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**Strategic Leadership in UK Business Schools
in Higher Education**

by

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**A thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

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Table of Contents

ABSTRACT	xix
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1
Overview	1
Research Background	2
The Academic and Policy Background of Higher Education.....	3
Personal and Professional Background	5
Thesis Summary.....	7
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW	10
Introduction	10
Higher Education in the United Kingdom	11
University Categories	11
Models of University Cultures	14
Business Schools in the UK.....	17
The Rise of UK Business Schools	18
Models of UK Business Schools.....	18
UK Business School Cultures.....	20
Academic Norms within UK Business Schools.....	22
Accreditation	22
Rankings.....	23
Research Assessments	24
Complications within the Business School Sector.....	25
The US Scene	25
The UK Scene.....	26
UK Higher Education and Marketization.....	28
Finances of UK Business Schools	29
Management and Leadership	35

Management in UK Higher Education	37
Lean Management in Higher Education	37
Leadership in UK Higher Education	41
Leadership Theories	41
Trait Theories	42
Behavioural Theories	43
Contingency Theories	44
Social Exchange Theories	45
Other Leadership Theories	46
Distributed Leadership	47
Departmental Leadership.....	53
Strategic Leadership	56
Strategic Staff Development	57
Strategic Leadership as a Process	59
Strategic Financial Leadership.....	59
Conclusion	60
Research Questions.....	61
Research Aims.....	62
CHAPTER III: RESEARCH STRATEGY AND METHODOLOGY	64
Introduction	64
Research Paradigms	67
Research Design	71
Credibility	73
Transferability	75
Dependability	76
Confirmability	76
Qualitative Interviewing as an Approach	77
Data Collection Methods	78
Face-to-face Interviewing.....	80

Telephone Interviewing	81
Email Interviewing	82
Pilot Study	86
Learning from Pilot Study	87
Main Study	88
Sampling Strategy	88
Participants.....	90
Change of Research Approach.....	92
Lessons from Interviewing Methods.....	93
Ethical Considerations.....	94
Data Analysis	95
Conceptual Framework	96
Diagram of Theoretical Concepts	98
Analysis Tool.....	101
Thematic Analysis.....	102
Analysis Process	104
1) Familiarisation with the Data.....	105
2) Generating Initial Codes.....	106
3) Searching for Themes.....	109
4) Reviewing Themes.....	117
5) Defining and Naming Themes	122
6) Producing the Report.....	125
CHAPTER IV: LEADERSHIP THEME.....	126
Introduction	126
Participants' and institutions' profiles.....	128
Basic Map of Main Theme.....	129
Leadership Theme	130

Appropriate Leadership Code	132
Shared Vision Code.....	144
Overall Goals Code	146
Summary	148
CHAPTER V: HUMAN CAPITAL, SOCIAL CAPITAL, ORGANISATIONAL CAPITAL AND INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL THEMES	150
Introduction	151
Basic Map of Main Themes	156
Human Capital Theme	160
Human Capital Code	161
Staff Management Code	163
Social Capital Theme	171
Social Capital Code.....	172
Industry Linkages Code.....	176
Advisory Board Code.....	178
Accreditation Code.....	181
Ranking Code.....	183
Organisational Capital Theme	186
Organisational Capital Code.....	187
Supportive Environment Code.....	189
Intellectual Capital Theme	192
Creativity and Innovation Code	193
Quality of Output Code	195
Summary	199
CHAPTER VI: FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY THEME.....	201
Introduction	201
Basic Map of Main Theme.....	202
Financial Sustainability Theme.....	203

Income Sources Code	205
Strategies and Tactics Code	209
Fundraising Code	218
Summary	223
CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	225
Introduction	225
Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness	226
Perceived Links between Units and Components	228
Primary Unit.....	228
Management Unit.....	234
Forward Unit.....	243
Summary	251
CHAPTER VIII: CONCLUSION, CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	
.....	252
Introduction	252
Addressing Research Questions and Aims.....	253
Main Question.....	253
Sub-questions	254
Research Aims	257
Human Capital – The Core of Business Schools.....	259
Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness.....	261
Contributions to Literature	265
Leadership Literature	265
Academics as Leaders Literature	267
Sharing Vision in Universities Literature.....	268
Contribution to Practice	269
Implications.....	271
Implications for Thailand’s Higher Education Institutions and Business Schools	
.....	272

Implications for the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC)	274
Limitations	277
Personal Bias.....	279
Future Research.....	280
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	282
APPENDICES.....	303
Appendix I: Invitation Email	303
Appendix II: Participant Information Sheet	305
Appendix III: Consent Form.....	309
Appendix IV: Acceptance Email	310
Appendix V: Interview Protocol and Question Guide.....	321
Appendix VI: Examples of Interview Transcripts.....	324
Charles, Business School G	324
Henry, Business School A	345
Catherine, Business School F	367
Emma, Business School L	383
Johnny, Business School M.....	391
Appendix VII: Main Study Interview Sessions.....	397
Appendix VIII: Main Study Interview Timeline	398

Table of Figures

Figure 1: Models of universities as organisations (Source: McNay, 1995, p.106)	15
Figure 2: Business schools' financial sources and their uses of funds (Source: D'Alessio & Avolio, 2011, p. 28).....	30
Figure 3: Interactive model of research design (Source: Maxwell, 2008, p. 217)	72
Figure 4: The conceptual framework	96
Figure 5: Diagram of theoretical concepts exhibiting the components of effective strategic leadership in UK business schools	99
Figure 6: Thematic analysis stages (Source: Braun & Clarke, 2006).....	105
Figure 7: List of important deductive codes.....	113
Figure 8: List of important inductive codes	114
Figure 9: List of potential themes	115
Figure 10: Initial thematic map	116
Figure 11: Comparison between the potential themes and the refined potential themes	118
Figure 12: Developed thematic map	121
Figure 13: Final thematic map.....	124
Figure 14: Map of leadership theme	130
Figure 15: Outline of codes and sources for leadership theme	131
Figure 16: Map of human capital, social capital, organisational capital and intellectual capital themes	157
Figure 17: Outline of codes and sources for human capital, social capital, organisational capital and intellectual capital themes.....	158
Figure 18: Map of financial sustainability theme	202
Figure 19: Outline of codes and sources for financial sustainability theme	203
Figure 20: Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness for UK business schools	227
Figure 21: Primary Unit	229
Figure 22: Sources of perceived links from Primary Unit	230
Figure 23: Management Unit	235
Figure 24: Sources of perceived links from Management Unit	236
Figure 25: Forward Unit.....	244
Figure 26: Sources of perceived links from Forward Unit	245

List of Tables

Table 1: Types of UK business schools and examples (Source: Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011)	20
Table 2: Models of business school management cultures (Adapted from: McNay, 1995; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011)	20
Table 3: Top ten universities with largest endowments in the UK and the US (Source: Sutton Trust, 2006)	31
Table 4: Functions of management and leadership (Source: Kotter 1990, p. 3-8, as cited in Northouse, 2007, p. 10)	35
Table 5: Summary of pros and cons of interviewing methods.....	86
Table 6: FT Global MBA Rankings 2010 (Source: Financial Times, 2010)	89
Table 7: Number of participants from each institution, by business school type.....	91
Table 8: List of institutions, participants and interviewing methods.....	92
Table 9: List of initial codes.....	109
Table 10: Participants' and institutions' profile	128
Table 11: Summary of key points for each code in leadership theme	132
Table 12: Summary of key points for each code in human capital theme	161
Table 13: Summary of key points for each code in social capital theme.....	172
Table 14: Summary of key points for each code in organisational capital theme....	186
Table 15: Summary of key points for each code in intellectual capital theme	193
Table 16: Summary of key points for each code in financial sustainability theme ..	205

Abbreviations

AACSB	Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business
AAPBS	Association of Asia-Pacific Business Schools
ABS	Association of Business Schools
AEC	ASEAN Economic Community
AMBA	Association of MBAs
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CAQDAS	Computer Assisted/Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software
DBA	Doctor of Business Administration
EFMD	European Foundation for Management Development
EQUIS	European Quality Improvement System
FT	Financial Times
FTF	Face-to-face
HE	Higher education
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England
HEFCW	Higher Education Funding Council for Wales
HEIs	Higher education institutions
IMD	International Institute for Management Development
INSEAD	Institut Européen d'Administration des Affaires
LHE	Lean Higher Education
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
REF	Research Excellence Framework
RYLA	Rotary Youth Leadership Awards
SFC	Scottish Funding Council
USITC	United States International Trade Commission

ABSTRACT

Navigating the emerging crisis in UK higher education, with funding cuts, decreasing numbers of academics and mimetic pressures caused by academic norms, is a challenge for UK business schools. This study aimed to identify UK business school leaders' perspectives on factors contributing to competitiveness and financial sustainability in this context.

For this exploratory, qualitative study 21 leaders from 12 UK business schools in the Financial Times Global MBA Rankings (2010) were interviewed by email, by telephone or face-to-face. Interview transcripts were analysed using NVivo8 and thematic analysis, adopting a hybrid approach of deductive coding based on a theoretical framework and inductive coding for emerging themes.

A Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness was created to illustrate links between components of strategic leadership identified by participants in this study. It shows a potential virtuous circle of competitiveness and financial sustainability that UK business schools could achieve. These leaders perceived that competitiveness and financial sustainability could be achieved by using leadership and income sources to improve human capital, which could also be enhanced by itself and by organisational capital. Human and organisational capital could then develop intellectual capital, which could strengthen the schools' social capital. Intellectual capital, combined with social capital, could enhance schools' competitiveness, which could improve their strategies and tactics. Social capital could increase the success of fundraising activities. Fundraising, strategies and tactics could develop sources of income, leading to financial sustainability. Distributed leadership was preferred amongst participants, suggesting that human capital could be the most important capital in business schools.

While previous research represented strategic leadership as building and executing strategic agendas, this thesis argues that UK business schools could benefit from

these inter-linked components in developing leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness, particularly in times of economic crisis.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the current context of UK Higher Education (HE) and identifies the need for strategic leadership of UK business schools. It also discusses the research background, academic and policy contexts of HE in the UK in order to explain the researcher's rationale undertaking this study. The chapter continues with a discussion of my personal and professional background leading up to my PhD journey. The last section provides a summary of the thesis.

Overview

In the context of the global economic crisis, UK HE faces a change in funding structure, increased regulation, an increasingly competitive environment, rising customer demand and the imperative to internationalise (Bolden, Petrov, & Gosling, 2008). In addition, the UK government's plan to reduce the number of visas available to non-EU students is expected to have a significant impact on the income of the UK higher education sector in terms of lost tuition fees (Travis, 2011). In this context UK universities and business schools will need to raise more income in order to operate in this competitive environment.

If HE institutions are to survive and compete in this context they will need strategic leadership that provides long-term strategic direction that is appropriate for the organisations' contexts (Davies, 2006; Davies & Davies, 2004). Van Baalen and Moratis (2001, p. 167) suggest that strategic leadership helps in setting a clear strategic direction to guide business schools through the "playing field of management education" of the 21st century.

Research Background

Strategic leadership has been extensively researched and adopted in the field of management and business studies (Boal & Bullis, 1991; Boal & Hooijberg, 2000; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996; Hitt & Duane, 2002; Hitt, Ireland, & Hoskisson, 2007; Hitt, Keats, & Yucel, 2003; Phillips & Hunt, 1992). Although the leadership literature in the field of higher education has been well researched (Bargh, Boccock, Scott, & Smith, 2000; Bolden et al., 2008; Bryman, 2007; Macfarlane, 2011; McCaffery, 2004; Middlehurst, 1993), it seems that strategic leadership, in relation to business schools specifically, has been relatively under-researched. However, there has been some work in this area (Fragueiro, 2007; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Thomas & Thomas, 2011).

Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) conducted case study research with three internationally renowned European business schools. Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) and Thomas and Thomas (2011) emphasised the political perspective of the strategic leadership process and the context of world-class business schools. They focused on three key actors that play important roles in strategic leadership process: the dean, the board and the faculty, but the key components of strategic leadership, leading to business school's sustainability and competitiveness, were still to be explained.

This study aimed to investigate business schools in various contexts, which were different from Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) work. Accordingly, this study's use of wider sample could result in higher possibility of research findings being transferred to other types of situation and other circumstances. As a result, I hope that the results of this study may be adapted for use in the contexts of Thai higher education and business schools.

The Academic and Policy Background of Higher Education

This section explores and discusses the academic and policy background of the higher education sectors in the UK in order to explain the researcher's rationale for undertaking this study.

During my PhD study from 2009 to 2013, there have been changes in UK HE in terms of university funding structure, which have raised other issues and challenges. As the UK government aimed to ensure the financial sustainability of the HE sector, the government, through its coalition agreement, sought to develop a more sustainable method of funding (GOV.UK, 2012a).

The allocation of public funding for UK HE institutions is managed and overseen by national funding councils, i.e. Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), Scottish Funding Council (SFC) and Higher Education Funding Council for Wales (HEFCW). These funding councils are responsible for distributing public funds to higher education institutions (HEFCE, 2012; HEFCW, n.d.; SFC, n.d.).

In an effort to promote a sustainable future for the UK HE sector, the Browne Review (Browne et al., 2010) proposed that the UK government cut a significant amount of funding from UK HE. Furthermore, the Review proposed that UK universities raise tuition fees, particularly for home and EU students, in order to cover for the loss of government funding, from the former cap of £3,000 (before 2012) to the maximum of £9,000 per year for full-time students in some prestigious universities. The Browne Review led to protests around the UK from outraged students who would incur significant debt during their studies.

On the other hand, the Browne Review proposed that this new funding structure would provide more opportunities for students from low income backgrounds to enter HE (Browne et al., 2010). This was represented in the widening participation scheme (GOV.UK, 2012b), which offered disadvantaged students a full grant to help with living costs. UK HEIs that charge fees of between £6,000 and £9,000 for full-

time students were required to contribute to the National Scholarship Programme to help students from disadvantaged backgrounds.

These changes in UK HE funding led many universities to cut the number of employees, in order to finance the institutions (BBC, 2010; Doyle, 2010; Shepherd & Bowcott, 2010).

There was a further concern for UK business schools at that time: not only had there been a decline in the number of overseas students (Ivory et al., 2006), but the UK government announced a plan to reduce the number of overseas students from outside the EU by 87,000 from the total of 163,000 each year (Travis, 2010). Since overseas students paid full-cost tuition fees (Harris, 1995), UK visa restrictions significantly reduced universities' income.

According to the UK Council for International Student Affairs (UKCISA), the total number of non-EU students in UK HE in 2011-12 was 302,680, whereas the number of non-EU students in Business and Administrative Studies was 130,505, 36% of all students in this subject area (UKCISA, 2013).

However, as reported in an article on the *Financial Times* website, the number of overseas students enrolling on "the UK's prestigious MBA programmes" had been lowest for eight years, while business schools blamed the government's plan to reduce immigration figure by cutting the post-study work visas. In this way, UK business schools were affected by the student visa restriction because "86 per cent of all MBA students studying in the UK are from outside the country" (Bradshaw & Ortman, 2013).

That context for UK HE and business schools particularly, as illustrated here, was the rationale for this study. It was important to examine how UK business schools would achieve competitiveness and financial sustainability at this testing time.

Personal and Professional Background

I have been interested in leadership throughout my life. I have always believed that leadership was a practical science that could be applied in our daily lives. I learned the practice of leadership at a young age. At school, I was always voted in as head of the class, where I was responsible for keeping order and representing the class in important school events, for instance the academic quiz and debate. My leadership experience outside school included being a founding member of the regional Interact Club of Rotary International, being a representative in a World Scout Jamboree and participating in the Rotary's Leadership Training Program for young people (RYLA). All these experiences during my adolescence formed a solid foundation of my early understanding of leadership.

The next phase of my leadership journey started with the recognition that good leadership required good communication. This prompted my decision to do a Bachelor's degree in Communication Arts, which brought me to another experience that became useful later in my life. After graduation I worked in the mass communication field and was promoted to TV producer for news documentary programmes, where I had opportunities to gain insights from politicians, opinion makers and those in various social leadership roles. This experience equipped me with interviewing, analysing and critical thinking skills.

The next stage on my journey began when I changed job from TV producer to leadership development training coordinator for private and public organisations. This was a turning point of my life that reinforced my long-standing interest in leadership, giving me opportunities to work with high-profile academics of leadership science in Thailand. I was later invited to work with one of them in a university as his personal assistant, where I was responsible for preparing leadership development training content, which greatly enhanced my knowledge of leadership science, as well as facilitating the training of university faculty and leaders from various organisations. Furthermore, that job gave me opportunities to represent my organisation on important occasions such as meeting with the Minister, Deputy Minister and Undersecretary of the Ministry of Education to develop education

policy and plan university development. This opened my eyes to the sphere of HE policymaking.

My job in the university and interactions with these leaders and senior officers forged a strong interest in HE leadership. Moreover, this post gave me valuable experience in working with strategic leaders in HE and provided insights into how they applied their business skills of persuasion, communication and shared goal setting to higher education settings.

However, Thai HEIs, especially the business schools, were never higher than 200 in world university rankings. I could see there was room for improvement. There were likely to be specific improvements that Thai HEIs and business schools would need to make. Therefore, I wanted to learn more about strategic leadership and management in world-class universities and business schools. I chose to expand my horizon further by studying at a UK business school with the aim of finding out more. I did an MA in International Business, where I focused on key factors in improving business schools: corporate strategy; Cross-Cultural Human Resources Management; International Trade and Law; the Environment of International Business; and Strategic Management of International Enterprises.

For my Master's dissertation, I chose the topic, "Analysing Successful Strategic Educational Management in Higher Education Sector: A case study of world leading business schools", which reflected my interest in management in business education. The dissertation examined strategic management in Cambridge's Judge Business School and Harvard Business School. Rather than examining the business school leaders themselves, that study focused on the strengths and weaknesses in strategies deployed at these two institutions, comparing strategic decisions of leaders of these two business schools. I used a documentation analysis approach for the data collection. In this study I learned about strategic management in these world-class business schools, which prompted my decision to pursue a PhD on strategic leadership in the business school sector.

I chose to investigate UK business schools because they were widely acknowledged for their quality by international accreditation bodies (i.e. AACSB, EQUIS and AMBA), international reputation and success. By doing this study, I expected to gather information from UK business school leaders about how they employed strategic leadership in their institutions in order to achieve competitiveness and financial sustainability, which could serve as an example that Thai business schools could learn from.

All the experiences I had gained throughout my entire life seemed to come into play in my PhD study. Experiences and skills that I developed during the course of my life had woven into the person I was, and the aim of helping to improve the sustainability of Thai business schools aligned with my personal values.

Thesis Summary

This thesis is presented in eight chapters: (1) introduction; (2) literature review; (3) research strategy and methodology; three data interpretation chapters regarding (4) the “leadership” theme; (5) the “human capital”, “social capital”, “organisational capital” and “intellectual capital” themes; (6) the “financial sustainability” theme; (7) discussion of findings; and (8) conclusion, contributions and implications.

Chapter one provides an overview of the academic and policy background of higher education in the UK and explains the rationale for this study, including the author’s personal and professional background and motivation. It concludes with a summary of the thesis.

Chapter two reviews the literature on five areas of research: (1) the UK Higher Education landscape; (2) the business school sector in the UK, including its history, business school models, challenges and finances; (3) management and leadership; (4) UK HE management; and (5) UK HE leadership. The chapter concludes with the research questions and aims.

Chapter three describes the research strategy and methodology. It reviews the constructivist paradigm, relativist ontology and subjective epistemology adopted. It then discusses the research design developed for this study, trustworthiness, sampling strategy and three data collection techniques: (1) face-to-face; (2) telephone; and (3) email. It reports on the pilot study and lessons learned for the main study. Ethical issues are discussed. The diagram of theoretical concepts is explained, followed by discussion of thematic analysis and the process involved in this study.

Chapter four presents the “leadership” theme. It discusses a combination of the “appropriate leadership”, “shared vision” and “overall goals” codes under the main “leadership” theme. It reviews the concept of leadership from the participants’ perspectives and discusses the participants’ perceptions of shared vision and overall goals in their institutions.

Chapter five introduces the following themes: “human capital”; “social capital”; “organisational capital”; and “intellectual capital”. It explains the development of codes and their integration into main themes. The “staff management” code was combined with the “human capital” code into the main “human capital” theme. The “supportive environment” code was incorporated with the “organisational capital” code under the main “organisational capital” theme. The “industry linkages”, “advisory board”, “accreditation” and “ranking” codes were merged with the “social capital” code into the main “social capital” theme. The “creativity and innovation” code was combined with the “quality of output” code into the main “intellectual capital” theme. The interview data suggested that there were perceived links between human capital, social capital and organisational capital and intellectual capital.

