotelier. Hoteliers draw upon their own personal narratives to positively reinforce their own positions within their organisations and industry.

The thesis contributes to the ongoing discussion of effectual logic in demonstrating the confluence of the ostensible disparaty between causal and effectual logic within the context of hoteliers in their industry. The dialogous, double-helix relationship between causal and effectual logic – a process of effectual reasoning - can lead to seemingly causal ends which precipitate new sets of means which can be reasoned with effectually, so the process continues. This thesis translates this to be represented by the concept of entrepreneurial leadership.

The contribution to the context engaged with here, namely the hotel industry, is to demonstrate the fertile and complex landscape that is presented by it. The importance of context to the study of both entrepreneurship and leadership has been illustrated in the literature discussions in Chapters 2, 3, and 4, yet despite the acknowledged unpredictable and fluxing nature of the industry and the reliance upon simultaneous human production and consumption of intangible products, quantitative means of scrutinising hospitality have been predominantly employed. Thus, implicit within the demonstrated nature of the hotel industry is the need for an appreciation of the qualitative aspects of its character and the application of these in developing understanding of the process that are employed by its practitioners.

This study has contributed to the discussion that presents the need to acknowledge context as something that must be theorised so that context can support theory development in a respective field of study and so that theory can, in turn, be understood in its context. This has been achieved by looking at hoteliers in their context, both the narrative context that exists as a story of them as hoteliers, and the narrative context that they construct as a means of enacting their roles. This study expands what is considered to be context by presenting personal narratives as a relevant resource for the study of leadership and entrepreneurship, as this pervades the personal and professional thresholds that are traditionally constructed in the consideration of how and why people enact roles in the manner that they do.

Given the industry context and the fields of enquiry being considered by this thesis, the application of career history narratives as a method serves to broaden the methodological repertoire that is present in these respective areas, being ones that are underpinned by large, quantitative studies (although that has been redressed in recent years in entrepreneurship and leadership), and ones that tend to be proportionately closed to inter-disciplinary conversation. This method offers a means of narrativising the interface between fields of enquiry such as entrepreneurship and leadership.

The thesis frames narratives as being harnessed and made sense of internally rather than being a tool deployed in interactions with the environment that can be studied; they are internal stories that are constructed as a means to enacting one’s role. The narratives, therefore, are studied as an aspect of the means or resources at the disposal of an individual rather than an end which they wish to use with others. This method, therefore, draws meaning from the stories the individuals tell of themselves to themselves rather than about themselves to others.

The hermeneutical process used involved taking the set of data collected and reflecting upon it in order to draw out significant themes that prevailed throughout.

This set of themes was then presented with its accompanying data; following this, the themes were further reflected upon to draw out further meaning from the narratives. This reinterpreted data was then reflected upon further to access additional meaning and make deeper sense of the narratives in their context, and in relation to the stories of each individual as they were understood to exist beyond what had been presented during the data collection process. This process highlighted the usefulness of qualitative data analysis in its engagement with the individual personality through the researcher and the emergent and loose discursive character of the data collected becomes part of the value of the research rather than a methodological limitation. The researcher is situated as part subject and part object in this sense. This is considered to be a product of the depth and complexity of the data gathered that elucidate aspects of the respondents' roles clearly and more effectively than other methods may achieve.

This method required flexibility and adaptability. The process of collecting data and then analysing it had to be sensitive to the likelihood that certain themes covered may not be cited with great frequency but, in the context of the discursive and dynamic encounters used in this thesis, they may be significant and necessary to analyse in a way that promotes them as being important to the overall findings.

The method used allowed deep and nuanced data to be collected. The process that followed meant that the data was reflected upon and the product of that reflection became a new iteration of the data rather than being considered the same. This meant that further levels of depth and insight could be created. The conclusions drawn are textured and illustrate the often-hidden characteristics of operating at the elite level of business, thus, the method used created the opportunity to make a contribution of this form that was not available to other methods that could have been used.

How are narratives used in the enactment of the role of the hotelier?