Chapter six focuses on financial resources, which were seen as supporting other forms of capital. The “financial sustainability” theme combines three codes: “income sources”; “strategies and tactics”; and “fundraising”. The “income sources” code section discusses the income streams and funding of participating business schools. The “strategies and tactics” code section discusses the strategies and tactics that

participating schools employed in order to increase income and financial support. The “fundraising” code section discusses participants’ efforts to raise funds from donations and secure research grants from the public and private sectors. The data suggested that financial sustainability could be a result of business schools’ competitiveness and other components of strategic leadership linking together.

Chapter seven draws on the analysis in chapters four, five and six, and introduces a Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness, created to illustrate connections between components of strategic leadership, based on analysis of the perspectives of the participants in this study. It shows the potential of a virtuous circle of competitiveness and financial sustainability that business schools could achieve by using (1) leadership and (2) income sources to improve (3) human capital, which could also be enhanced by itself and by (4) organisational capital. Human and organisational capital could then develop (5) intellectual capital, which could strengthen the schools’ (6) social capital. Intellectual capital, combined with social capital, could enhance schools’ competitiveness, which could improve their (7) strategies and tactics. Social capital could increase the success of (8) fundraising activities. Fundraising, strategies and tactics could develop sources of income, leading to financial sustainability.

Chapter eight provides answers to the research questions and draws conclusions from the findings. It also discusses this study’s contribution to knowledge: while previous research argued for strategic leadership and the potential for success from building and executing strategic agendas, this study suggests the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness, which it argues could be achieved through the management and development of the components in the model. The components in the model were seen as inter-linked and one can enhance the effectiveness of the others. The chapter concludes by suggesting implications for practice, discussing limitations of the study, reflecting on personal bias and offering recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter discusses the context of this study in the UK higher education landscape and the UK business school sector, including its history, business school models, challenges and finances. It then explores the literature on management and leadership, then specifically research on management and leadership in UK higher education.

The terms leadership and management are often used as synonyms (Bush & Coleman, 2000; McCaffery, 2004). However, there is some distinction between them, which is discussed later in this chapter, but the focus of this study is leadership. The subject of leadership has been widely discussed in military research and business studies. More recently, leadership researchers have extended their scope in other study fields. Specifically, this chapter reviews leadership literature in several different fields: Education (Davies, 2006; Davies & Davies, 2004, 2006; Harris, 2008); Higher Education (Bargh et al., 2000; Bolden et al., 2008; Bryman, 2007; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Goodall, 2009; Hamidi, 2009; Macfarlane, 2011; McCaffery, 2004; Middlehurst, 1993, 1999, 2004; Middlehurst & Gordon, 1995); Business Studies (Hitt et al., 2007); and Health Care (Kleinmuntz & Kleinmuntz, 1998).

Much has been written about leadership in Education and Higher Education. However, few studies are directed towards strategic leadership in business schools specifically. Examples include the works of Fragueiro (2007) and Fragueiro and Thomas (2011), which looked at strategic leadership in business schools as a process from the political perspective. They discuss the interaction between key actors in the business schools, their internal and external contexts. Yet, the discussion on the financial perspective of business schools is limited. Furthermore, they focused on top European business schools, which are in many ways distinct from other European

business schools, in terms of their international standing as well as the institutional context. It would be useful to consider other types of business school.

In order to understand how strategic leadership could help with competitiveness and financial sustainability in UK business schools, one needs to understand the contexts that UK business schools are set in.

Higher Education in the United Kingdom

The history of higher education in the UK is one of the longest in the world, going back to the establishment of the University of Oxford in the 12th century, making it the oldest university in the English-speaking world (Oxford, 2009).

University Categories

British universities have witnessed changes through several periods during their long history. Tight (2009) sees UK HEIs as falling into nine categories: ancient universities; federal universities; old civic universities; new civic universities; campus universities; colleges of advanced technology; polytechnics; colleges of higher (and further) education; and 'odd' institutions. Furthermore, he distinguishes the first three categories as HEIs that were already in existence in 1945.

1) Ancient universities

These ancient universities are the early development of higher education foundation in the UK, comprising Oxford, Cambridge, St Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh.

2) Federal universities

There are currently two federal universities in the UK: University of London and University of Wales. They have the unique characteristic of comprising several institutions. University of London comprises a large number of

institutions in and around London, making it the largest university in the country in 1908. University of Wales consists of a relatively modest numbers of institutions in Wales.

3) Old civic universities

The old civic universities are also known as redbrick universities, founded in the latter part of 19th century and very beginning of 20th century. This group comprises Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester and Sheffield.

4) New civic universities

The new civic universities were established during the first half of 20th century: Exeter, Hull, Leicester, Nottingham, Reading and Southampton. There are three additions that Tight (2009) also recognises as the new civic universities: Keele, Newcastle and Strathclyde.

5) Campus universities

The campus universities, also known as plate-glass universities, were established during the 1960s: East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Lancaster, Sussex, Warwick, York, Stirling and Ulster. These were not part of pre-existing institutions but were founded as full universities from their inception.

6) Colleges of advanced technology

The Colleges of Advanced Technology (CATs) had a brief existence in the UK HE history. The CATs were established in a White Paper on Technical Education published in 1956. All of them were granted university status following the Robbins Report in 1963. This category includes eight independent universities – Aston, Loughborough, City University London, Surrey, Brunel, Bath, Salford, and Bradford, forming a technological universities group; and two that became part of federal universities – Cardiff and King’s College London.

7) Polytechnics

The establishment of polytechnic institutions served the national need for higher-level technical and vocational education. Following the Higher and Further Education Act (1992), the polytechnic institutions were granted university status.

8) Colleges of higher (and further) education

This category comprises non-university higher education institutions, including teacher education, technical and further education, small specialist colleges and nurse education.

9) 'Odd' institutions

This category comprises two unusual universities that do not belong in the categories described above. The first is the Open University, which is the only UK university that offers most of their courses via distance learning on a part-time basis with an open entry policy. The second is the University of Buckingham, which is the only private university in the UK.

Tight's (2009) categorisation omits a group of universities that gained university status in or after 1992 but were not formerly polytechnic institutions. The examples of this type of universities include Bath Spa University, formerly Bath Spa University College before being granted university status in 2005 (Bath Spa University, 2012); and the University of the Arts London (UAL), which was formerly London Institute, consisting of six colleges, before being brought together and granted university status in 2004 (UAL, 2013). For the purposes of this study, they are combined with Tight's (2009) polytechnics into the post-1992 category.

Since the end of the Second World War in 1945, Britain has seen a radical change in HE from a small-scale system serving élites to the mass system serving a wider population, as evident from the expansion of the new civic universities (Tight, 2009).

Another common categorisation of UK universities is the division between pre- and post-1992 universities. The pre-1992 group includes ancient universities, federal universities, old and new civic universities and campus universities. The post-1992 group consists of ex-polytechnic and non-polytechnic institutions that have been granted university status in or after 1992.

Tight's (2009) categorisation provides a big picture of the UK HE landscape. Additionally, this categorisation also demonstrates the development stages of British higher education from the early period of élite to the later period of mass higher education. However, given his work is about higher education, his categorisation lacks discussion of the development of business schools in the UK. Furthermore, there is a limited discussion of cultures within universities. Therefore, Tight's categories provide the foundation for understanding the historical development of UK HE, which begins to describe the context for business schools.

Models of University Cultures

Bush and Coleman (2000) suggest that organisational cultures are becoming more important in developing effective leadership. Hence, organisational cultures of universities are discussed in this study, using the models of universities as organisations (Figure 1), originally developed by McNay (1995) and later adapted by Bolden et al.'s (2008) work on distributed leadership in HE. McNay's models explain the nature of organisational cultures of universities and form the basis for much HE research (Bargh et al., 2000; Bolden et al., 2008; Lapworth, 2004; McCaffery, 2004; Middlehurst, 2004; Shattock, 2002). Having built on McNay's (1995) models of university cultures, Bolden et al. (2008) describe the nature of change, environmental fit, decision-making unit, value, management style, and perceptions of leaders that could be used to investigate UK business schools.

In Figure 1 type A is the *collegium* model, describing an environment where there is freedom to follow professional and personal goals with a permissive management style and leadership by consensus. In this model, evaluation is by peer assessment.

The collegiate culture is suitable for evolutionary environment (Bolden et al., 2008; McCaffery, 2004; McNay, 1995). This model involves bottom-up management, where all professionals have autonomy, self-regulation and professional expertise authority over formal position-based power (Bolden et al., 2008). Its characteristic as “flat intellectual hierarchy” means expertise is at different levels, with self-governance, and there is a shared understanding of the “academic ethic” (Middlehurst, 1999, p. 323). Middlehurst (1993) remarks that leaders in collegiate cultures are present in many different levels and are normally perceived as servants rather than masters of the group, which is echoed by Bolden et al.’s (2008) idea of servant leadership in the top-left quadrant of Figure 1. Middlehurst (1999) proposes that the definition of collegiality be extended to include sharing of ideas, information, and duties. According to Bolden et al. (2008), in collegial culture, decisions are normally reached through discussion, debate and consultation. However, Goodall (2009) observes that decision-making processes by elected committees could be the cause of the decline of collegial culture in many European universities; too much democracy leaves leaders with insufficient freedom to make decisions. Nonetheless, she points out that this is changing in UK HE, as leaders attempt to retain power in decision-making. This is consistent with Bolden et al. (2008) who argue that collegiality tends to be dependent on bureaucracy and corporation models, where decisions are made by committees and validated by managers or administrators.

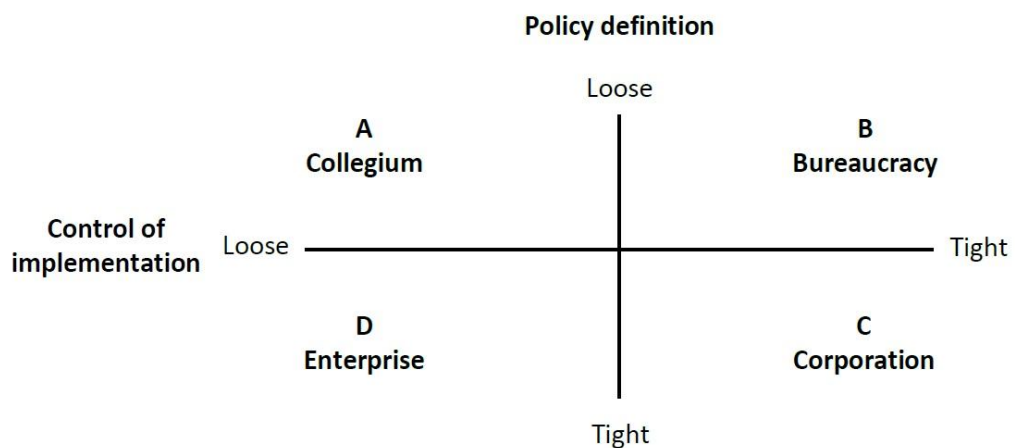


Figure 1: Models of universities as organisations (Source: McNay, 1995, p.106)

Type B is the *bureaucracy* model, emphasising rules, regulations, and procedures. In the bureaucracy model, decisions are made by formal committee and the management style is formal-rational. The method of evaluation is external audit, and students are considered as statistics. This type works best in the stable organisational condition (McCaffery, 2004; McNay, 1995). It involves managerial and hierarchical leadership, where leaders are position-based, giving orders from the top (Bolden et al., 2008). The bureaucracy model forms the structure of New Managerialism, which is the concept of adopting practices from business enterprise in the public sector (Deem, Hillyard, & Reed, 2007).

Type C is the *corporation* culture, where loyalty and consistency are the values of the institution. With the political-tactical management style, decisions in the corporation model are made by senior management teams. Performance indicators are the means of evaluation. This model involves transformational leadership, and leaders are perceived as chief executives. This style is best utilised in a crisis (Bolden et al., 2008; McCaffery, 2004; McNay, 1995).

Type D is the *enterprise* model, with the emphasis on external environment. In this model, the market is the focus, with the objective to serve the customers and community. Devolved or collective leadership is the management style of this type of university, where decisions are made by business units. Consumers' satisfaction is used as a basis of evaluation because students are perceived as valued customers and leaders as entrepreneurs (Bolden et al., 2008; McCaffery, 2004; McNay, 1995). It involves institutional change, adjustment, adaptability and on-going interaction with external bodies (Bolden et al., 2008). Bolden et al. emphasise the importance of commercial and financial awareness in this entrepreneurial culture. Leadership is assigned to project teams for each project. This model is especially relevant in complex, unstable environments (Middlehurst, 2004) and in times of competition (Bolden et al., 2008). However, Bolden et al. (2008, p. 9) remark that "no real university is wholly enterprising".

McNay (1995) proposes that the four cultures coexist in HEIs; it is the balance between them that varies. However, Bolden et al. (2008) observe that, in practice, many institutions focus on one or two of these models. Bargh, Scott, and Smith (1996) assert that the balance between them is determined by institutional aim, history, culture and leadership approach.

Furthermore, McNay (1995) notes that UK universities have moved from collegial and bureaucratic to corporate and enterprise models. In particular, the pre-1992 universities have shifted from collegial and bureaucratic cultures towards corporation cultures in the mid 1980s to 1990s (McNay 1995, as cited in Middlehurst, 2004). However, Bolden et al.'s (2008) study found that pre-1992 universities still favour collegiality (bottom-up management), whereas the post-1992 counterparts opt for bureaucracy (or top-down management). Bolden et al. further conclude from the works of Lapworth (2004) and Shattock (2002) that it is best for institutions to combine both corporate and collegial cultures.

Bolden et al.'s (2008) interpretivist case-study approach, using in-depth interviewing and focus group techniques, document analysis as well as literature review. Their research samples spread across 12 universities of any geographic location, type (research- or teaching-oriented, old or new), size, disciplinary mix and ranking. Their comprehensive study on leadership is particularly relevant to the HE landscape, but appears less relevant and relatively broad for a study of leadership in other specific contexts, for instance, professional schools of business, law or medical.

Business Schools in the UK

The previous section discussed the UK HE landscape, in terms of categories of types of university and models of university culture. This section discusses the UK business school context from past to present, including the challenges they have faced.

The Rise of UK Business Schools

The growth of the discipline of business education has been one of the fastest in higher education history, both in the US and the UK (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). In the UK, the London School of Economics and Political Science was established in 1895, followed by the foundation of the School of Commerce at the University of Birmingham in 1902 and the University of Manchester in 1904 (Engwall & Danell, 2011; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). However, the London School of Economics specialised in other social science disciplines (economics, politics, law, sociology and anthropology), with little emphasis on business education (only in accounting and finance).

Although business education originated in Europe, its development in the UK and other European countries was relatively slow compared to the US (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). Business education has prospered in the UK since the mid-1960s (Engwall & Danell, 2011), where, at the beginning of 21st century, there were 120 business schools (Ivory et al., 2006).

Although a late starter in business education, in comparison to some other European nations (Engwall & Danell, 2011), the UK rapidly gained an international reputation and became second top in number of business schools and went on to dominate the *Financial Times (FT) Global MBA Rankings*, beaten only by the US (Financial Times, 2010). Engwall and Danell (2011) suggest that British business schools' positioning was attributable to the competitive advantage of being the original English speaking nation, hence reducing the barrier of adopting another lingua franca for publishing research or to attract overseas students.

Models of UK Business Schools

As outlined above, there are over 120 business schools spread over the UK. They differ in their model and focus. Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) work on strategic leadership in business schools divides UK business schools into four categories: the

quasi-US model, the professionally-oriented model, the social-science-based model and the specialised model.

Firstly, UK-based business schools that follow the elite US model (e.g. Harvard, Wharton, Stanford, etc.) are the London Business School (LBS) and, to some extent, Oxford's Saïd. The quasi-US model is virtually privately-funded, not dependent on public funds, emphasising fundraising and endowment activities, providing them with a strong resource base to recruit high-profile professors from the US and around the world (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). Although Fragueiro and Thomas categorise Cambridge's Judge Business School in the university-based group, it is possible to see Judge as belonging to the quasi-US model because they likewise concentrate on donations and fundraising (Cambridge, n.d.), as shown in Table 1.

Secondly, professionally-oriented business schools mostly focus on the postgraduate level, with practically-oriented programmes such as MBA, DBA and executive programmes, with less emphasis on research. Examples of this are Ashridge, Henley and Cranfield (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). These institutions are not all stand-alones. Cranfield School of Management, for example, is part of Cranfield University.

Thirdly, social-science-based business schools provide both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. They are based in research-intensive universities, for example, Warwick Business School, Lancaster Management School and Manchester Business School (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011).

Fourthly, specialised business schools focus on particular areas, such as technology and research on finance, as at the Imperial College Business School, and on economics, finance and insurance as at the Cass Business School (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011).

Table 1 shows Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) four types of UK business schools and their examples of each type.

Table 1: Types of UK business schools and examples (Source: Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011)

Quasi-US Model	Professionally-oriented Model
London Business School Judge Business School Said Business School	Henley Business School Ashridge Business School Cranfield School of Management
Social-science-based Model	Specialised Model
Warwick Business School Lancaster Business School Manchester Business School	Imperial College Business School Cass Business School

Fragueiro and Thomas’s (2011) four models of business school do not include business schools in post-1992 universities, but these four models of provide a foundation for understanding their cultures and orientations.

UK Business School Cultures

McNay’s (1995) discussion of university cultures is not specific to the business school context, while Fragueiro and Thomas’s (2011) models of UK business schools lack discussion of university cultures, the models of business school management cultures (Table 2) are therefore presented as an adaptation from McNay and Fragueiro and Thomas.

Table 2: Models of business school management cultures (Adapted from: McNay, 1995; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011)

Quasi-US Model	Professionally-oriented Model
Enterprise – Corporation	Enterprise – Corporation
Social-science-based Model	Specialised Model
Collegiality – Enterprise	Collegiality – Corporation

The bureaucracy culture is excluded from Table 2. As mentioned above, quoting the work of Bolden et al. (2008), a collegial culture is still preferred in pre-1992 universities, while a bureaucracy culture prevalent in post-1992 universities. The bureaucracy culture seems irrelevant to the four models of business school

management cultures in Table 2. However, there may be a level of bureaucracy culture in these business school models, as they adopt practices from business enterprise, or New Managerialism, as Deem et al. (2007) call it.

Both quasi-US and professionally-oriented models represent a mixture of entrepreneurial and corporate cultures. For the entrepreneurial aspect, they both focus on students as valued customers, with leaders as entrepreneurs. The quasi-US model, in particular, has been through institutional change and on-going interaction with external bodies. Both quasi-US and professionally-oriented models emphasise the commercial and financial aspects of management. For the corporation aspect, they perceive leaders as chief executives. The quasi-US and professionally-oriented models are similar in their management cultures in that they rely on their own sources of income from courses or corporate connections, but they are different in their strategic focus on a customer target group and fundraising.

The social-science-based model represents a collegial culture that is moving towards an entrepreneurial culture. These business schools have always been collegial, emphasising peer assessment, with bottom-up management styles, where leaders are present in many different levels and perceived as servants rather than masters of the group. These business schools' decisions are made through discussion, debate and consultation, a process that tends to be slow. However, with the crisis in the higher education sector, in which they have to increase income, the trend seems to be towards a shift from a collegial to an entrepreneurial culture, as business schools aim to serve the community and students, who are all perceived as valued customers. These schools tend to concentrate on the financial aspect, engage more with external bodies and go through institutional change to achieve sustainability.

Finally, the specialised business school model represents a mixture of collegial and corporation cultures. They provide professional freedom for academics and depend on peer assessment. Decisions are normally made by senior management teams, and leaders are perceived as chief executives.

Academic Norms within UK Business Schools

As an academic discipline, Business Education adopted academic norms, one of which was an orientation towards research, which in turn has been strengthened by accreditations, rankings and evaluations (Engwall & Danell, 2011).

Accreditation

Accreditation is a firmly established process in the business school sector. Globally, there are arguably three largest and most influential accreditation bodies namely; the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), the European Quality Improvement System (EQUIS) and the Association of MBAs (AMBA). These accreditation bodies are independent agencies that monitor the quality of business schools' programmes, especially of their MBAs (Wilson & McKiernan, 2011). According to Wilson and McKiernan, accredited business schools perceive accreditation as an assurance of their superior quality standards in the eyes of prospective students and society, while the accreditation bodies perceive their role as distinguishing high quality business schools from low quality business schools.

Wilson and McKiernan (2011) observe that EQUIS accreditation focuses on the international dimension for accrediting business schools, while the AMBA exclusively accredits MBA programmes, emphasising the quality of students and curriculum content as well as its relevance to real world business. Furthermore, Wilson and McKiernan remark that the AACSB only focuses on the North American model of programmes taught in their accredited business schools, while EQUIS acknowledges differences between European and North American business schools.

However, controversy surrounds the norms and practices of accreditation and ranking by those organisations regulating it (Wilson & McKiernan, 2011). Some business schools refuse to play the ranking and accreditation games because, as Lowrie and Willmott (2009) put it, they are élitist and devalue other institutions. Furthermore, the AACSB was criticised for encouraging the maintenance of the status quo of 'high standard' business schools, as determined by the organisation,

thus inhibiting knowledge improvement and the development in both accredited and non-accredited business schools (Lowrie & Willmott, 2009).

Rankings

In addition to accreditation, rankings are another method for helping business schools establish global visibility. As Wilson and McKiernan (2011) note, although rankings have been around in the business school sector for decades, they have only recently become widely used by business schools and prospective students.

International media are actively involved in publishing these rankings, with *The Financial Times* and *The Economist* amongst the most frequently cited (Devinney, Dowling, & Perm-Ajchariyawong, 2008; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Wilson & McKiernan, 2011).

Wilson and McKiernan (2011) observe that rankings are used both internally by university managers to judge the quality of their own business schools and externally by prospective students, donors and other stakeholders. They further point out that highly-ranked business schools tend to attract highly-qualified students and more financial support from research councils and other donors. Devinney et al. (2008) report that this financial support is used for hiring top academics and investing in new facilities and research support to maintain their high position.

Although rankings enhance business schools' reputations at international level, there are concerns about business schools being obsessed with rankings. The widespread use of business school rankings presents a challenge to business schools. Goodall (2009) remarks that rankings are not reliable, particularly those published by the media. Rankings vary significantly because each publisher uses different factors and indicators in their assessment, their aims and purposes (Clarke, 2002; HEFCE, 2008; Ivory et al., 2006). Therefore, Wilson and McKiernan (2011) observe, rankings are criticised by scholars for their methodology, criteria and operationalization. Devinney et al. (2008) further point out that even though rankings are useful for

reputation enhancement, they do not necessarily signify “what it means to be a ‘good’ [business] school” (p. 204).

Despite these criticisms of rankings, many business school Deans seem actively to pursue high rankings, because they are perceived as quality indicators in the eyes of the public (Wedlin, 2007; Wilson & McKiernan, 2011). In fact, Wilson and McKiernan further argue that rankings will remain powerful for many years to come.

Research Assessments

As well as media rankings, there is also a research ranking in the UK in the form of the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), which is conducted every 3-6 years (RAE, 2009). In 2014, the RAE was replaced by the Research Excellence Framework (REF, 2012). Business schools are assessed on their research performance and labelled as research excellent or otherwise. The allocation of government research funding for UK business schools is determined by this standard (Wilson & McKiernan, 2011). The quality of research outputs is assessed by the proportion of academics who published in prestigious journals with high impact factors, and by the quality of their research, as judged by panels of subject experts (Engwall & Danell, 2011). Wilson and McKiernan observe that pressure then falls on academics to publish in highly-ranked journals in order to boost the research ranking of their schools.

However, a critique of these research rankings is that the quality of publications does not match the rating of journals. A high quality paper may appear in a lower rated journal and vice versa. Another difficulty arises from the fact that top-rated journals are not equally available across academic disciplines of business education, potentially leading to biased results in research assessment. Additionally, it is relatively difficult for European authors to publish in US journals, which claim to be international but have mostly US editorial boards and authors (Adler & Harzing, 2009; Wilson & McKiernan, 2011).

Therefore, although achievements in publication are used as a key variable in assessing business schools, the relationship between publishing in prestigious journals and the quality of papers and education is unclear. Grey (2004) further argues that research rankings for business schools are inaccurate measures for evaluating real quality. Despite these shortcomings, business school Deans still measure the performance of academic staff using journal rankings as a reference point (Engwall & Danell, 2011; Grey, 2004; Wilson & McKiernan, 2011).

Complications within the Business School Sector

The business education market is dominated by US business schools (Financial Times, 2010). The elite US business schools have become examples for business schools around the world (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). Although the contexts of US and the UK schools are different, there are similarities. Therefore, it is relevant to consider the US context in a discussion of the UK business school context.

The US Scene

Bennis and O'Toole (2005) argue that, in the past, US business schools MBA programmes had prestige among academics, students and employers. However, they observed that the ability to provide useful skills, deliver leaders, ingrain norms of ethical behaviour and provide rewarding careers after graduation were lacking in MBA programmes. They consider that problems facing business schools mainly arose from the limited relevance of their curricula. This critique echoed that of Pfeffer and Fong (2004), who see US business schools as failing to fulfil the need for effective education and relevant knowledge required by both students and employers.

In addition, Pfeffer and Fong (2004) and Bennis and O'Toole (2005) found that US business schools performed poorly in developing research that is relevant to management practice. Bennis and O'Toole (2005) observe that business schools focus on scientific research at the expense of practical knowledge. Furthermore, they propose that business is a profession rather than an academic discipline, like

medicine and law, and it should be treated as such (i.e. emphasising practical research and learning). They go on to suggest that business management should focus on knowledge and practice, while Pfeffer and Fong (2004) add that students ought to be taught how to learn, not what to learn during their studies, in order to be ready to learn about new subjects that are likely to emerge during the course of their lives.

Another challenge is that US business schools are very market-driven and obsessed with ratings (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004).

The UK Scene

UK business schools face similar problems to their US counterparts. Ivory et al. (2006, p. 6) note that “MBA graduates are seen as lacking leadership qualities, taught only to follow established management theory and practice, not to question or move beyond it”. Moreover, Podolny (2009) argues that many business school academics do not seek to find out real world business issues, but seem to accept theory as sufficient justification for business solutions, without challenging the theory or concept. There are intense criticisms of business schools’ research, to the effect that they are theoretically-grounded but irrelevant to practitioners’ or society’s needs.

Another challenge that UK business schools appear to be facing arises from human capital, which is a key resource for business schools. Ivory et al. (2006) observe that the number of academic staff is potentially at risk, with lower number of graduates entering the job market and ageing staff retiring. A number of high flyers choose to work overseas, particularly in the USA, where the salaries are much higher than in the UK (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Goodall, 2009; Ivory et al., 2006).

Furthermore, UK business schools face pressures to adapt to academic norms, leading them to adopt similar patterns of action (Engwall & Danell, 2011) or isomorphic pressure in Wilson and McKiernan’s (2011) terms. Isomorphism is the product of both formal and informal pressures from regulatory bodies such as

accreditation agencies and ranking publishers, media rankings and research rankings. Isomorphic pressure is intensified by the professional nature of business schools, driven by accreditation and ranking standards, rules and values, as well as norms and values developed by staff members, who tend to be homogenous in their background and education (Di Maggio & Powell, 1983; Wilson & McKiernan, 2011). Wilson and McKiernan add that this isomorphic effect is also affected by pressure from the institutions and their stakeholders.

Although accreditation agencies provide recommendations for business school improvement, Wilson and McKiernan (2011) observe that accredited schools continue to offer standardised degrees and courses. Additionally, Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) observed that business schools tend to mimic each other – not always in an efficient way, if they use the same set of criteria provided by rankings publishers and accreditation bodies. Wilson and McKiernan (2011) suggest that mimetic tendencies appear even in schools that position themselves with differentiated cultures or orientations. Furthermore, Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) observe that efforts to compete in the ranking game and secure triple accreditation cause business schools to lose the capacity for innovation and distinctiveness, as they lead Deans to focus on image rather than bridging the gap between theory and practice.

As Wilson and McKiernan (2011) acknowledge, both media and research rankings as well as accreditation, particularly triple accreditation, provide business schools with political power and institutional legitimacy. However, these same accreditation and ranking processes cause business schools to adopt similar patterns of action.

UK business schools differ from elite US business schools in terms of financial structure. While UK schools mostly depend on state funds, with little income from private donations, US elites have long been privately funded and dependent on fundraising and donations. However, the funding situation in the UK has changed. Following the Browne Review (Browne et al., 2010), the UK government cut a significant amount of funding from the higher education sector. The Review claimed

that raising tuition fees would help institutions improve quality and would provide sustainable funding so that they would not have to rely on the government funds. Starting in 2012, UK business schools were therefore affected by this substantial funding cut and were forced to charge students much higher tuition fees.

The next section discusses how the UK could benefit from marketization of its higher education in order to lessen the effect of the current cut of UK government funding.

UK Higher Education and Marketization

Regarding the marketization of education, Brown (2009) suggested that the features of a market in student education might include (a) little or no regulation of market entry; (b) no regulatory limits on the fees charged or number of students enrolled; (c) cost of teaching met entirely through fees rather than through a combination of fees and institutional grants; (d) fees paid by students rather than taxpayers; and (e) students' decision on what, where and how to study to be based on price, quality and availability of relevant programmes and providers. According to Brown (2009), advocates of the marketization of higher education argued that this system would contribute to (a) higher effectiveness and responsiveness in satisfying students' needs, with more flexibility to change and (b) greater efficiency in resource usage. Furthermore, Brown (2006) said that in the minds of consumers, suppliers and observers, the quality of higher education is usually replaced by prestige, which is strengthened by university league tables and rankings.

Although marketization is an approach that could improve business schools' effectiveness and responsiveness in satisfying consumers' needs, as well as enhancing efficient use of resources, Brown (2009) observed that a negative outcome of marketization of higher education institution could include poor value for money, which seemed to be a result of price competition. Douglass and Keeling (2008) called this the 'Pricing Equals Prestige Rule', which gives the impression that high price represents high quality, position and prestige. This is what Brown (2009) considered as poor value for money, because greater competition does not

necessarily lead to reduction of product prices, as in the rule of economics. Instead, prices rise to reflect the prestige of the education provided.

In this rapidly changing business environment, both challenges and opportunities could arise at any time. Therefore, having leaders who could anticipate strategic challenges and opportunities would be an advantage for business schools in this environment, in terms of their financial performance, as they could manage their schools so as to limit the effect of such challenges and even benefit from new opportunities.

Financial management is critical for strategic management and leadership in the business school sector. Therefore, it would be important for business school leaders to improve the performance and financial sustainability of their institutions. Hence, business school leaders who could take advantage of the marketization of business education give their institutions a competitive edge in the business school market.

In order to explain the financial situation in the context of UK business schools, the following section presents the financial sources that UK business schools benefit from. It also discusses the financial perspective of British business schools in greater detail.

Finances of UK Business Schools

D'Alessio and Avolio (2011) have explained how the finances of business schools are sourced and how their funds are used (see Figure 2). They show that business schools generate revenues from (1) programmes and services; (2) a parent university; (3) government funds; (4) multilateral organisations; and (5) donations, endowments, grants and gifts.

In the past, UK business schools were supported by government funds, particularly at the undergraduate level. However, since the UK government cut higher education funding, business schools have been struggling to cover the loss of the government

funds. Moreover, in the global competitive market, resources from student tuition fees seem insufficient. Most top US business schools are familiar with fundraising. By contrast, fundraising activities in the UK are not well-established, because the culture of donating and philanthropy in the UK are not as established as in the US (D'Alessio & Avolio, 2011). Therefore, fundraising seems to be a potential pool of resources that the UK business schools could tap into.

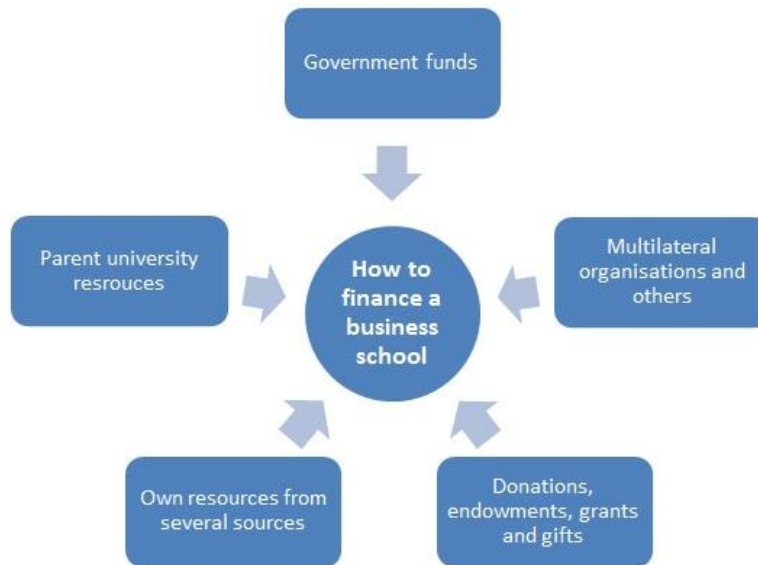


Figure 2: Business schools’ financial sources and their uses of funds (Source: D’Alessio & Avolio, 2011, p. 28)

Table 3 shows the amount of endowment funds received by UK universities in 2002 and 2005, in comparison to their US counterparts (Sutton Trust, 2006). Cambridge and Oxford, with the top two largest endowments in the UK, were still behind six US universities in 2005. Yet, endowments are growing, both in the UK and the US, as is shown in Table 3. This suggests that philanthropy in higher education is at a developmental stage. However, Table 3 looks at endowments for the whole university. The value of endowments for business schools is likely to be much less. Therefore, philanthropic giving is worth concentrating efforts on, particularly for British business schools in their early stage of fundraising development.

Although it seems that educational fundraising from alumni has just started in the UK, fundraising in fact is not a new concept for the UK. The history of UK educational fundraising dates back to the establishment of the UK ancient and red brick universities that were founded by wealthy benefactors (Proper, 2009). However, as time went by, a large number of universities were established. Government took the responsibility in financing UK universities. Subsequently, private donations faded from UK universities (Proper, 2009).

Table 3: Top ten universities with largest endowments in the UK and the US (Source: Sutton Trust, 2006)

United Kingdom				United States			
	£million	2005	2002		£million	2005	2002
1	Cambridge	3,200	2,000*	1	Harvard	13,400	9,000
2	Oxford	2,800	2,000*	2	Yale	8,000	5,500
3	Edinburgh	180	140	3	Stanford	6,400	4,000
4	Manchester	120	78	4	Texas	6,100	4,500
5	Glasgow	120	91	5	Princeton	5,900	4,400
6	Liverpool	110	79	6	MIT	3,500	2,800
7	KCL	103	83	7	California	2,700	2,200
8	UCL	90	73	8	Columbia	2,700	2,200
9	Reading	81	N/A	9	Texas A&M	2,600	2,000
10	Birmingham	68	55	10	Michigan	2,600	N/A
	Total	6,872	4,599		Total	53,900	36,600

*Best estimate for 2002

Although UK business schools have started to increase their fundraising activities, the current economic downturn, means that people donate less and fundraising becomes intensely competitive among all kinds of charities (Prest, 2010). UK universities must work even harder to attract donations (Fearn, 2009). Very few HEIs are fortunate enough to receive the type of large donations that Said, Judge and Cranfield Business Schools have (Prest, 2010).

A report from the Centre for Charitable Giving and Philanthropy (CGAP) suggests that the impact of philanthropy is limited by the “values and passions of private donors” (CGAP, 2012, p. 97). It proposes that policymakers should remove the “barriers to giving” by facilitating a tax relief system and providing incentives to donate. Furthermore, government can also encourage giving by creating norms,

increasing “public awareness of donor contribution” and instilling the values of giving to future generations (ibid.). CGAP proposal is in line with D’Alessio and Avolio’s (2011) argument that there are two elements that strengthen fundraising for business schools: culture and incentive.

Although the culture of donating and philanthropy is not as well-established in the UK as in the US, the UK government seems to be concentrating efforts on making philanthropy easier and more common. The *Philanthropy in Europe* journal anticipated a significant rise in corporate and individual donations to business schools (Lake, 2004).

The UK government also encouraged universities to do more fundraising through private donations and endowments in order to compensate for the reduction of government funds by offering “matched funding schemes”. With these schemes, the government would match any donation, made in cash and shares, to universities between 2008 and 2011, using a three-tier system (O’Hara, 2010).

In a further effort to encourage more private donations, the UK government allowed universities to reclaim tax on donations, and with a gift aid declaration the value of donation is increased up to a third. Benefactors could also claim personal tax relief against donations (O’Hara, 2012). The challenge was to overcome the notion that university education is paid for by the government, because it was no longer true (Prest, 2010). These incentives were expected to encourage more people to consider donating to HEIs.

Although educational donations are reportedly growing, suggesting that UK universities were making progress in their fundraising efforts (Fearn, 2009), Joelle du Lac, Director of External Affairs at Judge Business School, revealed that benefactors wanted “more say over how [the funding was] used” and wanted to see that it was spent wisely (Prest, 2010). She remarked that Judge was relatively new and had not built a sufficient “pool of alumni” to acquire donations. She explained that their strategy was to develop a fundraising team to develop alumni relations. By contrast,

Durham University stressed long-term donation, such as legacies, as they were less affected by a fluctuating economy, although they could result in donors changing their minds in the period before legacies were bequeathed (Prest, 2010).

Prest (2010) observed that there are three sources for fundraising activities: alumni; individuals; and corporates and foundations. However, of these three, alumni were most important because they had direct links with business schools and were probably high flyers within powerful networks (Prest, 2010).

At Oxford, the Vice-Chancellor Andrew Hamilton, who worked in US education institutions for almost 30 years, endeavoured to adopt the strong US alumni development technique. He remarked that Oxford had a wider base of alumni and students than Harvard, Yale and Stanford. He revealed that only about 15 per cent of Oxford alumni donated to the school, compared to 47 per cent at Princeton and 19 per cent at Harvard. He aimed to create a tradition of “lifelong alumni loyalty and giving”, to tap into the potential of alumni development. He realised the significance of alumni relations and appointed the former Harvard Director to the job and appointed a Harvard professor as Dean of Said Business School (Staley, 2011). These development at Oxford signify their strategy of following the example of top US business schools.

In 2009 Cranfield School of Management, London Business School, Said Business School and The Pears Foundation created The Pears Business Schools Partnership to “promote a culture of philanthropy amongst the business leaders of the future”. This strategy is designed to enhance the understanding and commitment of business students to public service and philanthropy (London Business School, 2009). This partnership aims at long-term benefits of embedding a philanthropic culture in society. If business schools secure donations to support scholarships and fellowships to ensure that the best students have access to the best education and fulfil their potential, regardless of their financial backgrounds (Cass Business School, n.d.; Stanford Graduate School of Business, 2012; University of Bradford, 2012), the culture of giving and donating benefits future generations.

In relation to the management of endowments and fundraising of universities, some top US universities have set up companies to manage them. For example, Harvard University founded Harvard Management Company in 1974 to manage its endowment and other financial assets. Its function resembles a trust fund, aiming to generate sustainable investment returns to finance education and research. It ensures that investments yield long-term returns that are greater than the rate of inflation. It also manages the distribution of funds from the endowment each year (Harvard Business School, 2007, 2011; Harvard Management Company, 2010). Harvard Business School also raises funds from individual donors, corporations and reunion classes (Harvard Business School, 2007).

Another example is Stanford University, which established a dedicated division in 1991, Stanford Management Company (SMC), to oversee the management and investment of the University's endowment and other financial assets. It is responsible for building and maintaining a strong financial base to subsidise the institution's teaching, learning and research (Stanford Management Company, 2011).

Similarly, London Business School has a team called Advancement, which is responsible for alumni relations, fundraising, sourcing major gifts and endowments from individuals, trusts, foundations and corporate partners. The team works closely with external and internal bodies to build relationships and promote the school (Richmond Associates, n.d.).

The first half of this chapter discussed the global context of UK business schools and outlined strategies they adopted in times of financial crisis. The rest of this chapter reviews literature on management and leadership and then moves on to a discussion of the more specific context of management and leadership in UK HE and UK business schools.

Management and Leadership

The terms management and leadership are often used interchangeably or considered synonymous (Bush & Coleman, 2000; McCaffery, 2004), but there is actually a distinction between the two.

Davies (2006) proposed that leadership involves direction setting, while management deals with the structure of organisations. According to Bush and Coleman (2000), leadership involves vision and values, while management engages with processes and structure. Bennis and Nanus (1985) say that managers may be very able at handling daily routine without doubting whether it should be done at all. They argue that leaders influence, guide direction, action and opinion. They conclude that leadership is about effectiveness of vision and judgement, whereas management is about dealing with routines efficiently. Their definition of the difference between leadership and management as, “managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do right things” has become almost a cliché in this debate about differences (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 20).