According to this study, the apparent overlaps in the literature between entrepreneurship and leadership which are presented in Chapters 2 and 3 are not overlaps that represent a competition of theoretical 'ownership'. What emerges from this study is that although there are overlapping concepts within the literature, the reports of the respondents show entrepreneurship to interact in a dialogous narrative construction that is first built through effectual logic. Effectual logic is deployed through positive reflexivity referring to one's own personal experiences which are, in turn, applied and used to inform actions. This creates a self-reinforcing narrative path decision making to be constructed. Thus, strategic decisions are intimately intermeshed with effectual foundations as the fluxing environment forces this virtuous narrative cycle to perpetuate and continue to harness personal narratives as a foundational response to the ever-changing and unpredictable context.

Although there has been much attention given to context in this study, especially since the very premise of the study is to scrutinise further the theories relating to entrepreneurship and leadership in the context of hotels, and indeed due to the consideration of the personal contexts that the participants came from, it prevails that the processes applied are applied in spite of context. This outcome is offered for two reasons. First, because the process of actively seeking experiences that might underpin the personal affirmation required to go through the developmental journey towards seeing oneself as a hotelier is a process of positively framing any experience irrespective of its characteristics or ostensible nature, it is concluded that the process of applying positive reflexivity is more crucial than the context in which it is applied. Second, the respondents were from a range or organisational backgrounds, some of whom would be defined by the literature as entrepreneurs and some as leaders, others occupied a grey area between the two but, ultimately, the findings were based on themes that emerged from all or the vast majority (minimum 12 out of 14) of respondents, thus the conclusions presented are not allied to any particular context or disciplinary field other than, of course, the overarching context of the hotel industry.

The following publications were published during the completion of this thesis and they were developed using the theoretical discussions relating to the development of research structure and the production of ideas in MacLaren and Hill (2014) and the importance of context and, in particular, the impact of subjective and objective considerations of characteristics of context were considered in the next three published works: MacLaren, Young and Lochrie (2013); MacLaren and Gillies (2010); MacLaren and Purewal (2010).

10.3.2 Contribution to Management Practice

This thesis makes four primary contributions to management practice. First, it suggests that managers may better identify significant episodes of career histories through a continual process of active reflection upon personal narratives. Second, the thesis helps managers see their actions as part of an ongoing dialogue between their own personal stories and effectual reasoning and, as such, encourages managers to keep effectuation in mind as part of strategic processes, and vice versa. Third, it fosters the ability to reframe challenging circumstances or events in a way that presents or allows for the creation of opportunities, thereby making sense of the unpredictable nature of the hotel industry. Fourth, the study presents ways for those who do not identify themselves as entrepreneurs (or as having entrepreneurial skills) to reinterpret their positions in a way that allows opportunities to be created and exploited, e.g. by becoming more reflexive about the manner in which their personal narratives may provide valuable skills and experiences.

Although this study focuses upon hoteliers and the hotel industry, and asserts the importance of context, there is a likely portability to the findings, as well as to the methods employed. As reference to personal narratives guides and frames the actions of hoteliers, so the use of personal narratives (particularly with reference to entrepreneurship and leadership) may be significantly similar or different in other industries. Further research into the use of personal narratives by entrepreneurs, leaders, or senior professionals in other industries would augment and expand the range of theories of entrepreneurial leadership and entrepreneurial method.

10.4 Limitations and Further Research

Issues emerging from the findings of this study relate to context and process when it comes to the scrutiny of bodies of literature such as entrepreneurship and leadership.

Part of the premise of the value of this study is that it explores these fields in a context not widely considered by previous studies looking at the same phenomena. That being said, the context-specific findings have, therefore, not been validated in more traditional contexts for studying entrepreneurship and leadership and remain to be verified in other non-conventional as well as traditional research domains. Despite this, the trajectory of the findings, considering the sample represent *entrepreneurs* and *leaders* in their traditional definitions, suggests that the results of this study merit further investigation of the ideas of positive reflexivity as a narrative tool in enacting the entrepreneurial process and the necessity of becoming a leader to be an entrepreneur.

The results gleaned offer a specific version of the story here, too, since it is from the horse's mouth, so to speak, that the analysis has been conducted. The findings could be analysed in a comparative study with the responses and insights offered by employees in the same organisations as the respondents in this study to corroborate, elaborate and challenge the views espoused by the hoteliers themselves. In short, the study could be scaled across several industries to give clarity to the question of context. It could also be more broadly scoped in terms of data collection to include observational and possibly even participatory work, although as explained in Chapter 5, the access granted for this study was an unusually fortunate step forward in the exposure to the world of business elites in the hotel industry; thus, a natural progression from this would be to seek access that offered even better organisational scope.