Table 4: Functions of management and leadership (Source: Kotter 1990, p. 3-8, as cited in Northouse, 2007, p. 10)

MANAGEMENT Produces Order & Consistency	LEADERSHIP Produces Change & Movement
Planning and Budgeting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish agendas • Set timetables • Allocate resources 	Establishing Direction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create a vision • Clarify big picture • Set strategies
Organising and Staffing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide structure • Make job placements • Establish rules and procedures 	Aligning People <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicate goals • Seek commitment • Build teams and coalitions
Controlling and Problem Solving <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop incentives • Generate creative solutions • Take corrective action 	Motivating and Inspiring <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inspire and energise • Empower subordinates • Satisfy unmet needs

Zaleznik (1977) argues that leaders are more emotionally active and involved than managers, who deal with people and problems, with little emotional involvement. Kotter’s (1990, as cited in Northouse, 2007) comparison between the functions of

these two roles makes the differences more apparent. As shown in Table 4, management functions to maintain order and consistency within organisations, while leadership creates change and movement. Middlehurst and Elton (1992) suggest that management involves keeping order and control to ensure efficiency, a function that can support a change process, but it takes leadership to set direction and inspire people to achieve successful change in an organisation. Bush and Coleman (2000) and Kotter (1990) regard both leadership and management as key factors in a school's improvement and prosperity.

However, these arguments for separation of the two roles and functions ignore the potential interdependence of the two. Management without leadership is merely a day-to-day operation without vision and direction, while leadership without management lacks planning and organising for efficient use of resources. While Kotter (1990) believes that many organisations are over-managed and under-led, Gosling and Mintzberg (2003) and Mintzberg (1973) consider leadership as part of management and point out the risk of focusing on leadership at the expense of management.

A leader does not need to be a manager, while a manager can manage without performing leadership functions (Schön, 1984). Nevertheless, some of their overlapping areas are difficult to separate. Managers can be involved in leadership, when they need to influence staff to achieve goals. Leaders can take a management role when they have to plan, organise, recruit or manage people and control the organisation (Northouse, 2007). This suggests that there is a need to focus on both leadership and management functions.

For this purposes of this study, leadership is defined as a role that involves creating change through setting direction, visions and strategies, motivating and inspiring people to build commitment to achieve common goals. By contrast, for this study, management is defined as maintaining order and standards in routine tasks, staff, process and structure in organisations, using resources available within the organisation (e.g. human, finance, time, etc.) to achieve operational goals.

Leadership and management can be combined in appropriate combinations for best effect for the organisation. The next section discusses management in UK HE.

Management in UK Higher Education

Hoyle (1981) explains management as an on-going process that members coordinate to exploit resources to achieve efficiency in performing the tasks of an organisation. For management in education, it concerns the operation of educational institutions (Bush, 1995; Bush & Coleman 2000). In order to efficiently manage educational institutions, the nature and culture of a particular institution must be understood. McCaffery (2004) states that even though higher education institutions may be generally similar, there are no identical institutions and that “to be an effective manager, then, you must have a keen appreciation of the distinctive features and nuances of your institution, notably its climate, structure, politics and culture” (p. 28). The last aspect of appreciating organisational culture has become the component of effective management (Bush & Coleman, 2000), which is echoed by Hitt et al. (2007) and that, in turn, is one of the factors that affect strategic leadership.

Lean Management in Higher Education

In the UK, as the number of business schools grew continuously in changing economic and business contexts, competition between business schools became intense, and the future shape and direction of business schools looked likely to change. In this context business schools needed to develop new strengths, adopted from marketing practice, e.g. competitive production process in marketing terms. In this sense, the term production process was more logically defined as operation process, referring to the way a business school operates.

Strategic leadership and management, combined with excellent operation processes, could be useful factors for business schools in this context. The challenge business schools faced was how to improve their operation process in order to have a

competitive advantage over their competitors and how to respond to the needs and desires of customers and many stakeholders. Lean Management was adopted to create competitive advantage for higher education institutions aiming to be leaders in a global market (Balzer, 2010).

Lean management is a novel concept in the higher education domain. Lean thinking is a principle with which executives in the manufacturing industry around the world were familiar (Suri, 2007). It originated in the Toyota automobile company, involving radical transformation and continuous improvement, with the aim of eliminating waste and reducing variability to pursue the perfection of value streams (Arnheiter & Maleyeff, 2005; Balzer, 2010; Holweg, 2007). Many firms, particularly in the UK service and public sectors, and many more around the world, followed this lucrative path and adopted this Lean process (Balzer, 2010; Fiona, Phillips, & Price, 2007).

The concept of Lean thinking proved to be beneficial to higher education, as it enabled HEIs to achieve organisational change and improvement, which helped them meet the needs and expectations of the stakeholders of higher education. Lean management is a type of strategic management because it looks at the long-term benefits of operation processes and therefore provides a strategic focus for institutions. Lean management focuses on identification and elimination of waste and non-value added activities. It is not a one-off change but involves continuous improvement (Balzer, 2010; Fiona et al., 2007). The term Lean Higher Education (LHE), coined by Balzer, signifies the application of Lean management to this sector.

Lean Higher Education looks at universities' operation processes from the perspectives of the stakeholders of each process in order to identify the value they expect from each process, develops a smoother flow of process and seeks to eliminate waste, in any sense (Balzer, 2010). Stakeholders can include students, parents, alumni, academics, university staff, future employers, local community, accreditation bodies, etc.

Balzer (2010) suggests that the first step in applying Lean management to higher education starts with preparing the climate that supports the implementation of LHE. The LHE team communicate with staff to ensure that they understand what LHE is about, to prevent resistance towards the initiative from misunderstanding that LHE means staff redundancies. Then the value and expectation that the stakeholders hold towards operation processes in the institutions are identified, from their perspectives. After that, the team creates performance measurements to assess whether the process meets the stakeholders' expectations and then examines every step of the process. Next, the team suggests solutions for a better process that reduces waste and promotes flow, based on the LHE principles. Finally, the process is constantly monitored and evaluated by performance measurements to continue making improvements to and ensure perfection of the process (Balzer, 2010). Rather than pushing services or works downstream to stakeholders of the process, LHE focuses on providing what is needed by people downstream in the process (Balzer, 2010; Fiona et al., 2007).

The highest aim of Lean Higher Education is to eliminate waste, so that resources can be put to more important use, in order to add value to other processes for stakeholders. As waste is reduced, LHE helps universities to provide high-quality services at reasonable costs in a timely manner (Arnheiter & Maleyeff, 2005; Balzer, 2010). Waste is categorised into four main types: people waste; process waste; information waste; and asset waste (Balzer, 2010; Fiona et al., 2007):

1. *People waste* results from failure to fully utilise the knowledge, abilities and skills of academics, university staff and employees. It results from mismatched goals of each subunit/department, unnecessary tasks or actions and delays in information, actions and/or resources;
2. *Process waste* results from flawed planning and implementation of processes, such as short-term focus, resources used to cover inconsistent and unpredictable outcomes of a process, lack of standards, duplication, disrupted process and monitoring, checking and correcting errors;

3. *Information waste* arises from incomplete and poor information including misinterpretation, missing information and incorrect, useless or irrelevant information;
4. *Asset waste* emerges from failure to exploit resources (facility, material and human). It also includes oversupply of resources, under-utilised property and/or equipment and unnecessary transport of people, information and/or materials.

Lean Higher Education looks at every process in organisation to eliminate waste and add value that stakeholders expect. Lean philosophy has been successfully exploited in many industries and now embraced within some sectors of higher education (Balzer, 2010). As Lean HE focuses on serving what is needed at the time it is needed, it creates efficiency and effectiveness for the operation process of the organisation exploiting it.

Although Lean management seems to bring countless benefits to the organisation implementing it (Balzer, 2010), at some point there may be diminishing returns when it does not yield the intended results (Arnheiter & Maleyeff, 2005). Arnheiter and Maleyeff found that many enterprises that implement Lean management also explore the advantages of Six Sigma, which is a similar kind of principle in reducing waste.

Although the literature suggests that LHE could be part of strategic leadership in business schools, only a few UK business schools implemented it, for example, Warwick Business School and Nottingham Business School. This suggests that more investigation is required to understand why lean management is restricted to a small group of institutions. There may, for example, be a question about its appropriateness for HE, although those that have adopted it are respected players in the UK business school scene.

The next section discusses literature on leadership and reviews the concept of distributed leadership, in which leadership at departmental levels is considered. This chapter concludes with strategic leadership.

Leadership in UK Higher Education

“It is not the strongest of the species that survive, not the most intelligent, but those most responsive to change.”

(Darwin, 1906)

In today’s dynamic world, it is important for educational institutions to be receptive and adaptable to change in order to survive. There are factors driving and hastening the movement toward change, such as globalisation, ‘knowledge society’, where Information Technology has completely changed the way we access information and, potentially, how we access education. Demand and expectation are increasing (McCaffery, 2004). In order for an educational institution to accommodate this changing context and these growing expectations, effective leadership is more than crucial than ever. Leadership has become a focus of study in HE because of the change in its structure and culture, from administration to executive management (Fielden, Lockwood, & Nind, 1973; Middlehurst, 2004; Middlehurst, Pope, & Wray, 1992, as cited in Middlehurst, Goreham, & Woodfield, 2009).

Leadership Theories

Leadership is an ancient art. The first written account dates back to the first century (McCaffery, 2004). Leadership has long been extensively researched by scholars. The definition of leadership has been widely discussed by researchers. For example, (Stogdill, 1950, p. 3) proposes that “leadership may be considered as the process of influencing the activities of an organised group in its effort towards goal setting and goal achievement”. For House et al. (1999, p. 184), organizational leadership is defined as “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to

contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation”. According to Yukl (2002, p.7), “leadership is a process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives”. These definitions suggest that “influencing people towards [an] organisation’s (common) goal” is a key theme. In addition, leadership is perceived to be important for achieving mutual commitment at both strategic and operational levels, as well as group and individual levels. It also provides vision, strategy and a means of achieving goals, and therefore it is related to quality (Middlehurst & Gordon, 1995).

Middlehurst (1999) explains leadership in three ways. First, it involves formal post-holders. Second, leadership as a function can be exercised at different levels, both through formal posts and informal delegation. Lastly, leadership as a process of social influence leads people in the organisation towards certain goals.

This section discusses leadership theories since 20th century, concentrating on recent theories that have contributed to current understandings of leadership, focusing on process rather than the obsolete ‘trait’ approach.

Trait Theories

The so-called great person theory or trait approach examines innate qualities of a person, including personality and physical and mental characteristics (Bernard, 1926). He believed that great leaders are born, not made, and in assessing these qualities, a leader can be identified and accordingly put into a leadership position. Trait theories were built on several assumptions: leadership is derived from the nature or characteristics a person has developed; particular qualities distinguish leaders from others; these qualities strengthen the power of leaders to influence other people’s actions; and, if these qualities could be distinguished through research, then it would be possible to identify prospective leaders through the process of screening and selection (Middlehurst, 1993).

However, this theory disregards situational and environmental factors that influence the effectiveness of leaders (Horner, 1997). Middlehurst (1993) observes that trait theory research failed to provide definitive evidence that these leadership qualities are related to effective leadership. Other problems with trait theories include the fact that people do not always show the same traits over time, that some traits may not be required in different circumstances (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989) and that traits themselves portray a static, one-dimensional perspective. This presents an incomplete explanation of leadership (Middlehurst, 1993).

Behavioural Theories

The focus of leadership theories shifted from trait theory to behavioural approaches, alongside the development of human relations approaches in organisational studies (Middlehurst, 1993). Behavioural theories focus on leaders' behaviours, their actions and their style of performing those actions (McCaffery, 2004; Middlehurst, 1993). However, the concept of traits related to leadership could still be seen in behavioural theories (Fiedler, 1972; Stogdill, 1948). This shift of focus from traits to behaviours led to the idea of leadership development – leaders could be made, not born (Middlehurst, 1993).

Two key aspects of leadership behaviour have been identified by researchers: task-oriented behaviour and relationship-oriented behaviour (McCaffery, 2004; Middlehurst, 1993). Task-oriented behaviour emphasises leaders' actions to achieve certain goals by, for example, directing, coordinating, planning and problem-solving. Relationship-oriented behaviour, on the other hand, emphasises the relational actions of the leaders, such as being supportive, friendly and consultative (Middlehurst, 1993).

Nonetheless, Middlehurst (1993) notes that researchers have had problems linking each type of behaviour to productive results, nor was it clear how these two approaches could be combined, although it was possible that different approaches might be required in different conditions.

Contingency Theories

To address this emerging complexity, contingency theories of leadership were developed. This approach highlights the influence of situational factors, including the nature of task, external environment and workforce competencies on the effectiveness of leadership (Middlehurst, 1993). Middlehurst (1993) observed that contingency theories are based on at least three assumptions: that for a leader to be effective, it requires different patterns of behaviour and qualities in different circumstances; that the nature of leadership is shaped by the dynamic interaction between leader and context; and that different demands, constraints and choices of leaders are affected by context and circumstances.

Extending the concept of task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership, Fiedler (1967) suggested that situational conditions and/or factors that determine the degree of influence a leader can exert include the quality of leader-member relationship, task structure, and the position of the leader in the organisation. Fiedler (1967) proposed that the success or failure of leadership not only depended on the leader's personality but also his or her degree of control over a situation.

House (1971) proposed path-goal theory, suggesting that it is the leader's task to determine the leadership style that is appropriate to the task environment and the employees' characteristics. Additionally, path-goal theory identifies four effective leadership styles: instrumental, focusing on clarification of roles and expectations and the structuring of the work process; supportive, emphasising the well-being and status of employees as shown by friendliness and approachability; participative, highlighting the leader's style of encouraging employees' involvement in the leader's decision-making process through consultation; and achievement-oriented, aiming at the achievement of high standards and high performance from employees (House, 1971; Middlehurst, 1993).

Social Exchange Theories

Social exchange theories represent a mutual relationship between leaders and employees, where leaders provide services, which may be in the form of financial rewards, social approval or psychological support, to employees in exchange for rewards, which may be in the form of group's approval or employees' compliance with the leader's request (Blau, 1964; Middlehurst, 1993). The development of social exchange theories influenced the emergence of two influential theories of leadership: transactional and transformational leadership.

Transactional Leadership

Burns (1978) proposes two contrasting theories of leadership: transactional leadership, a term was coined by Burns (1978), and transformational leadership, a concept suggested by Burns (1978) and adopted by other researchers (Middlehurst, 1993).

The theory of transactional leadership suggests a social exchange approach, in which the leader provides benefits, such as rewards and prestige in exchange for employees' compliance (Burns, 1978; Middlehurst, 1993). Building on Burns' theory of transactional leadership, Bass (1985) suggested that transactional leadership involves the use of contingent reward, when performance meets expected standards, and management-by-exception, where the leader will take action only when there are problems in performance. Additionally, Bass (1985) argues that transformational and transactional leadership is not an either/or option; both approaches can be used by a leader at different times and/or in different situations.

However, Burns (1978) pointed out that although transactional leadership might result in satisfactory performance, it will only have limited effect because the aspirations of the leader and employees are not necessarily addressed.

Transformational Leadership

The theory of transformational leadership, on the other hand, goes further. It addresses the issue of motivation and morality between leaders and employees (Burns, 1978). Therefore, transformational leadership involves both leaders and followers. With transformational leadership, leaders are interested in followers' motives. They endeavour to engage co-workers and build connections and relationships between them in order to raise (or transform) the motivation and morality of both sides (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2007). Transformational leadership focuses on Maslow's higher level of needs and motivations, i.e. self-esteem and self-actualisation (Burns, 1978).

Bass (1985) identified the elements of transformational leadership: charisma, which stimulates the sense of excitement, instils pride, and promotes respect and trust; inspiration, which involves setting an example of behaviour, articulating expectations, purposes and vision; individualised consideration, where personal attention, treatment of respect and trust, and encouragement for development are provided for each individual; and intellectual stimulation, where leaders encourage new ideas and perspectives for refocusing and resolving problems.

Although there has been a call for the adoption of transformational leadership in academic contexts, Middlehurst (1993) reports that leadership in higher education may require an emphasis on the inspirational component of leadership.

Other Leadership Theories

McCaffery (2004) brings together four more models of new leadership. First, *visionary leadership* (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1993), built on Burns' transformational theory, shares three major aspects of the latter: behaviours; personal characteristics; and organisational culture-building activities. Second, *learning organisation leadership* (Senge, 1990) argues that organisational learning may be the only source of sustainable competitive

advantage in current ever-changing environment. In Senge's theory, leadership is not restricted to those holding formal leadership positions but may be dispersed to staff at all levels. Third, *liberating leadership* focuses on creating "a climate of trust, empowerment, and stability by devolving authority and responsibility and harnesses the latent energy within its walls" (Turner 1998, as cited in McCaffery, 2004, p. 69). Finally, there is *discretionary leadership*, acknowledging that different institutions require different leadership approaches. Therefore, leaders should know the most appropriate leadership style to utilise in the organisation. This type of leadership is based on teamwork (Kakabadse, 2001; Kakabadse & Kakabadse, 1999).

All the leadership theories reviewed here examine the person in a formal leadership post, who they are and what they do. Although some of the theories, for instance the contingency theory, take context into consideration, the focus is on the leader's personality. These theories lack a holistic view of leadership, and this seems inadequate to explain leadership.

Newer theorists look at leadership as a social influencing process that places people at the centre of the phenomenon, involving values, beliefs, motivation and behaviour, where there is interaction between key actors in organisations. This concept proposes that there is no single actor in building and executing strategic agendas; instead, the emphasis is on the influence, amongst its members, exerted by different actors with different skills at play in a change process within an organisation (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Middlehurst, 1999; Northouse, 2007; Yukl, 1998).

The next section discusses the newer concept of distributed leadership and its application within higher education.

Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership is a pattern of leadership that has emerged since it has become apparent that, "leadership cannot rest on the shoulders of the few" (Hargreaves &

Fink, 2006, p. 95). Bolden et al. (2008) acknowledge that the practice of distributed leadership is increasingly prevalent in HE.

A broad-based or leadership-at-all-levels concept, distributed leadership is sometimes called *dispersed leadership*, *shared leadership* or *collective leadership*. It is a less formal approach to leadership (Bolden et al., 2008), based in the assumption that individuals have leadership capacity that will be needed by the group at some point (Harris, 2008). With this assumption, distributed leadership provides opportunity, with adequate support, for informal leaders to lead at different times (Harris, 2008).

Bolden et al. (2008, p. 11) argue that “individuals at all levels in the organisation and in all roles ... can exert leadership influence over their colleagues and thus influence the overall direction of the organisation”. They take this argument a step further when they assert that “without sharing of responsibilities, accountabilities and resources, the complex, varied and sometimes competing objectives of HEIs would be unachievable” (Bolden et al., 2008, p. 60).

Marshall (2007) views this leadership approach as a means to generate and sustain transformational and lasting change in organisations. This is consistent with Hargreaves and Fink’s (2006) idea that distributed leadership, which centres on learning, creates sustainability. Although the origin of distributed leadership is unclear, the idea is aligned with the concept of learning organisation leadership proposed by Senge (1990), which has a similar emphasis learning as a source of sustainability, with leadership dispersed at all levels.

In today’s workplaces leadership cannot be the remit of the senior management team alone, or of any other group. It requires input from individuals in the institution to determine the organisational future and then move the institution forward together (Middlehurst, 1999).

Distributed leadership is also found in the study of Bargh et al. (2000) of chief executives (Vice-Chancellors) in universities. They suggest that to achieve leadership at the chief executive level requires continual interaction and shared vision towards common goals. This means it is not a one-person show, but rather a collaboration that moves institution forward. Evidence provided by these authors suggests that distributed leadership could be a useful approach to leadership, particularly suitable for business schools because they are professional organisations. According to Macfarlane's (2011) work on the topic of professors as intellectual leaders, the professoriate perceive that their expertise is not fully exploited, providing opportunities to utilise professors' capacities for the benefit of the whole institution (Middlehurst & Kennie, 1995). While distributed leadership seems appropriate, therefore, it has not, as yet been adopted by UK higher education.