Further, to properly demonstrate positive reflexivity in action, a longitudinal study that follows developments as they happen, rather than soliciting reflection, could better elucidate the nature and mechanics of positive reflexivity to better understand how events are viewed at the time and how they are subsequently narrativised by the hoteliers, thus giving an impression of the *story of the story* and how it is worked with, harnessed and then deployed as an organisational tool. Future research should also scrutinise culture as a key variable in order to understand how culture informs the manner in which narratives may be constructed and used. The respondents of this research represented a range of cultural backgrounds and although their discussions presented coherence across the corpus on the themes discussed, there is undoubtedly scope to consider how their cultural backgrounds contribute to the enactment of their roles as hoteliers.

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12 Appendices

12.1 Appendix 2: Findings from the Reflexive Process

Presented here is an example of the use of NVivo to initially organise the data under Core Nodes and Family Nodes as applied by (Carter et al., 2007)

Core Node	Family Node
Communication	
Customers	Close to customer
	Customer loyalty
	Customer service
	Need for customers
Hospitality Industry, state of and vision for	Successful hoteliers
Hospitality Management Education	Problems
	Importance of experience
	Hotel schools
	Curriculum
Hotel Design	
Human element	
Interviewee's Background	Training
	Regrets
	Perseverance
	Interests
	Growing up
	Family
	Experience
	Educational
	Ambition
Management	Competencies
	Difference between leadership and management
	Leadership
	Management
	Entrepreneurship
	Personal style
	Playing the game
	Regrets and lessons
	Respect
	Surrounded by a good team
	World-making

Marketing	Niche
	How to market hotels
	Boutique hotels
Metaphors	Name drops
	Sport
Motivation	Personal
Opportunity Seeking	Uncertainty
Organisational Behaviour	Authority
	Financial
Organisational Change	Skills
	Mission
	Competitive advantage
	Drivers for change
Personal Philosophy	mission and vision
	Mentors
Product	Food and beverage
	House keeping
	Location of hotel
	Relationships
	Retail
	Rooms
	Selling an experience
	Use of hotels
	What is the hotel product
Risk	
Staff	Training
	Supervision
	Know your staff
	Importance
	Development of staff
	Attitude towards staff
Strategic Priorities for the Hospitality Industry	Adaptability
	Brand identity
	Effective strategy
Success Factors	Consistency
	Excellence
	Experience
	Growth
	Knowing your customer
	Non-conformity
	People

	Service

Now the data is reassembled from the in-depth interviews alongside the findings from the literature review chapters. Findings are assembled in tables first by correlating the components of leadership, as established in the previous chapter, with the literature reviewed in Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5. Through reflection, these components are then distilled into short bullet-pointed phrases adapted from the data. These are once more aligned with the literature in a table and then discussed in more detail as a group of components that form the antecedents of being an hotelier and the actions these lead to:

- Background and experience
- Emergent
- Interface between macro and micro environment
- Creativity
- Empathy

Theme	Literature		Components	References
Leadership				
	Dependent on context	Liu, Siu and Shi (2010)		
	Leadership is demonstrated through the leadership process	Jago (1982)	Leadership processes	19
	Strong self-belief in one's abilities, potentially destructive consequences (narcissism)	Kernberg (1967, 1979, 1989)	Narcissism	14
			Narcissism	17
			Narcissism	30
			Self-belief	9
	Ability to influence others	Northouse (2009)	Regrets and lessons	15
	Process-based using relationships to unite people towards a vision (transformational)	Burns (1978)	Surrounded by a good team	57
	Leadership traits exist from a young age/birth	Bernard (1926)	Traits and influences	119
	Informed by strong personal ethics and co-created through relationships (authentic)	Ladkin and Taylor (2010)	Authentic leadership	32
			Ethical leadership	3
	Driving towards a higher order goals that inspires others to follow (charismatic)	Weber (1968)	Charisma	16
	Difficult to measure effectiveness	Boddewyn et al. (1986)	Attitude towards staff	42
	Defined by the nature of the followers	Howell and Shamir (2005)	Development of Staff	10
	Need to understand the history of firms and decision making processes	Morck and Yeung (2007)	Importance	21
	Leadership is a transactional process based on the exchange	Zaccaro (2007)	Training	19