Bolden et al.'s (2008) study of 12 UK universities found that distributed leadership was perceived to be necessary in most of the universities they investigated and was welcomed by all interviewees. Bolden et al. (2008) argued that leadership is a too important function to be left to those with formal leadership roles. Therefore, both strategic and operational functions should be distributed at all levels. They further suggest that distributed leadership encourages financial transparency, managerial convenience (sharing responsibilities), responsiveness to decision-making, and teamwork and grows relationships between professional and academic staff by promoting communication in all directions (vertical and horizontal).

MacBeath, Oduro, and Waterhouse (2004, as cited in Bolden et al., 2008) define six forms that distributed leadership can take. MacBeath et al. (2004) remark that these can coexist and support each other:

- Formal distribution of financial and administrative authority through hierarchical structures;
- Pragmatic distribution devolved on ad hoc basis to meet challenges;
- Strategic distribution according to the appointment of individuals from outside the university to contribute new knowledge, skills and networks;

- Incremental distribution, where responsibility is given to those who exhibit leadership ability;
- Opportunistic distribution, when people are willing to do more and take a leading role; and
- Cultural distribution when leadership is taken and shared naturally and is part of organisational culture.

Bolden et al. (2008) remark that with formal distribution, leadership is not really distributed because the control is retained by the centre or top of the organisation. They also observe that financial responsibility is the most important feature in distributed leadership, because it leads to development. Without financial transparency, an entrepreneurial culture is unlikely, a model which McNay (1995) claims the UK universities are moving towards.

Bolden et al. (2008) further comment that research is the area where leadership is likely to be culturally and opportunistically distributed because it allows people who are willing and capable to lead to do so. Bolden et al. suggest that with distributed leadership, responsibilities among senior management teams are not tightly defined, enabling the team to be involved in activities across the university. Responsibilities are delegated according to context and/or events, while establishing organisational vision is the whole team's job. Bolden et al. recommend that a well-functioning top team allows distributed leadership to work in practice.

On the other hand, some heads of department may be reluctant to disperse control to colleagues, while others feel that even if they delegate responsibilities, they will be accountable for the final results themselves (Bolden et al., 2008).

Macfarlane (2011) proposes a different perspective on how leadership can be distributed to professors. In his study, six attributes of professors as leaders emerged: role model in terms of academic reputation and achievement; mentor for less experienced colleagues, nurturing their potential; advocate for their discipline and professional subjects as well as being intellectually active; guardian of the principles

of good academic standards, values and scholarship; acquirer of resources, research grants and contracts; and ambassador for their institutions in external relations both nationally and internationally.

Nonetheless, not everyone agrees about the concept of distributed leadership. While it is useful to disperse leadership to staff and give them opportunities to exploit their potential, Storey (2004) observes that there can be conflict about the boundary of decision-making because there is a lack of role clarity (Bolden et al., 2008). Bolden et al. also point out other limitations of distributed leadership: fragmentation of organisation, delay in the decision-making process and differences in individual capability/performance. Moreover, Bolden et al. argue that the meaning and practice of distributed leadership remain unclear. Middlehurst (1993) suggests that consistency in communications and clear instructions are important if distributed leadership is to work. Birnbaum (1992) also states that a clear and appropriate structure is crucial for successful distributed leadership.

Bolden et al. (2008) observe that distributed leadership cannot replace individual leadership but can complement it. They explain that individuals in organisations need strong and inspiring leadership from formal leaders to provide clear vision and direction, while distributed leadership creates a sense of common purpose and direction and can make them feel trusted. It also promotes communication and dialogue within an organisation.

Furthermore, Bolden et al. (2008) observe that a blend of vertical and horizontal leadership is crucial in corporate and entrepreneurial cultures, which are the models that UK universities are following (McNay, 1995). Vertical leadership involves top-down and bottom-up approaches, while horizontal leadership works across the organisation at different levels. Vertical leadership usually involves financial and line-management, while horizontal leadership usually involves expert power, credibility, and connections. However, their study reported that balance between the two is difficult to achieve in practice.

Surprisingly, although the majority of university staff in their study perceived distributed leadership as necessary, Bolden et al. (2008) found that in practice top-down (bureaucracy) and bottom-up (collegiality) approaches did not harmonize, and that leadership was not in place when it was needed. Direction and vision may not be consistent across the organisation because leadership is dispersed to many different units in the organisation, all potentially pursuing their own goals. Bolden et al. found that staff became disinterested and felt that leadership was ineffective. If leadership is too broadly distributed, responsibility for implementing actions is limited and decisions go round and round without agreement being reached. Therefore, distributed leadership could be perceived as impractical, while failure to achieve agreed goals can be a leadership problem in universities (Bolden et al., 2008).

Interestingly, Bolden et al.'s (2008) findings contradict what other researchers have advocated about distributed leadership (Bargh et al., 2000; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Harris, 2008; Marshall, 2007; Middlehurst, 2004; Senge, 1990). Bolden et al. (2008) propose that distributed leadership is merely a powerful rhetorical tool that is used to build social identities and relationship between academics and managers. They suggest that distributed leadership is no more than a political concept to be used by those with real power in order to hide power differentials.

However, Flessa (2009) remarks that politics within schools operate everywhere, as people pursue their own interests. The apparent exclusion of the political perspective in distributed leadership is a misconception both conceptually and strategically. Pearce (2004) suggests that the key is to know when to share leadership, how to develop shared leadership and how to exploit both vertical and shared leadership to make the most of capabilities of individuals in the institution. Hence, Fragueiro and Thomas's (2011) political perspective proposes that collegial organisations, like business schools, should decentralise operational control over how professionals deliver services to clients, and should centralise control over strategy, policy, standards, staffing and career structure.

This section reviewed theories of leadership from past to present. As a result, theories of transformational leadership and distributed leadership were the underpinning theories that informed this study. Transformational leadership shaped this study in relation to the concept of the social exchange process, where both leaders and followers engage with and influence each other. Distributed leadership influenced this study in terms of viewing leadership as a social influence process, where individuals in organisations interact with each other in order to lead the organisation toward achieving organisational goals. Therefore, these two theories of leadership formed the basis of this study of leadership in terms of leadership as the social process that involves both leaders and followers. In light of these theories, leadership was not limited to those in formal roles but could also include other people at various times and in various ways.

Departmental Leadership

Higher education institutions are complex and various in terms of structure, people and culture (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Cultures, in particular, seem to be divergent even within the same institution. Leadership practice should therefore recognise different cultures within the institution. Middlehurst et al. (2009) further argue that particular conditions and circumstances encountered by a department or leader will affect leadership in that department.

Bryman (2007) identified leadership behaviours associated with effectiveness at departmental and institutional levels. The key is that they create friendly environments where academics and staff feel comfortable working, so that their full potential can be reached and their interests are satisfied. He described leadership abilities as follows:

- Guiding direction;
- Providing structure to support that direction;
- Promoting an understanding and cooperative context;
- Being trustworthy;

- Holding on to personal integrity;
- Acting as a role model;
- Encouraging participation in consultation and decision-making;
- Promoting communication about developments;
- Representing department/institution to promote its causes as well as creating networks on its behalf;
- Appreciating existing cultures, and, at the same time, creating and spreading values through vision for the department/institution; and
- Maintaining staff autonomy.

Middlehurst and Gordon (1995) suggested that the ability to set direction and standards, build commitment, motivate, take risks, be creative and be innovative were key skills for leaders at different levels, for an institution to improve or achieve quality.

In pre-1992 universities (also applicable to their business schools), Bryman (2007) remarks that leadership roles at the departmental level are usually held on a temporary basis, making it hard for leaders to adopt a strategic perspective. Moreover, being a head of department was seen to be an obstacle rather than a career advancement, because they saw themselves as academics rather than as managers (Bryman, 2007). This might be because they had to dedicate research time to the demanding and challenging role of Dean or head (Bolden et al., 2008). Middlehurst (2007) echoes Bryman's argument that it is increasingly difficult to find academics who are willing to take on these management positions.

Nonetheless, this trend is changing. Bolden et al. (2008) suggest that some pre-1992 universities are considering permanent leadership roles, and the terms of office are increasingly considered on an individual basis. Furthermore, they suggest that the roles of departmental leadership are now perceived to be more strategic than the former predominantly operational and administrative function. Bolden et al. (2008) also observe that attitudes towards leadership and management in universities have changed.

At the departmental level, Knight and Trowler (2001) suggest that distributed leadership is the most appropriate style for departmental level and lower. Although Bryman (2007) questioned the source and evidence of Knight and Trowler's argument, Gibbs, Knapper, and Piccinin's (2009, p. 2) study of departmental leadership of teaching subsequently showed that distributed leadership operated in every department and that "leaders never created excellent teaching on their own". Despite this, Gibbs et al. (2009) observed that it was unusual to find individuals who "spontaneously and autonomously take action to develop teaching", while the roles of teaching development were usually allocated formally to individuals (ibid.). However, it is unclear whether distributed leadership, as Gibbs et al. claim, operates in every department or is merely a rhetorical tool, as Bolden et al. (2008) argued.

Gibbs et al. (2009) observed that collegial cultures are common in academic departments, while entrepreneurial cultures were also evident in one third of them. Middlehurst et al. (2009) proposed that exercising transformational leadership at institutional level and transactional leadership at departmental level would create alignment between institutional policies/strategies and departmental application of those policies/strategies.

Rayner, Fuller, McEwen, and Roberts (2010) proposed that professors could hold leadership roles because they are positioned at the top of an academic hierarchy. This was echoed by Goodall (2009), who argued that leaders of research-intensive universities were usually established scholars, because these universities prioritised quality of research, and in research-intensive universities, career advancement depends on publications. In contexts where both achievement and profile are required, management skills are not, therefore, adequate for the role of university leader (Goodall, 2009).

For the long-term benefit of higher education institutions, scholarly leaders are likely to achieve a better fit. Goodall's (2009) study showed that the research profile of a leader correlates to the performance of the university in world rankings. She

suggested that this was the same with business schools, although, more recently, business schools have appointed business people to leadership positions. Her study showed that business school whose Deans had higher levels of lifetime citations did better in the *Financial Times Global MBA Rankings*. Both universities and business schools at the top end of league tables do select highly cited scholars as their leaders. Furthermore, Goodall (2009) argued that quality research is associated with quality teaching because teaching materials are likely to be research-based.

Goodall (2009) suggested that leaders of knowledge-intensive institutions like universities or business schools should be selected on the basis of their expert knowledge. This confirms the argument of Rayner et al. (2010) that academic leaders should be expected to have respected research profiles and expertise in scholarship. Moreover, Goodall (2009) proposed that expert leaders may be better for the long-term performance of organisations with knowledge workers like universities.

Strategic Leadership

Strategic leadership provides long-term direction, linked to the organisational context (Davies & Davies, 2004). It is a process that links core values and vision to operational planning and actions (Davies, 2006). Put simply, strategic leadership translates vision into action.

Hitt et al. (2007, p. 376) defined strategic leadership as “the ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessary”. They proposed that strategic leaders are capable of motivating people with vision and managing human capital, especially in unstable environments and highly competitive contexts.

Hitt et al. (2007, p. 385) identified five functions of effective strategic leadership:

- Determining strategic direction, involving long-term vision and strategic intent;

- Establishing balanced organisational controls, strategically and financially;
- Effectively managing the resource portfolio, including human capital, financial capital, social capital (internal and external relationships) and organisational capital/culture;
- Sustaining an effective organisational culture, as a resource for competitive advantage; and
- Emphasising ethical practices, which enhance the effectiveness of processes in implementing strategies.

Hamidi (2009) defined six components of strategic leadership in universities:

- Staff empowerment;
- Strategic thinking to forecast the future strategies of institution;
- Team working and participation in decision-making to encourage the sense of involvement and enhance commitment of staff;
- Creativity and innovation;
- Shared vision to help institution to progress; and
- Cultural change.

Hamidi (2009) and Hitt et al. (2007) agree that changing organisational culture needs enthusiastic support and effective communication from leaders.

Strategic Staff Development

Bolden et al. (2008) suggested that leadership development was important, especially for the long-term future of institutions. Day (2001) explained the difference between leaders and leadership development: the former involves developing individuals who hold leadership roles, while the latter emphasises the process of engaging everyone in the institution collectively in the development process. However, from Bolden et al.'s (2008, p. 14) perspective, leader development was an “investment in human capital”, while leadership development was an “investment in social capital”. Nonetheless, they suggested that both leader and leadership development were

essential, and when referring to leadership development in their study, they meant both components.

Bolden et al. (2008) observed that the trend in leadership development was shifting from general programmes to customised programmes to suit staff at different levels. This was a result of the different skills, experiences, roles and delegation of responsibilities and functions. These development programmes tended to be on-going, provided for both in-post and potential leaders. There has been an emerging emphasis on providing development and support for individuals before they take up leadership roles. Moreover, Bolden et al. argued that coaching, mentoring and job shadowing are useful tools for leadership development.

At departmental levels, Bolden et al. (2008) observed that job shadowing and mentoring, prior to taking up a leadership role, were most beneficial. They found that development programmes were usually provided after individuals took up the role. However, they revealed that some institutions had begun to recognise the importance of the provision of such programme prior individuals taking up the role. In-house programmes can provide opportunities for departmental leaders to connect with senior leaders. Bolden et al. recommend that tailored programmes for faculties are particularly relevant and can create a sense of ownership for staff within faculties. They concluded that departmental leaders should be equipped with soft skills, like human resource management, with mentoring as one way of developing those skills (Bolden et al., 2008).

With regard to social capital, in addition to formal networks, institutions should recognise the importance of informal relationship as well, both within and across faculties. These can be utilised through lunches, coffee times and emails as forms of informal meeting (Bolden et al., 2008).

In conclusion, staff development is gaining importance in preparing potential leaders and supporting current leaders of HEIs. This study considers it part of human capital, which is a component of strategic leadership in UK business schools.

Strategic Leadership as a Process

As discussed above, Middlehurst (1999) explained leadership in higher education in three ways: leadership as a formal role; leadership as a function at different levels; and leadership as a process of social influence. Fragueiro and Thomas (2011), in relation to business schools, propose that a strategic leadership process engages the set of decisions, actions and events that are created by a set of key people in setting direction, influencing and implementing strategic choices to fulfil the organisational mission over time.

Although Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) have researched strategic leadership in business schools, their work is from the political perspective with little discussion of how business schools can sustain themselves. Further, their work examined distinguished cases of top European Business School with high international standing, which are very different from other European business schools.

Therefore, this study aims to fill the research gap by adopting their concept of strategic leadership as a process, but to investigate strategic leadership in UK business schools that were ranked in the top 100 of the *FT Global MBA Rankings*. This study sought to identify the effective components of strategic leadership for the competitiveness and financial sustainability of UK business schools.

Strategic Financial Leadership

The term strategic financial leadership was used by Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz (1998) in relation to Chief Financial Officers (CFOs) in healthcare organisations dealing with financial management challenges. They suggested that traditional financial measurement systems are inadequate for assessing the whole picture of business performance, and they advocated the use of a balanced scorecard measurement system (Kaplan & Norton, 1992) that measures both financial and non-

financial aspects of business performance. Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz (1998) further proposed that CFOs should adopt a strategic financial leadership function by taking four initiatives: implementing risk-measurement systems; ensuring that new information systems perform as expected; enhancing business performance measurement processes; and reengineering resource evaluation and allocation processes.

From Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz's (1998) perspective, strategic financial leadership involves the financial systems and performance of an organisation. However, including a balanced scorecard measurement system, Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz's (1998) strategic financial leadership could be used to assess other aspects of business performance than merely the financial aspect.

Conclusion

This literature review explored the background of UK higher education and business schools in order to explain the context for this study. It also discussed the topics of leadership and management in UK higher education and business schools in order to present current theories of leadership and management, identifying those that underpinned this study.

This review showed that leadership studies have long been the subject of research in business education and higher education. In comparison, there has been much less research on leadership in the business school sector, a research gap that this study could address.

This gap in business school leadership research prompted this study's exploration of existing leadership studies, in businesses and education, to see if it could be applied to the study of business school leadership. Therefore, this study sought to draw on multidisciplinary knowledge from different fields to create new knowledge that fills the research gap.

Hitt et al. (2007) provided this study's core idea of strategic leadership in business, while Hamidi (2009) provided the concept of strategic leadership in universities. Bolden et al. (2008) contributed the concept of distributed leadership in universities. Most importantly, Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) provided a framework for research on strategic leadership as a process in business schools. Because Fragueiro and Thomas's work focused on the political perspective of strategic leadership, with limited discussion on how business schools could sustainably support themselves, this study addressed this issue: how can UK business schools sustainably operate in the highly competitive global market?

More recent research by D'Alessio and Avolio (2011) added to knowledge of fundraising perceptions and activities in the UK business school sector. Yet, that work discusses mainly how fundraising could be accomplished. It lacks discussion of how UK business schools could be financially sustainable, which will be addressed in this thesis.

This chapter concludes with the two sections, explaining the formulation of the research questions and aims of this study.

Research Questions

Due to the challenges that UK business schools face, there seems to be a need for the leadership of business schools to navigate these challenges. Achieving competitiveness and financial sustainability may lessen their impact. However, the existing literature lacks discussion of how strategic leadership may build competitiveness and financial sustainability for UK business schools.

Therefore, the aims of this study were to identify the effective components of strategic leadership in business schools, as perceived by leaders in top UK business schools, and to propose a leadership model for the competitiveness and financial sustainability for UK business schools. It focused on the following questions:

Main question:

What are the views of leaders in top UK business schools on the components of strategic leadership that contributed to their schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability?

Sub-questions:

- a. What is the most important component of strategic leadership for business schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability, as perceived by leaders in top UK business schools?
- b. What are the views of leaders in top UK business schools on how the components of strategic leadership contributed to the schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability?
- c. Are there any differences in the views of individuals at different management levels within the same institution and between institutions?

Research Aims

- I. To investigate the views of business school leaders on how they perceived and experienced strategic leadership in leading and managing their institutions.
- II. To identify the views of business school leaders on the components of strategic leadership that they perceived as relevant to developing their schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability.
- III. To explore the views of business school leaders on how they utilised the components of strategic leadership in their institutions.

This chapter discussed relevant literature, explained the research gap and defined research questions and aims. The next chapter defines the methodology, research strategy and sampling strategy used in this study.

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH STRATEGY AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the research process for this study, from research design, research strategies and data collection, to data analysis. It provides justification of the research paradigm adopted for this research, along with strategies, methods and rationale for implementing it. This outline of the research process will make the case for the study's trustworthiness.

The term "methodology" refers to approaches to data collection and analysis, while the term "methods" refers to techniques for carrying out research (Silverman, 2005). Silverman suggests that selecting a suitable method is not a right or wrong choice but depends on usability and practicality. A combination of models and methods can be useful. Perhaps the most important principle is to select a method and model that are appropriate for the research topic.

Both quantitative and qualitative methods are reviewed and discussed here. The most basic explanation of the difference between quantitative and qualitative research is in terms of the forms of data these two types of research use. The former mainly involves numbers as data, while the latter mainly involves words as data (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Quantitative research aims to establish relationships between variables in order to explain or predict a phenomenon in order to be able to generalise findings to a wider population. Given the volume of data collected in quantitative research, it tends to provide broad but "shallow" data. It is unlikely to collect complex detail from an extensive number of participants, which is a requirement for quantitative research to achieve statistical power. As a result, quantitative research often seeks to simplify the diversity of responses in order to establish consensus or general patterns from responses. Furthermore, quantitative research tends to use a deductive approach to

test theory, with a fixed method, which is more difficult when researchers wish to shift the focus once data collection has started. Quantitative research also aims to detach the researcher from the researched in order to achieve impartiality and objectivity (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Originally, quantitative approaches were selected in investigations of leadership (Klenke, 2008). However, there were concerns about the limitations of quantitative research, usually associated with the positivist paradigm during the 1970s and 1980s (Gephart, 1999). Gephart (1999) argued that quantitative research usually misses out participants' meanings and interpretations from collected data; rather, it tends to apply outsiders' meanings and interpretations. Gephart (1999) argued that statistical samples in quantitative research do not represent particular social groups, which in turn do not allow understanding of individual cases. Additionally, Klenke (2008) remarks that quantitative research fails to examine the structure and context of the phenomenon under investigation. Klenke (2008) further criticises quantitative research for its positivist paradigm, which assumes that knowledge can be presented in a context-free manner and that results are generalizable.