	of reward and desired behaviours			
	Passively allow direction to dictate itself (laissez-faire)	Bass (1985)	Laissez-faire leadership	11
Entrepren-eurship				
	Dynamic, discontinuous process	Bygrave (1993)		
	Defined by personality traits	Jago (1982)	Entrepreneurial traits	26
	Opportunity recognition	Dimov (2011)	Empathy	18
			Experience	64
	Bearing risk and uncertainty within a management position	Cantillon (1732)	Playing the game	45
	Economic interface between landowners and hirelings	Say (1802)		
	Organise efforts, process and raw materials	Shane (2003)		
	Comfortable with uncertainty	Knight (1921)	Regrets	12
	Faced with multiple unknown preferences and consequences	Sarasvathy (2003)		
	Emerges from human action and interaction	Von Mises (1912, 1966)	Know your staff	19
	The architect of creative destruction	Kirzner (1973)	Motivation	14
	Defined by behaviour	Jacobson (1992)	Training	43
	Creating new combinations of business activity	Schumpeter (1934)	Interests	10
	Interaction and intersubjective relationships underpin entrepreneurship	Polanyi (1957)	Human Action	26
			Acting as an interface	56
	Relationships	Dimov (2011)	Family	44
	Markets are created through imagination and creativity	Swedberg (1996)	World-making and creativity	66
	A product of background, identity, and network	Sarasvathy (2003)	Effectuation	23
			Education	61
			Identity	31
	Heroic market figure	Ebner (2005)		

Hospitality industry	Different depending on social and religious level of analysis	Park (1994)	Leadership adaptability	9
	Globalised and formalised, need for effective leadership	Karetape, Yorganci and Haktanir (2009)	Effective strategy	19
	Frontline emotional issues created by corporate size that alienates employees	Hoschild (1983)	Understanding and working with the front line	9
			House keeping	3
			Rooms	14
	Need for environmental awareness	Elliot-Spivack (1990)	Environmental management	7
	Based on personal relationships	Si (2010)	Relationships	22
	Sincere and hospitable experiences	Kramer (2006)	Selling an experience	29
	Success is in micro interactions	Danziger	Managing micro issues on the frontline	15
	Commoditised in the contemporary economy	Olsen and Connolly (2000)	Retail	13
	The past is alive in the present and the history of the industry must be acknowledged	Pettigrew (1992)	What is the hotel product	13
	Not enough talent capable of coping with changing environment	Scottish Enterprise (2010)	Importance of education	15
			Need for leadership education	11
	Leadership in hospitality is poorly understood	Zopiatis and Constanti (2010)	Industry development	29

	Need for understanding of sector-specific leadership	Cutler (2011)	Need effective leadership	14
	Effective leadership a catalytic element	Knable (2002)		
	Cross-cultural issues	Selwyn (2000)	International and multicultural awareness	15
	Leaders bridge the gap between corporate duties and giving the company a 'host' figure	Hilton (1957)	Leader as host	9
	At constant dynamic risk from macro environment	Paraskevas (2006)	The macro environment	13
			Excellence and innovation	24
	Corporate design around customer needs	West and Purvis (1992)	Close to customer	3
			Need for Customers	13
	People are the key element	Moutinho et al. (1995)	Customer loyalty	7
	Hotel companies need to create a sense of personality	Walsh et al. (1988)	Customer service	22
			Knowing your customer	34
	Historically underpinned by a phenomenon fundamental to human interaction	O'Gorman (2008)	Acknowledging where the industry has come from	65
	The fabric of ordered civilisation	Lugosi (2007, 2008)		
	Hospitality permeates all aspects of day to day life	Derrida (2008)		
	Barriers of entry to skilled and educated workers	Martin, Mactaggart and Bowden (2006)	Problems	6
	Impersonal financial exchange in the modern industry	Wood (1994)		
	Need for effective leadership	Cutler (2011)	Importance of experience	8

	Provide authentic hospitality	Hoplamazian (2011)		
	Language is part of the fabric of social life	Friese (2004)		
	Facilitates moral, physical, spiritual, and material wellbeing	Lashley and Morrison (2003)		
	Intermeshed with the development of the contemporary economy	Rutes and Penner (1985)		

Literature		Analysis of data	
Leadership	• Dependent on context • Leadership is demonstrated through the leadership process • Leadership traits exist from a young age/birth • Strong self-belief in one's abilities, potentially destructive consequences (narcissism) • Informed by strong personal ethics and co-created through relationships (authentic) • Process-based using relationships to unite people towards a vision (transformational) • Driving towards a higher order goals that inspires others to follow	What is leadership	• Approaches to leadership should be driven by empathy and understanding of those around you • Leadership is enacted through mutual respect and ultimate interest in the wellbeing of those you deal with • Leadership is an emergent process • Self-belief and confidence drive decision making ability • Making mistakes, learning from them and allowing that to inform the future is a large part of leadership • You are only as good as the people you choose to put around you • Early life, education and family influence personal outlook and approaches • Trusting oneself is central to deploying one's duties as leader

	(charismatic)	Personal philosophy	• Sincerely developing relationship that produce effective action • Having a zest for life and passion for the industry can be infectious for employees
		Metaphors	• Being prepared to acknowledge the positive influence one has • Leaders need to be creative and adaptive like entrepreneurs
	• Ability to influence others • Difficult to measure effectiveness • Defined by the nature of the followers • Need to understand the history of firms and decision making processes • Leadership is a transactional process based on the exchange of reward and desired behaviours • Passively allow direction to dictate itself (laissez-faire)	Vision for the future	• Empowering and understanding the power of staff as a secret weapon is essential
		Staff	• Staff need to be trained, verified, supported and listened to • Creative leaders create competitive advantage
		Organisa-tional	• Allowing opportunities and potential to emerge from the human dynamics is as important as being interactive • You get nowhere without belief and perseverance • A leader needs to act as the interface between ownership, control and subordinates

Entrepren- eurship	• Dynamic, discontinuous process • Defined by personality traits • Economic interface between landowners and hirelings • Organise efforts, process and raw materials • Emerges from human action and interaction	Interview- ee's background	• Educational background informs approach to actions • Leaders are aware and exercise entrepreneurial traits • Experience is a significant element in success • Family background forms the foundation for being able to deal with people and challenges • Identity informs how and why decisions are made for the organisations • Interests inform identity • Regrets create lessons that inform action
		Opportunity seeking	• Understanding your staff leads to opportunities • Opportunities can be exploited through perseverance and the encouragement of the network • The emergence and unpredictability of human action creates organic opportunities
	• Opportunity recognition • Bearing risk and uncertainty within a management position • Faced with multiple unknown preferences and consequences • Markets are created through imagination and creativity • A product of background, identity, and network	Opportunity exploitation	• Political manoeuvring is central to the successful creativity and exploitation of opportunities • Accepting multiple dynamic options and outcomes creates comfort in embracing the unpredictable and taking the leap of faith
		Risk and uncertainty	• Empathy with those around you makes risk and uncertainty seem less threatening • Carving out the future through immediate resources is central to success • Being lean, agile and adaptable is a key characteristic

The hotel industry in general	• Leaders bridge the gap between corporate duties and giving the company a ‘host’ figure • Frontline emotional issues created by corporate size that alienates employees • Based on personal relationships • People are the key element • Barriers of entry to skilled and educated workers • Cross-cultural issues	Strategic priorities	• Effective strategy informs leadership • Connectivity with the lowest paid members of the business is essential
		Product	• Success and direction emerges from the relationships that exist throughout the company with: owners, staff and customers • The intangibility of the product must be at the core of what they do • The space must sell the experience and the interactions • Education of staff is key
		Education for the industry	• Education and experience in leadership is required for the leaders of tomorrow and future empowerment • International and multicultural awareness is necessary
	• Frontline emotional issues created by corporate size that alienates employees • The past is alive in the present and the history of the industry must be	Success factors	• Innovation is how each day should be lived • Knowing the history and tradition upon which the industry is founded informs approaches to uncertainty and choices • Empathy with the customer is core to the experience product • Going against the grain allows advantage to be gained and often

	acknowledged • Hotel companies need to create a sense of personality • Need for understanding of sector-specific leadership		opportunities to be exploited • The leader must act as host to all
	• Globalised and formalised, need for effective leadership • At constant dynamic risk from macro environment • At constant dynamic risk from macro environment • Hospitality permeates all aspects of day to day life • People are the key element • Facilitates moral, physical, spiritual, and material wellbeing • Provide authentic hospitality • Need for effective leadership	Marketing	• Contextualising activities within the broader economy is important • Customer empathy underpins the entire service product. • Empathy is essential for understanding the industry structure too in terms of owners, staff and customers