By contrast, qualitative research uses words as data, aiming to capture facets of the social world, while considering and examining differences within data, in order to comprehend and interpret the meaning of a phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Creswell (1994) suggests that qualitative research involves a researcher building a complex and holistic picture, analysing words, presenting elaborated perspectives of participants and conducting research in natural settings. Qualitative research is discussed by notable qualitative scholars as involving an interpretive and naturalistic approach that studies a phenomenon in its natural settings and attempts to make sense of the phenomenon by interpreting the meanings that people bring to it (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, qualitative research explores a phenomenon by looking at it holistically at the contexts and structures around the phenomenon. As a result, qualitative inquiry allows a deeper understanding of the phenomenon because the contexts and settings are also included in the investigation (Creswell, 2007; Morrison, 2007). As the knowledge derived in qualitative research is context-

dependent, it is unlikely that the same accounts will be repeated every time by any researcher (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Furthermore, qualitative research is subjective, and subjectivity is acknowledged when analysing data. Subjectivity reflects researchers' values, histories, perspectives and assumptions as well as participants' experiences, values and perspectives. Due to its subjective nature, Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 20) state that, "there isn't a single right answer" in qualitative research and that, "there is more than one way of making meaning from the data we analyse". Therefore, the contexts where data are produced or collected are acknowledged and taken into account in analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013). In addition to subjectivity, reflexivity – the process of reflecting on the knowledge researchers acquire and their role in the production of that knowledge – is also required in a good qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

With a small number of participants, qualitative research tends to produce "narrow but rich" data, with detailed descriptions and complex narratives from participants (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 4). Furthermore, qualitative research tends to employ an inductive approach, working from data to develop theory. In qualitative research, the method is flexible, which allow a shift in focus as the research progresses. However, due to its interpretative nature, it usually takes longer to complete than quantitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Many scholars argue that qualitative research is becoming important for management and leadership studies due to the multidisciplinary nature of the field, and that the study of leadership should be context-dependent (Bryman, Stephens, & Campo, 1996; Conger, 1998; Klenke, 2008; Steiner, 2002). Moreover, due to the complexity of the leadership phenomenon, Conger (1998) suggests that qualitative research should play a vital role in leadership studies. Leadership phenomena are multi-dimensional, symbolic and dynamic in nature. As a result, Conger (1998, p. 109) argues that quantitative methods, which only allow generalisation of results across contexts at "relatively superficial levels", are inadequate to explore thoroughly such a complex phenomenon as leadership. Therefore, it is argued that qualitative research

can compensate for the limitations of quantitative research in leadership studies by providing contextual information of the phenomenon (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). By exploring leadership's multi-dimensional features, the depth and details of the phenomenon will be revealed, while the unexpected may be explored and brought to light (Conger, 1998).

Research Paradigms

According to Guba (1990, p. 17), a paradigm is “a basic set of beliefs that guides action”. Paradigms shape the research and methodological approaches. There are various paradigms in qualitative research: for example, positivism, post-positivism and constructivism are among the most common. Each paradigm influences research practice differently. Therefore, when choosing a research paradigm, researchers have to decide which one (or ones, if they are compatible) suits the nature of the study (Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

Furthermore, ontological and epistemological assumptions are also fundamental because they underpin and define a research paradigm. Ontological positions reflect the relationship between the world, human interactions and human practices, while epistemological positions reflect the nature of knowledge (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

In regard to qualitative research paradigms, positivism and constructivism are at opposite ends of the spectrum in social research, while post-positivism is a recent development of positivism, sitting somewhere on the line between the two. According to Gephart's (1999) paper on paradigms and research methods, the positivist paradigm assumes that the world is objective and can be measured by scientific methods. It aims to discover truth and facts using experimental or survey methods, so as to predict and explain causal relationships, as quantitatively specified, among key variables (Gephart, 1999). The ontological position of positivism is realism, suggesting that reality is real, independent from human minds but readily “apprehensible” (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Guba & Lincoln, 2008). The epistemological position of positivism represents the dualist/objectivist stance, where

the researcher is detached from the research and valid knowledge can be derived from using established scientific methods with variables controlled and biases removed to produce findings that are true (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Guba & Lincoln, 2008). The positivist methodology mainly involves quantitative experiments and hypothesis testing. Arguably, the positivist paradigm ignores the contexts of the phenomenon in the process of developing quantified measures (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

In the context of critiques of positivism's independent relationship between researcher and the researched, the post-positivist paradigm emerged as an amendment to positivism. Post-positivism is similar to positivism in terms of its ontological assumption that there exists an objective world that may be apprehended only imperfectly (Gephart, 1999; Guba & Lincoln, 2008), suggesting that observation and experiment are fallible. Gephart (1999) observes that in the post-positivist paradigm, facts and relationships between variables might only be probabilistic, not definitive. The epistemological position of the post-positivist paradigm is similar to that of positivism, representing the modified dualist/objectivist stance, in which the researcher is detached from the researched, with a further attempt to lessen the researcher's involvement in the research (Guba & Lincoln, 2008). In post-positivism, the epistemological assumption acknowledges subjectivity: the experience, knowledge and values of the researcher could influence the researched, but it aims, as much as possible, to control or remove it in order to achieve truth (Braun & Clarke, 2013). As with positivism, the post-positivist paradigm seeks to identify causal relationships, using modified experiments, hypotheses and deductive methodology, starting with theory and using data to test whether theory is valid or invalid (Alexander, 2012; Jones, Torres, & Arminio, 2006). However, although the post-positivist paradigm mainly involves quantitative methods, there has been a shift in its focus from quantitative to qualitative methods in attempts to address the methodological controversy about the limitations of quantitative methods (Gephart, 1999; Miles & Huberman, 1984).

By contrast, constructivism recognises that individuals create their own view of the world from experiences and knowledge (Guba, 1990). Before proceeding further, it is necessary to be clear about the terminology used in this study. Constructivism is often confused with constructionism. The former refers to “the meaning-making activity of the individual mind”, while the latter includes its focus on “the collective generation [and transmission] of meaning” (Crotty, 1998, p. 58). The constructivist paradigm is sometimes referred to as interpretivism. These two terms are often used interchangeably (Creswell, 2007; Mertens, 1998; Wellington, 2000). In order to avoid further confusion, this study will refer to the constructivist/interpretivist paradigm as constructivism.

Creswell (2007) suggests that in the constructivist paradigm, social members seek to understand their world by developing subjective meanings from their experiences, which are different and multiple. The constructivist paradigm, therefore, seeks reality from the complexity of perceptions and interprets reality from the perceptions of those who experience the phenomenon (Creswell, 2007; Jones et al., 2006). The ontological position of constructivism is relativism, suggesting that there are multiple realities (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), that there is no such thing as absolute truth and that reality is constructed by, local and specific to members of the social groups (Guba & Lincoln, 2008). Furthermore, relativism perceives that what is real or true is dependent on time and context, and that “what we can know reflects where and how knowledge is generated” (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 27).

The epistemological position of constructivism is transactional/subjectivist, suggesting that the researcher develops the understanding from participants’ views of a phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), that findings are created (Guba & Lincoln, 2008) and that the researcher is attached to the subject of the research. According to Creswell (2007), the aim of constructivist research is to rely as much as possible on participants’ perspectives of the phenomenon. Therefore, constructivist researchers attempt to interpret the world in terms of participants’ different experiences and perceptions. They investigate the meanings of phenomena from participants’ points of view (Morrison, 2007). The goal is to improve understanding of the phenomenon.

Constructivism generally involves an inductive method of analysis that develops a pattern of meanings from rich data (Alexander, 2012). The constructivist methodology may involve hermeneutical or interpretive methods and dialectical or discourse analysis (Guba & Lincoln, 2008).

For this study, aiming to explore the components of effective strategic leadership in UK business schools that UK business school leaders perceived as having contributed to the schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability, this meant setting out to understand effective strategic leadership from the viewpoints of participants who were leaders/managers of UK business schools and then identifying its components, as perceived by the participants.

This study set out to explore and examine in depth the knowledge and experiences from the perspectives of different leaders in the UK business schools, working in different contexts. It adopted the constructivist paradigm, which allowed for the complexity of perspectives to be investigated in order to make sense of how the phenomenon was experienced and constructed in the participants' worlds. As the perceptions, knowledge and experiences of the participants were primary in this research, the constructivist paradigm seemed most appropriate, as it allowed the researcher to foreground the meanings of the phenomenon from the participants' perspectives.

Furthermore, as this study assumed that there was no objective or absolute truth and that there were multiple realities, which were socially constructed by the participants in particular contexts and times, and that this would be reflected in their perceptions, the relativist ontology became particularly relevant to this study.

In addition, this study adopted the subjectivist epistemology, assuming that the researcher cannot be detached from the research topic, and that knowledge gained from the research was subjective and influenced by the researcher's experiences, values and perspective. Rather than attempting to prove the validity of the study results, as in the post-positivist paradigm, this study examined the lived experiences

of business school leaders, analysed data from the participants' perspectives, which are different and multiple, and then developed subjective understanding from the participants' interview data.

To do this, this study sought multiple perspectives of participants about the leadership phenomenon and attempted to interpret the data from participants' views in order to develop and understand a pattern of meanings from their experiences.

Precisely put, this study aimed to explore the participants' perspectives and experiences of the components of effective strategic leadership in UK business schools and how these were seen to help with the schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability. It sought to interpret interview data from the perspectives of participants and to understand how strategic leadership was experienced by the participants in their context. This study aimed thereby to enhance understanding of strategic leadership by making sense of how its components were perceived by participants. This adoption of a constructivist paradigm meant that rich data were required.

Research Design

Although qualitative inquiry can require flexibility and adjustment as the research progresses, it does not mean that a research design is not needed. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), qualitative researchers – especially new researchers – should at least outline the research design in order to provide focus and avoid information overload. Furthermore, they argue that there are two extremes of qualitative research design: the loose end and the tight end. The loose end refers to unstructured research design, while the tight end refers to structured research design. A loose research design, which is highly inductive, is more suitable for an experienced researcher with no time constraints, while a new researcher would benefit from a tighter research design. In addition, a loose research design is more suitable for research of under-researched or very complex phenomena, while a tight research design is more

appropriate for researchers who have some knowledge of a phenomenon but not enough to build theory (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Maxwell (2008, p. 215) suggests a broad research design or what he calls “an interactive model”. His model of research design presents five interrelating components: goals, conceptual framework, research questions, methods and validity (see Figure 3). He suggests that these are closely related and interact. Research questions are at the centre, linking all other components in the model. Goals, conceptual framework and research questions are linked, while research questions are also connected to methods and validity.

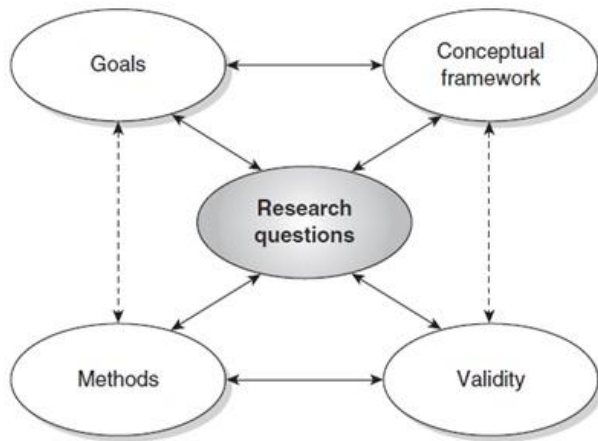


Figure 3: Interactive model of research design (Source: Maxwell, 2008, p. 217)

This study started with the goal of filling a gap in research on leadership in UK business schools. It then developed the main research question, which aimed to identify the views of leaders on the components of strategic leadership that they perceived as having contributed to the competitiveness and financial sustainability of their institutions. This study then proceeded to develop the conceptual framework based on the main research question, sub-questions and the review of literature. The research questions, framed by the constructivist paradigm, then influenced the choice of data collection method: semi-structured interviews with leaders/managers of UK business schools.

Reliability and validity (Figure 3) are considered unsuitable criteria for qualitative inquiry. Criteria for qualitative studies include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability, which are used to determine the trustworthiness of qualitative research (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Shenton, 2004). As a result, this study, which adopted the constructivist paradigm, aimed at achieving trustworthiness of qualitative research by addressing the issues of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability in this study, as discussed in the following sections.

Credibility

There are several techniques for establishing trustworthiness in qualitative research, such as member validation and triangulation (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Bryman, 2012). For this study, credibility was established by (a) using procedures of well-established research methods, (b) familiarisation with the culture of the participants' organisations, (c) triangulation, (d) checking participants' responses and (e) member validation.

- a) According to Shenton (2004), providing procedures of well-established research methods could promote the credibility of the research. Therefore, this chapter presents the research process of both the pilot study and the main study. It discusses the sampling strategy, choice of data collection methods, stages of the data collection process, ethical considerations and the stages of the data analysis process.
- b) Shenton (2004) also suggests that familiarisation with the culture of the participants' organisations before data collection could strengthen the credibility of the research. For this study, prior to interviews, the participants' background and their work context from information available publicly were examined in order to provide some understanding of the participants, their institutions and their cultures.

- c) Triangulation is one of the most established techniques for ensuring credibility in qualitative inquiry (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Bryman, 2012). The purpose of triangulation in constructivist research is not to prove that different data sources and inquiry methods produce the same results, but to identify and make sense of differences across data sources, in order to explain the phenomenon and reflect multiple realities (Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). There are four types of triangulation for qualitative research: methods triangulation, data source triangulation, analyst triangulation and theory/perspective triangulation (Patton, 2002). This study employed data source triangulation, for which the sources were informants, reports and websites. These were triangulated to add the trustworthiness to the research. This study examined several business schools in the different models. Therefore, it was reasonable to triangulate between the information from participants across institutions and models in order to explain the differences of perspectives. In addition, analyst triangulation was also employed in this study, with two supervisors and internal reviewers who were experienced researchers scrutinising the study. Additionally, the findings were shared with participants, inviting them to confirm the quality and trustworthiness of the findings as well as to offer comments and suggestions.
- d) According to Shenton (2004), qualitative inquiry also benefits from the use of “tactics” to assure the truthfulness of the participants. Shenton (2004, p. 66) suggests that giving the prospective participants opportunities to decline or withdraw participation in the project at any point, without the need to provide explanation, ensures that “only those who are genuinely willing to take part and prepared to offer data freely” will be included in the project. In addition, Shenton (2004) also proposes another “tactics”, such as encouraging participants from the beginning of each data collection session to be “frank”, by building rapport with them and assuring them that there are no “right answers” to the questions. Accordingly, Shenton (2004) argues that participants will feel more confident about sharing ideas and experiences in the research. For this study, suitable “tactics” were applied: potential

participants were offered an opportunity to decline participation or, if they initially agreed to participate, to withdraw from the project at any time. In addition to the basic ethical procedures that participants' identity would be kept confidential, this study offered extra assurance that the information given by the participants would not be disclosed, and the thesis would be labelled as confidential because some of the data was commercially sensitive. These techniques were to ensure that participants were willing to take part and felt confident about the confidentiality of information they were giving, rendering them comfortable to provide genuine and reliable data.

- e) Another important and common technique used by qualitative researchers to strengthen the credibility of research is member validation (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Bryman, 2012; Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Before analysis, all transcripts from telephone and face-to-face interviews were sent to the participants to check accuracy. At this stage, the participants were invited to offer amendments and corrections. After analysis, participants were given the summary of research findings and were asked to review and comment on them. This practice is particularly relevant to qualitative research, given its subjective nature, which involves understanding participants' meaning and experiences.

These procedures were designed to ensure that participants themselves judged the interpretations of their interview data to be correct and accurate (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Transferability

Instead of using the external validity or generalizability of quantitative research, qualitative researchers opt for establishing potential transferability by providing background and contextual information on the study and detailed description of the phenomenon under investigation to allow readers to determine if the research findings can be transferred to other situations (Shenton, 2004).

For this reason, this study would provide a comprehensive description of the phenomenon and the context, including the number of business schools taking part, the number of participants, the type of business school model at participating institutions, participants' attributes and backgrounds and the methods of data collection. This information provides a sound basis on which to judge the transferability of the research.

Dependability

While quantitative researchers may address the reliability issue, qualitative researchers opt for the issue of dependability. Dependability is fulfilled by providing detailed methodological processes used in the study, including problem formation, research design and execution, selection of participants, operational details of data collection, interview transcripts, decisions made during data analysis and evaluation of the effectiveness of the process (Bryman, 2008; Shenton, 2004). This study includes an account of the research design, research methods, detailed data collection including times and length of data collection sessions, the period of data collection (see Appendices VII and VIII) and analysis processes in order to allow readers to determine the dependability of this research.

Confirmability

In qualitative research, the issue of confirmability is more relevant than the parallel issue of objectivity in quantitative research. While it is acknowledged that complete objectivity is unattainable in social research, qualitative researchers are expected to demonstrate that they have "acted in good faith" or to exhibit that they have not allowed their personal values to overtly influence the conduct of the research and the findings (Bryman, 2012, p. 392). Therefore, confirmability can be accomplished by acknowledging investigator's own predisposition and triangulation to reduce researcher bias (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Shenton, 2004). This thesis therefore

includes the rationale for decisions about methods, disadvantages of techniques selected, initial theories that were abandoned and the audit trail.

Qualitative Interviewing as an Approach

As data from the main study were inadequate for case study research, the research approach in the main study was changed from case study to qualitative interviewing to accommodate the amount of data collected in the main study. This will be discussed in detail under the “Change of Research Approach” sub-section of the “Main Study” section. As a result, this section discusses the qualitative interview employed in the main study.

According to Klenke (2008), qualitative interviewing enables researchers to collect empirical data about participants’ social world by inviting them to discuss about their lives. Furthermore, Kvale (1996) argues that qualitative interviewing attempts to construct meaning and interpretation in the context of discussion, rather than serving merely as fact gathering. Researchers using this approach include Treviño, Brown, and Hartman’s (2003) study on ethical leadership, in which they adopted the qualitative interviewing approach in 40 semi-structured interviews conducted with corporate ethics/compliance officers and senior executives in medium-to-large US corporations.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe this as a human-as-instrument approach, to represent the position of the researchers in the data collection process, while Klenke (2008) points out that researchers using qualitative interviewing approach act as the primary data collection tool. Furthermore, Klenke (2008) suggests that the human-as-instrument concept is probably most apparent in qualitative interviewing using other approaches such as narrative analysis, ethnography and phenomenology. Human instrument is flexible (Klenke, 2008), responsive to the context (Merriam, 1998) and can cope with uncertain circumstances (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This leads to another concern about researchers’ sensitivity to how conversations are produced when analysing interview data (Rapley, 2001). This suggests that researchers are not

only the main instrument in data collection, but also the main instrument in data analysis.

Therefore, in this study the researcher served as the human instrument in both data collection and analysis. In the data collection process, the researcher was the sole investigator that collected information from all participants, acting as the interviewer for all email, telephone and face-to-face interviews. During the data analysis process, the researcher was also the sole investigator to code, categorise, organise, analyse and interpret the data, based on the participants' perspectives. The Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) NVivo software programme was merely used to assist the researcher with the management of a large volume of qualitative data.

Data Collection Methods

As the research question for this study was designed to explore the views of leaders in top UK business schools on the components of strategic leadership, this study employed qualitative interviewing to gather detailed data from participants' perspectives. The use of semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to adjust the interview questions to suit the different contexts of participants and their institutions, and at the same time allowed the required depth of data to be collected. Furthermore, the constructivist paradigm allowed the researcher to interpret the data and develop understandings from the participants' perspectives. Therefore, the constructivist qualitative research using qualitative interviewing seemed appropriate for this study's research question.

This study employed two sources of evidence widely used in qualitative inquiry, documentation and interview. The documentation used in this study included the FT Global MBA Rankings 2010, information about participants and their institutions from internet websites, a confidential report provided by a participant and news articles.

The FT Global MBA Rankings 2010 provided information about which UK business schools were in the top 100. This information was used in the selection of samples in this study.

The use of information from reliable internet websites enabled the researcher to access basic information about participants' backgrounds, their responsibilities and basic information about their institutions and settings. Furthermore, the advantage of information from internet websites was that it was relatively up-to-date.

The confidential report, provided by a leader for use in this study, contained comprehensive information of that leader's business school from the whole institution's perspective because its staff took part in writing it. This report could offset the limitation of getting insufficient information from the participant in that business school.

Moreover, the use of news articles was valuable for keeping this study up-to-date with the current situation of UK higher education and business schools. News articles provided the latest information that other documentation could not. The use of news articles in this study could offset the restraints of out-dated journal articles or other print material.

Additionally, the interviewing technique adopted in this study was semi-structured interviewing via email, telephone and face-to-face, depending on the availability of the participants. Semi-structured interviewing was employed to obtain in-depth information from participants with the flexibility for interview questions to accommodate the participants.

The use of different sources of data allowed the researcher to achieve triangulation in order to understand the phenomenon and explore multiple realities from different participants' perspectives (Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). Additionally, interviewing a number of participants from various types of business school allowed this study to triangulate the data for the similarities and differences of participants' perceptions

across the business school models. The triangulation of data sources is a means to enhance the trustworthiness of the research (Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The following sections discuss the pros and cons of face-to-face, telephone and email interviewing.

Face-to-face Interviewing

One of the main advantages of face-to-face (FTF) interviewing is that interviewer and interviewee are present in the same place and at the same time, allowing nonverbal language and paralanguage (i.e. intonation, pitch and volume) to be observed (Opdenakker, 2006).

With FTF interviewing, the interactions between questions, answers, interviewer and interviewee are immediate. As the answers are spontaneous, especially for in-depth and semi-structured interviews, the interviewer is expected to react quickly to the responses, maintain focus on the topic and get the study's main questions answered (Opdenakker, 2006). Gillham (2005) suggests the use of prompts and probes in FTF semi-structured interviews. Prompts are words or phrases, which could be prepared by the interviewer as reminders about the topics to be addressed in the interview, to introduce the topics that have not been mentioned by the interviewee or to encourage them to continue talking, while probes that could not be prepared prior to the interview, ask for clarification or justification of something the interviewee has said and to encourage the interviewee to elaborate on particular subjects. Probes could also be used by the interviewer to recap the interviewee's answers to check their intended meanings (Gillham, 2005).

Despite the advantages that FTF interviewing method brings, its main disadvantages are travel time and costs, especially when interviewer and interviewee are far apart (Opdenakker, 2006). Moreover, transcribing an interview is time-consuming, with a one-hour interview taking approximately five-to-six-hours of transcribing time

(Bryman, 2001; Gillham, 2005). However, the transcribing time may be even longer for researchers whose native language is different from that of interviewees.

Telephone Interviewing

The main advantages of telephone interviewing are its cost-effectiveness (Miller, 1995; Tausig & Freeman, 1988) and its potential for reaching wider groups of participants because interviewer and interviewee do not need to be physically present in the same place.

Therefore, interviews can be easily conducted even if the interviewer and interviewee are in different parts of the world, as long as they have access to telephones. Telephone interview also allows interviewers to reach people who are otherwise inaccessible (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004; Tausig & Freeman, 1988), such as single parents with small children, people with disabilities, people in limited access or dangerous areas (e.g. military, war zone, epidemic area, prison) and people with sensitive issues who are unwilling to be interviewed face-to-face (Fenig, Levav, Kohn, & Yei, 1993; Greenfield, Midanik, & Rogers, 2000; Mann & Stewart, 2000; Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). Sturges and Hanrahan (2004) further suggest that telephone interview may enhance the quality of data if interviewees feel more secure about the degree of privacy, and have more control over the social space (Holt, 2010).

Although there is a lack of information from nonverbal language (Creswell, 1998; Holt, 2010; Miller, 1995; Opdenakker, 2006; Stephens, 2007), because interviewer and interviewee are not in the same place, paralanguage can still be recognised from the interviewees' voices in phone interviews. Being synchronous in time, Gillham (2005) suggests that telephone interview techniques should include prompts and probes, as in FTF interviews.

However, although this may not always be the case, Opdenakker (2006) observes that telephone interviews may be disrupted if interviewees are visible to colleagues,

or they may be called away, causing the interview to stop midstream. Yet, in this instance it is easier for an interviewer to call back later for another telephone interview than with FTF interviews (Holt, 2010).

Gillham (2005) points out another potential disadvantage: people may perceive telephone interviews as unsolicited phone calls. Nevertheless, Gillham (2000) proposes that telephone interviewing is most suitable for small-scale research. He suggests that researchers can write or phone to introduce themselves and explain about the research and then make an arrangement for a telephone interview. Alternatively, if researchers already know the interviewees, they can contact them to arrange a telephone interview. Miller's (1995) study of conducting in-depth interviews via telephone suggests that it should be seriously considered as a practicable method which delivers more or less the same results as FTF interviews. Sturges and Hanrahan's (2004) study of the perception of correctional officers and visitors to prison concludes that interviewing methods do not have a significant effect on the quality of data, whether by FTF or telephone. This could be because their respondents were given the option of a method that suited them. It is likely, therefore, that the pros and cons of FTF and phone interviews will be perceived differently by different participants.

Email Interviewing

Email interviewing is different from email surveys. Meho (2006) argues that email interviewing is less structured than email surveys. Furthermore, Meho suggests that email interviewing involves a series of email communications between interviewer and interviewee over a period of time. The email interview enables the investigator to conduct an interview with much lower costs than FTF and telephone interviews. Interviewer and interviewees do not have to be in the same place at the same time. Hence, this method gives the interviewer a wider geographical reach (Meho, 2006), with access to people who would otherwise be difficult to reach (Lowndes, 2005).

There is a long list of researchers who used email interviewing in their research. Some researchers used email interviewing in addition to FTF interviews (Curasi, 2001; Meho & Tibbo, 2003; Murray, 2004; Murray & Harrison, 2004; Olivero & Lunt, 2004), while others used it as the only method (Foster, 1994; Hodgson, 2004; Karchmer, 2001; Kennedy, 2000; Kim, Brenner, Liang, & Asay, 2003; Lehu, 2004; Murray & Sixsmith, 1998; Murray, 1995; Persichitte, Young, & Tharp, 1997; Young, Persichitte, & Tharp, 1998).

Furthermore, this method also saves the interviewer time, as the interview is already in written form, so that no transcribing work is required (Lowndes, 2005; Opdenakker, 2006). It is also an advantage for interviewers who conduct interviews in languages other than their mother tongues (Bampton & Cowton, 2002).

Some researchers consider that email interviewing is appropriate for busy interviewees because no mutually convenient time is required (Bampton & Cowton, 2002; Lowndes, 2005). As interviewer and interviewee can write an email at their convenience (Bampton & Cowton, 2002; Opdenakker, 2006), email interviewing is viewed as “considerably less intrusive” (Lowndes, 2005, p. 108). However, this means that they must be literate (Gillham, 2005). Moreover, Bampton and Cowton (2002) point out that interviewees will also have time to search for information, which may mean that their answers are not as spontaneous, if the interviewee takes time to contemplate their answers (Opdenakker, 2006). However, that too could be considered an advantage. Lowndes (2005) proposes that email interviews can deliver deeper and more complex data than questionnaires and observation techniques.

Email interviewing is also suitable for interviewees who are uncomfortable participating in FTF or telephone interviews (Lowndes, 2005) or in cases that require absolute anonymity (Opdenakker, 2006), because interviewees can use pseudonyms, such as account names, and there is no direct speech, and therefore no concerns about voice recognition.

While FTF interviewing requires skills of the researcher carrying out the interview (Gillham, 2005), email interviewing is less demanding, as eye contact or active listening are not necessary (Lowndes, 2005).

However, the main drawback of email interviewing is the waiting time for responses (Bampton & Cowton, 2002). It can take days, weeks or months to get complete information from interviewees because of the asynchronicity of this method. It also depends on the number of participants, number of questions, participants' interest in the study, length of time that interviewer and interviewee can spend on the interview, internet access and the volume and quality of the data required. However, the longer an email interview takes, the greater the risk that participants will become tired of the interview, which may result in them leaving the interview unfinished (Bampton & Cowton, 2002; Hodgson, 2004; Meho, 2006). In addition, the email may be ignored (Lowndes, 2005) or may go straight to junk mail. Moreover, the interviewee may forget to reply or lose interest in the research (Opdenakker, 2006). In an attempt to mitigate this problem, the interviewer may send polite reminders at appropriate intervals of time to persuade interviewees to complete the interview (Meho, 2006; Meho & Tibbo, 2003; Opdenakker, 2006).

Another difficulty is the absence of both nonverbal language and paralanguage (Opdenakker, 2006), which may lead to communication barriers if the interviewer is not fluent in the interviewing language (Elron & Vigoda, 2003). Moreover, interview responses can sometimes be too informal for research purposes (Lowndes, 2005).

In an attempt to increase the response rate and reduce the drop-out rate of email interviewing, the interviewer can contact each interviewee individually, using an interesting subject line, telling them who the interviewer is, what the research is about and what issues will be covered in the questions, asking them to read the participant information sheet and consent form and then requesting their participation (Dillman, 2000; Meho, 2006). Additionally, Meho (2006) suggests that offering participants an incentive that could interest them can encourage participation. For example, the interviewer can offer participants a copy of the study's results, which

may benefit them in terms of increased understanding and new perspectives on the investigated phenomenon (Meho, 2006).

Interview questions need to be clear because opportunities to provide explanations are limited (Meho, 2006), unlike in FTF or telephone interviews. It is also suggested that interviewers should avoid putting questions in email attachments, because this may present software problems, which may prevent them from responding (Curasi, 2001; Dommeyer & Moriarty, 2000; Meho & Tibbo, 2003).

It is also recommended that questions are grouped, in order to avoid intimidating interviewees with a long list of questions (Bampton & Cowton, 2002) and also because semi-structured interviews are meant to prompt exchange and dialogue. However, Bampton and Cowton observe that there is a balance between asking too many questions in one episode of the email interview, which may result in delaying, and dividing questions into too many episodes, which may result in interviewee fatigue.

Additionally, Meho (2006) suggests that interviewers should provide interviewees with reasonable due dates, sending them one or two reminders a week before the deadline, including all information again in case participants are reluctant to admit that they have deleted previous emails. Bampton and Cowton (2002) also suggest that when waiting for participants to answer, a reminder should restate the questions more clearly, as non-responding participants may be unsure what the questions mean.

Furthermore, it is suggested that interviewers should note whether participants' responses become slower or less detailed, which might signal fading interest in the research. In this case, interviewer can refresh the interview by changing topic to reenergise the interviewees' enthusiasm (Bampton & Cowton, 2002; Meho, 2006).

The pros and cons of each interviewing method, as suggested by researchers in these sections, are summarised in Table 5.

Table 5: Summary of pros and cons of interviewing methods

Methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Face-to-face	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Nonverbal language and paralanguage- Immediate interaction and spontaneous answers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Time-consuming transcribing process- Travelling time and costs
Telephone	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Cost-effectiveness- Wider reach to interviewees with physical restriction- Paralanguage- Real-time interaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Lack of nonverbal language- Chance of interview being interrupted- Time-consuming transcribing process- Bad perception as unsought phone calls
Email	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Very low cost- Wider geographic reach and access- No need for transcribing- Advantageous for interviews that are not in the first language of interviewer- Appropriate for busy interviewees- Deeper and more complex data	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Lack of both nonverbal language and paralanguage- Waiting time for the reply- Risk of email being ignored or forgotten

Pilot Study

Before launching the main study, it is good practice to conduct a pilot study (Keats, 2000; Yin, 2009). This pilot study was run on a small scale to test the methods and interview questions for the main study. It was conducted with a highly ranked business school, employing the case study approach, using multiple sources of data. Secondary research was carried out from existing literature, journal articles, books, university league tables, news articles, the university website and strategic plan.

Before the pilot study, there was a pre-pilot study with two first-line managers of a faculty other than the Business School, which was used to test the interview questions, using semi-structured interviews.

The pilot study used semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire drawing on theories from studies reviewed in the previous chapter. The interviews were conducted with a middle manager and a senior manager of the Business School to obtain the managerial viewpoint. The interviews took place in their offices and lasted about 1 hour 30 minutes. In the interviews, they were asked about their institutional backgrounds, organisational cultures, strategic thinking and planning, strategic

direction, resources and performance management, reputation management, ethical practices, creativity and innovation.

The open-ended questionnaire was emailed to nine first-line managers of the Business School to obtain operational perspectives. The questions asked about their cultures, power structure, strategic leadership, leadership approach, staff management, risk management, quality and performance management. Only one questionnaire was completed and returned.

Learning from Pilot Study

It was extremely worthwhile doing this pilot study because it allowed for the methods and questions to be tested before launching the main study. There were difficulties with pilot study, mainly from gaining access to busy people.

Firstly, this study was intended to interview the Dean of the Business School, but the request was passed to another senior manager. Additionally, the outcome of the open-ended questionnaire with first-line managers in this study was not satisfactory, due to a very low response rate, even with a reminder email. The sole first-line manager who completed the questionnaire commented that the questions asked for lengthy answer and suggested that it could be better to use the format of the FTF interview, rather than a questionnaire. Moreover, a contact from the Association of Business Schools (ABS) suggested that participants would be more inclined to give up time for an interview than for an online survey. These problems with the questionnaire prompted the decision to change from open-ended questionnaire for first-line managers to semi-structured interviewing for all participants in the main study.

Main Study

Although FTF interviewing seems to be the optimal method for capturing rich data, it is the most expensive way to conduct interviews. Given that potential participants in the main study were dispersed all over the UK and that research funding was not granted for this study, travelling time and costs seemed to pose a barrier for conducting FTF interviews with all participants. Additionally, with a large volume of data, it seemed sensible to reduce the time and cost for transcribing. Hence, email interviewing was considered the most appropriate option for this study.

Sampling Strategy

Participants in this study would include senior managers, middle managers and first-line managers of reputable business schools in the UK. Due to the requirement that participants be knowledgeable about the subject, this study adopted a purposive sampling strategy, using homogeneous sampling, in which participants were selected who had similar characteristics (Patton, 2002). In this case, the participants were purposively selected to be senior/middle/first-line managers from top UK business schools. The rationale for this was that this study sought the experiences and perceptions of people in leadership and managerial positions from the similar type of institutions.

The choice of business schools was determined from the FT Global MBA Rankings 2010 (see Table 6). The FT ranking was used because of its widespread acceptance amongst business schools (Devinney et al., 2008; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011), particularly in the UK, as seen from references to FT rankings in institutional promotional and information materials.

Table 6: FT Global MBA Rankings 2010 (Source: Financial Times, 2010)

Current rank	3 year average rank	School name	Country	Weighted salary (US\$)	Salary percentage increase
1	1	London Business School	U.K.	142,340	124
16	18	University of Oxford: Saïd	U.K.	136,467	108
21	16	University of Cambridge: Judge	U.K.	125,690	110
24	24	Lancaster University Management School	U.K.	112,214	131
26	30	Cranfield School of Management	U.K.	133,886	89
32	35	Imperial College Business School	U.K.	120,306	107
40	31	Manchester Business School	U.K.	111,150	91
41	41	City University: Cass	U.K.	120,632	83
42	36	Warwick Business School	U.K.	110,700	86
51	41	University of Strathclyde Business School	U.K.	109,994	106
73	-	Aston Business School	U.K.	93,717	90
74	-	Durham Business School	U.K.	95,662	84
75	-	Birmingham Business School	U.K.	90,161	97
87	80	University of Bath School of Management	U.K.	103,640	69
89	76	Bradford School of Management/TiasNimbas Business School	U.K. / Netherlands / Germany	96,993	85
89	75	University of Edinburgh Business School	U.K.	98,256	73

The purposive homogenous samples included senior, middle and first-line managers in these 16 UK-based business schools in top 100 of the FT Global MBA Rankings 2010. The 2010 version was the most up-to-date at that time and was used in this study. All 16 were in research-led universities.

Participants

Having identified the sample for the main study, the next step was to contact this group via their institutional email, introducing the research, together with an endorsement from a contact that was well-known in the UK business school sector. The introductory email (Appendix I) informed them that they were asked to participate in semi-structured interview via email. The information sheet and participant consent form (Appendices II and III) were attached with the email to provide these potential participants with details of the project and what they were expected to do in the project.

Email interviewing was the primary method offered to the potential participants in the main study. If they accepted the invitation, they agreed to an email interview unless they suggested otherwise. Those who agreed to email interviews were agreeing to answer a series of questions via email, unless they asked for a one-off list of questions.

Some participants in this study did not have time for extended email correspondence and suggested either a telephone or FTF interview. If they requested a telephone or FTF interview, the researcher contacted their administrators to make arrangements. That is to say, the telephone and FTF interviewing methods were alternatives to email interviewing, according to participants' preferences. Appendix IV has details of acceptance emails from consenting participants. In addition, the interview protocol was created for this study in order to provide general procedures to follow when conducting research and to ensure consistency during the investigation. The question guide was developed in order to ensure that the main topics were addressed in each interview. The details of the interview protocol and the question guide used in the main study are shown in Appendix V.

From the group of purposive homogenous samples in those 16 UK business schools in the FT Global MBA Rankings 2010 (see Table 6), the total number of participants who took part in this study was 21 leaders/managers from 12 UK business schools. The participants operated at three management levels. Of the 21 leaders/managers,

seven were in senior management, eleven were in middle management, two were in first-line management, while one participant's management level was unidentified. This study also categorised participants and their business schools according to the business school models suggested by Fragueiro and Thomas (2011). Table 7 shows the number of participants from each institution by business school type. This allowed similar types of business school, with similar contexts, to be grouped together. This categorisation of the participants' management levels and types of business school later proved useful in the data analysis process, making it possible to interpret the data from participants' perspectives and conduct data triangulation to shed light on differences between perspectives and explore patterns of meaning in similar and different management levels and across business school models.

Table 7: Number of participants from each institution, by business school type

Types of Business School							
Quasi-US Model				Professionally-oriented Model			
Institution	Position	Sample	Method	Institution	Position	Sample	Method
A	Middle	1	FTF	C	Middle	2	Email
B	Unidentified	1	Email		Middle		Phone
I	Middle	1	FTF				
Social-science-based Model				Specialised Model			
Institution	Position	Sample	Method	Institution	Position	Sample	Method
D	Middle	1	Email				
F	Middle	3	Email	M	Middle	2	Email
	Middle		FTF				
	Senior		FTF				
G	First-line	2	Phone				
	Senior		Phone				
H	Middle	1	Email				
J	Senior	1	Email				
K	Middle	2	Phone				
	Senior		FTF				
L	First-line	4	Email		Senior	2	1
	Middle		Email				
	Senior		Email				
	Senior		FTF				
From 12 business schools		Senior	Middle	First-line	Total sample		
		7	11	2 + 1	21		

In Table 7, the number of participants in this study from each business school is listed according to their management level and Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) types of business school. The name of each business school was replaced with a letter randomly allocated to hide the institution's identity as well as the identity of participants. Participants' names were replaced with pseudonyms, and their job titles were replaced with categories of management level, namely, senior management,

middle management and first-line management. Table 8 presents information for the list of institutions, participants, their management levels and their choice of interviewing methods.

Table 8: List of institutions, participants and interviewing methods

Business Schools	Participants	FTF	Phone	Email
(A)	(Henry), Middle manager	✓		
(B)	(James), Unidentified			✓
(C)	(Larry), Middle manager			✓
	(Edward), Middle manager		✓	
(D)	(Thomas), Middle manager			✓
(F)	(Benjamin), Middle manager			✓
	(Catherine), Senior manager	✓		
	(George), Middle manager	✓		
(G)	(William), First-line manager		✓	
	(Charles), Senior manager		✓	
(H)	(Daniel), Middle manager			✓
(I)	(Frank), Middle manager	✓		
(J)	(Peter), Senior manager			✓
(K)	(Samantha), Middle manager		✓	
	(Phillip), Senior manager	✓		
(L)	(Sean), First-line manager			✓
	(Emma), Middle manager			✓
	(Neil), Senior manager			✓
	(Angela), Senior manager	✓		
(M)	(Albert), Middle manager			✓
	(Johnny), Senior manager			✓
Total		6	4	11

The categories of management level in this study were defined as follows:

- **Senior management level** – Deans and Vice-deans;
- **Middle management level** – Associate-deans, Deputy Deans, Directors and Faculty Managers;
- **First-line management level:** Heads of Department.

Change of Research Approach

Participation level for the main study turned out to be less than expected. From 213 potential participants in 16 business schools who were contacted, the final number of consenting participants comprised 21 from 12 business schools; 11 interviewed via email, six interviewed via FTF, and four interviewed via telephone (see Table 8). As

shown in Table 7, the number of consenting participants per each institution was one or two participants, with 3 or four participants in only two institutions, i.e. Business Schools F and L. However, although there were 3-4 participants from these two institutions, some did not finish their interview (via email), thus providing inadequate data for a case study, which requires comprehensive data from each case. If this study examined 12 business schools (cases), it would require several informants per case. This was not possible for the main study.

As a result, the main study method was changed from case study to qualitative interview, in order to provide sufficient data within the timeframe, resources and the uncontrollable issue of access to busy participants. Although the main study method was changed to qualitative interview, some features of the case study approach were retained. For example cross-case and within-case analyses took the form of comparison of participants' perspectives within the same institution, type and management level as well as between different institutions, types and management levels. The rationale for retaining this feature is that this study involved participants at different management levels and institutions. Analysis across and within management levels, institutions and school types could allow the development of explanations of differences in participants' views of the phenomenon under investigation. This also enhanced the trustworthiness of data triangulation for this qualitative study.

Lessons from Interviewing Methods

From the data collection process in the main study, it appeared that people in senior and middle management positions participated in this study more than people in first-line management positions. The main reason provided by those who declined to participate was workload and time constraints.

Moreover, data from FTF interviews were of the highest quality, with data from telephone interviews being of moderate quality, depending on the participants, while the data from the email interviews were of the lowest quality. In a one-hour time slot,

where they only answered orally, more information was collected in FTF interview than in any other of the other interview methods.

Furthermore, participants tended to allocate less time for telephone interviews, ranging from 10 to 30 minutes. Data from telephone interviews were therefore not as detailed as those collected via the FTF interviews.

Given the nature of the email interviewing method, which required participants to answer in writing, it took much more time for email interviewees to answer a question than for interviewees using other methods. For example, a one-hour FTF interview session allowed the participant to answer all the questions in detail, while the email interviewees might take one hour for only three questions, for the answers that would be as detailed as the ones obtained via FTF interviews. Given the level of engagement that participants committed to, it was extremely difficult for them to spare much time to engage with a series of lengthy email interactions. Furthermore, the email interviewing method restrained the opportunities for probing and deepening the inquiry.

Therefore, the quality of data from email interviews was relatively low because some participants only provided short answers and some dropped out of the interviews. As a result, the data from email interviews could not answer all topics but they were still useful when the data matched the topics of this study.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical concerns are important in qualitative research area and should be considered at every stage of research (Maxwell, 2008). It is a regulation of the University that researchers must apply for ethical approval before they can proceed with their research. Planning of this study's ethical application started at about the same time of planning the research design.

Due to the nature of the information type that this study looked for, it was very difficult to find participants who would be willing to provide this type of strategic information about their institutions. The potential participants of this study were managers from high performance business schools in a fiercely competitive UK market, and they held confidential information about their institutions that could be commercially sensitive. Therefore, it was essential that participants in this study were assured of confidentiality and ethical use of data they would provide.

The potential participants were given the information sheet and consent form (see Appendices II and III) with the introductory email (Appendix I) when they were first approached. The information sheet explained the purpose and importance of the study, gave details of what their participation would involve, the management and storage of data, and the incentive, which in this case was the summary of research findings. They were also assured that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time. They were promised the chance to read and amend their transcripts.

Data Analysis

According to Miles & Huberman (1994), researchers come to fieldwork with predetermined ideas. When I decided to do this study I had many ideas that I had developed in the course of different work experiences with senior managers in higher education in my country. My orienting conception was constructed through interactions with highly qualified people and my reading about strategic leadership and management, both theory and practice. When I found that the literature on strategic leadership and management in higher education settings was limited, I decided to explore this area that appeared to be generating relatively little research at that time. Therefore, I took the opportunity to create interdisciplinary knowledge, linking knowledge from the fields of business and education. I adapted ideas that were established in the business context to the higher education context, where the concept of strategic leadership was less familiar. All of these conceptions influenced how I planned and designed my research, as shown in the following Figures 4 and 5.

Conceptual Framework

The first step was to develop a conceptual framework (Figure 4), where ideas could be integrated to provide focus and direction for the research. This conceptual framework formed an initial direction for this study, which incorporated theoretical concepts as it progressed.

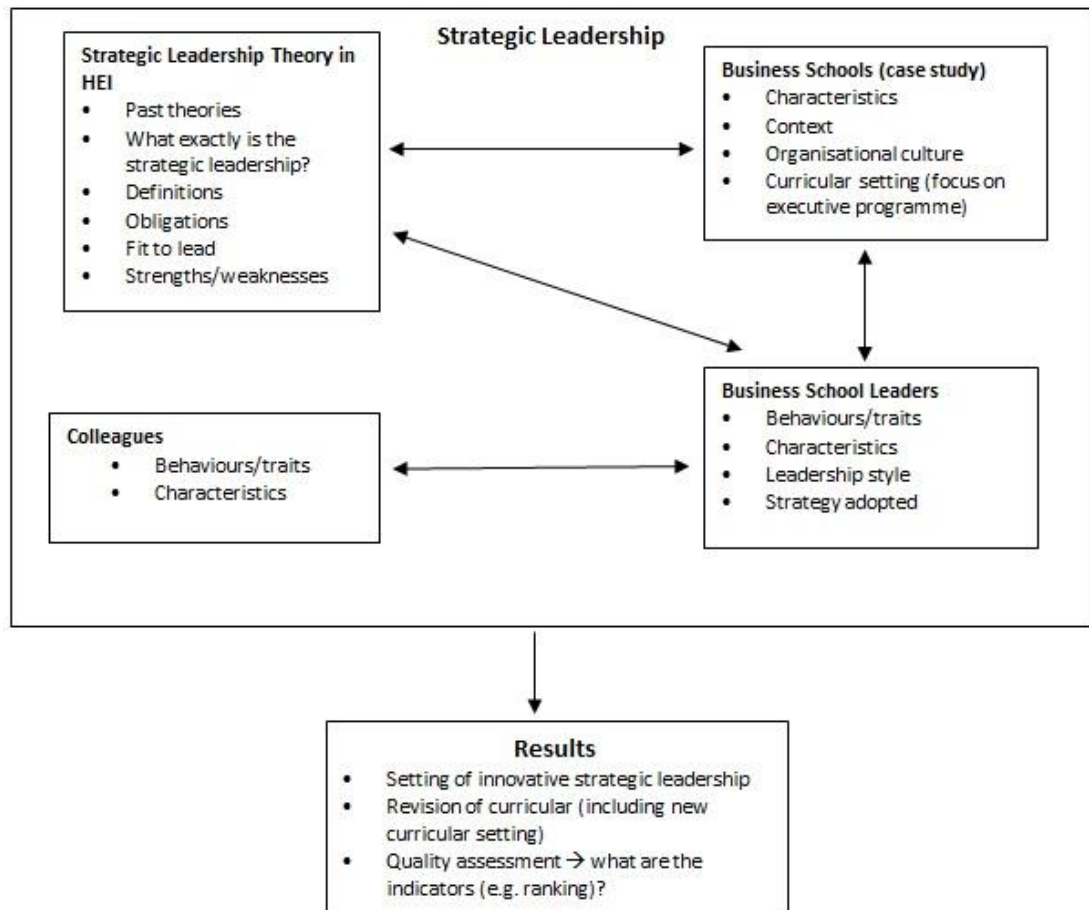


Figure 4: The conceptual framework

In the conceptual framework shown in Figure 4, four main constituents were recognised as explaining the phenomenon: strategic leadership theory, business school context, the leaders and colleagues. First, as the strategic leadership literature was relatively limited in the UK business school sector, literature was explored in other disciplines. Second, it included the characteristics, context and organisational culture of the types of business schools under study, as these were considered relevant to a study of business schools. Third, business school leaders were at the

heart of this study, as they played a key role in this research. This study aimed to explore leadership traits and styles, characteristics and strategies for managing and leading business schools to success. Fourth, the term ‘colleagues’ in this context referred to those working closely with business school leaders. They were considered as important as leaders, because leaders could not lead or manage business schools alone. They need management teams who can improve institutions’ standing. In this conceptual framework, it was planned to explore their traits and characteristics. In this study, the leaders and colleagues’ experiences and perceptions of strategic leadership were considered as critical information to be analysed and interpreted in order to establish a pattern of meanings from their views of the phenomenon.

The results box at the bottom of the framework was considered by the researcher as a result of the above constituents of strategic leadership in UK business schools. Innovative strategic leadership was meant to encourage innovation and use that innovation to create competitive advantage for business schools. Innovations in higher education emphasised up-to-date curricula that provide practical knowledge and keep abreast with the changing world. Quality assurance was considered crucial in the competitive business school market. In order to compete at the global level, business schools need to be accredited, assured and/or endorsed by various bodies whose standards are widely accepted by employers and students.

However, as the study progressed, the expectation of these results changed over time, as the researcher’s understanding developed. At the beginning of the study, the researcher believed that it was possible to create a model for innovative strategic leadership that would compile success factors for business schools to develop sustainably. As the study progressed, it became obvious that this was neither realistic nor practical, as the findings from such a qualitative study could not be generalised to all business schools, or even to those of a similar type. This was because each business school is different in terms of institutional background, context, positioning, strengths and competitive advantage. Nonetheless, the structure of this conceptual framework was still useful for organising the literature to be reviewed.

This conceptual framework in Figure 4 was then used to develop initial research questions. These questions were used as a guide for interview questions in the pilot study. Furthermore, this framework informed the development of the diagram of theoretical concepts in Figure 5, which was used throughout this study. The next section discusses the development of the diagram of theoretical concepts and its components.

Diagram of Theoretical Concepts

The development of the diagram of theoretical concepts (Figure 5) was informed by the analysis in the pilot study, which was informed by the conceptual framework in Figure 4. The diagram of theoretical concepts was created to integrate the concepts and theories that were considered relevant to the study and its main research question. At this stage, the main research questions and sub-questions were conceived from the pilot study analysis and result, which also influenced the revision of the interview questions for the main study.

Therefore, the components assembled in the diagram (Figure 5) were a result of the literature review and information from participants in the pilot study, which suggested that these components were relevant to strategic leadership in UK business schools. Hence, some concepts covered in the literature review chapter (i.e. new managerialism and distributed leadership) were excluded from this diagram of theoretical concepts because they were not discussed by participants in the pilot study. However, the concept of staff development was included in the main concept of effective resource management because it was considered relevant to the development of human capital.

The components of effective strategic leadership in UK business schools were derived from interdisciplinary literature, i.e. from the fields of business and education. The balanced scorecard component was derived from Hitt et al.'s (2007) discussion of balanced organisational control as a function of strategic leadership in business. The original version of balanced organisational control was Kaplan and

Norton's (1992) balanced scorecard. Hence, this component was included in the diagram of theoretical concepts. Furthermore, Hitt et al. (2007) also suggested other functions that influence strategic leadership in business: effective management of the resource portfolio, fostering ethical practices in the organisation and establishing its strategic direction. These components were discussed by participants in the pilot study and were, therefore, included in the diagram of theoretical concepts in Figure 5.



Figure 5: Diagram of theoretical concepts exhibiting the components of effective strategic leadership in UK business schools

Regarding the education literature, McNay's (1995) organisational culture was included in this study because the nature of qualitative inquiry requires researchers to investigate contextual information of the phenomenon. Furthermore, the topic of organisational cultures was discussed by participants in the pilot study. Therefore, the cultures of UK business schools in this study and the literature were also examined.

A concept of education that had already been adapted from business was the concept of Lean Higher Education (LHE), proposed by Balzer (2010). This concept aims to add value to, enhance the flow of and eliminate waste from university processes, by looking from the perspectives of stakeholders in each process (Balzer, 2010). This concept was included in the diagram because it was discussed by participants in the pilot study and because some of the high-performing business schools, such as Warwick Business School, were in the early stages of adopting this concept, and it was still new to the wider UK business school sector.

Furthermore, Hamidi's (2009) work on strategic leadership in medical sciences in higher education seemed relevant to an investigation of strategic leadership and HEIs. Therefore, this study embraced his proposed components of strategic leadership: shared vision and common goals, staff empowerment, strategic thinking and planning and creativity and innovation.

Wilson and McKiernan (2011) suggested that accreditation and rankings (including research assessment) are important factors in UK business schools' strategies. These three components – accreditation, rankings and quality output – were discussed at length by the participants in the pilot study. Research quality was included in this diagram as quality output. Therefore, these components were included in the diagram.

Lastly, the institutional background component was added by the researcher in order to create a more complex picture of the individual business school context, rather than merely using McNay's (1995) models, which might exclude in-depth understanding of contexts.

At this stage, the underlying theory of this diagram seemed to be the effective management of resources (Hitt et al. 2007), because its sub-components (i.e. human capital, organisational capital, social capital and financial capital) were extensively discussed by participants in the pilot study, and the components seemed to be related to other components, such as accreditation, rankings and quality output. This

diagram was used as a guide for interview questions, for both the pilot and the main study. Furthermore, the diagram was referred to during analysis of the pilot study data. Hence, some components of this diagram represented a set of *a priori* codes that were used in the deductive stage of coding in the main study.

These two sections explained the development of the conceptual framework and the diagram of theoretical concepts of this study. The next section discusses the rationale for choosing the analysis tools used in this study.

Analysis Tool

Examination of studies by other researchers in the field, particularly those that were relevant to this study, revealed that the Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) was widely used amongst qualitative researchers. With CAQDAS, researchers can organise and analyse various forms of data, from texts, pictures, audio files to video files.

The rationale for choosing CAQDAS for analysis in this study was that it allowed for the management of a large amount of qualitative data by easily categorising and retrieving data, counting events and fetching coded texts (Silverman, 2010). This software makes the analysis of qualitative data simpler than manual coding.

This study opted for NVivo for managing data because it was provided by the University and because it facilitates the organisation of qualitative data. Researchers can directly code unexpected data into emergent nodes (ideas), arranging them into themes, linking ideas together. With the NVivo programme, researchers can also create memos to record reflections and interpretations, and then link them to the data. As a study progresses, researchers can use the software to develop a model/framework that shows the connections and relationships in the data (Smyth, 2006). As the NVivo programme compiles all data coded under nodes, researchers can quickly retrieve what data (from various participants) have been coded under a particular node.

However, the software programme cannot perform the analysis. The NVivo programme is merely a tool to facilitate researchers' management and organisation of data (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Lacey & Luff, 2007).

The researcher decided to use professional transcription services for all FTF and telephone interviews. In addition to using professional transcription services to ensure that the voice-recorded data would not be misheard by the researcher, as a non-native English speaker, the transcripts were rechecked again by the researcher for the accuracy of the technical terms and jargon used by the interviewees. Later, the transcripts were sent to the participants to check for accuracy and intended meanings. These processes were designed to ensure that the transcriptions were accurate and reflected the participants' intentions.

Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis has been widely used by qualitative researchers, using different terms — e.g. thematic coding (Patton, 1990) or template analysis (King, 1998) — until in 2006 Braun and Clarke “named and claimed” this approach “thematic analysis”. Thematic analysis is an analytic method that involves organising and describing data in detail in order to identify, analyse and present themes within the data set and interpret data from different aspects of the research topic. Hence, thematic analysis involved seeking themes or patterns of meaning across a data set (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006). Although some researchers consider thematic analysis as a ‘tool’ rather than a ‘method’ (Boyatzis, 1998; Ryan & Bernard, 2000), Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 78) propose that thematic analysis should be considered as “a method in its own right”.

Furthermore, Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 78) propose thematic analysis as a foundation method of analysis for qualitative research, preparing researchers with useful “core skills” for conducting other forms of qualitative analysis. Thematic analysis is a simple method for inexperienced researchers. It provides a thick

description of the data while presenting similarities and differences across the data. It also allows for unexpected insights to emerge and social and/or psychological interpretation of the data to develop (Niell, 2011).

In thematic analysis, a theme does not necessarily represent a large coverage of the data set. Rather, it represents an important idea or point, with regard to the overall research question, perhaps in relation to existing and/or emerging theory and meaningful patterns in the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

According to Braun and Clarke (2013), there are four varieties of thematic analysis: inductive, theoretical or deductive, experiential and constructionist. Inductive thematic analysis seeks to develop an analysis using a bottom-up approach. With the inductive technique, the researcher is driven by the data not by a pre-existing coding frame, although the researcher's standpoint, disciplinary knowledge and epistemology will influence the analysis. The theoretical or deductive thematic analysis is likely to be driven by the researcher's standpoint, disciplinary knowledge and epistemology and shaped by existing theory and concepts. With experiential thematic analysis, the focus is on the participants' standpoint and how their world is experienced and made sense of by them. Lastly, with the constructionist thematic analysis, the focus is on how topics are constructed and how participants' accounts construct the world.

Themes identified in thematic analysis can be categorised as semantic or latent (Boyatzis, 1998). Braun and Clarke (2006) point out that thematic analysis generally involves one level. At the semantic level, the identification of themes is merely based on the explicit or surface meanings of the data. With the semantic approach, data are organised to show patterns in semantic content, summarised as interpretations and theorised the patterns, meanings and implications, often in relation to previous literature. By contrast, with the latent approach, analysis goes beyond the semantic approach by exploring underlying ideas, assumptions and concepts that influence the semantic content of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

However, there are criticisms of this approach. First, thematic analysis may be too flexible, so that it loses focus. Second, thematic analysis is subjective, influenced by researcher bias. Third, this method is descriptive, and unsuitable for hypothesis testing, and results are therefore not generalizable. Lastly, thematic analysis is labour-intensive and can create issues around reliability and validity (Niell, 2011).

Analysis Process

As discussed earlier, this project used NVivo as a tool to organise a large volume of data for qualitative analysis. The rich text data from email interviews, which were already in the written form, were put into the NVivo programme at the time the interviewees replied. Then, after all audio-recorded data from telephone and face-to-face interviews had been transcribed by a professional transcriber, the transcripts were sent to the participants for them to check for accuracy and to make amendments, if any. Next, the transcripts were also imported into the NVivo programme.

The transcripts were categorised into three groups according to the interviewing methods, i.e. face-to-face, telephone or email. In addition, participants were organised into groups according to their management levels and Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) business school models. As this study explored the components that were used by business school leaders in the UK, it looked at UK business schools collectively, not as an individual institution. Therefore, this study grouped these UK business schools into models based on Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) work. This grouping allowed the researcher to examine these UK business schools in an easily comprehensible manner because it categorised similar types of business schools with similar contexts together. The contexts of these business schools were important for the qualitative study adopting a constructivist paradigm because it included contextual information and the complexity of the phenomenon under investigation in the data analysis process. Organising participants according to management level and categorising business schools according to Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) models were steps to facilitate the exploration of the phenomenon's multiple realities, as

socially constructed by the leaders from the same and different management levels as well as types of UK business schools.

By adopting a thematic analysis approach, this study followed the six stages of thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006): (1) familiarisation with the data, (2) generating initial codes, (3) searching for themes, (4) reviewing themes, (5) defining and naming themes and (6) producing a report (see Figure 6). However, these stages are not exclusive to thematic analysis, as they are similar to other qualitative analysis stages, for example Ritchie and Spencer's (1994) framework analysis model.

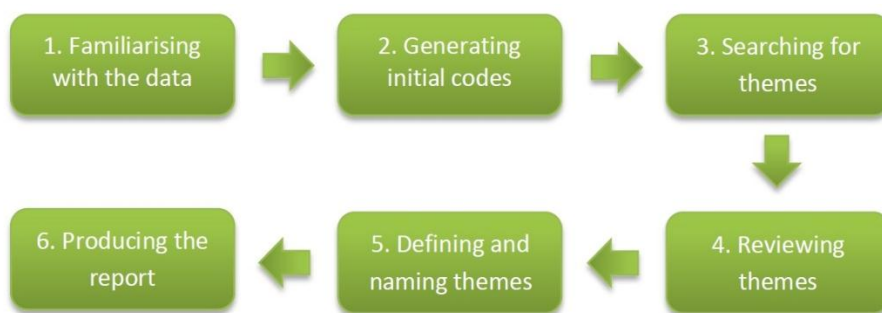


Figure 6: Thematic analysis stages (Source: Braun & Clarke, 2006)

For this study, the first, second and third stages of thematic analysis covered the period from May 2011 to January 2012 for the, while the fourth, fifth and sixth stages of analysis covered the period from February 2012 to February 2013.

1) Familiarisation with the Data

The first stage of familiarisation with the data involves repetitive reading of the data to become familiar with the key ideas (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994) and search for meanings and patterns (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Notes and annotations can be used to record reflections and thoughts that arise during the familiarisation stage (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009).

For the transcripts obtained from email interviews, I familiarised myself with the data by rearranging them into the Microsoft Word files in a form to be imported to NVivo. Rearranging the data, which had been sent via a number of correspondences with the participants, required me to repeatedly read the email interviews in order to sort the data into a proper order. Therefore, by the time the email interview transcripts were imported to NVivo, multiple readings had led to familiarisation with that set of data.

For the data from face-to-face and telephone interviews, although I myself did not transcribe the data, I read the transcripts carefully in order to check that the content was correct, because there could be technical terms or names that the transcriber would not know. Hence, being the interviewer in every interview and re-reading the data to ensure accuracy provided me with opportunities to familiarise myself with the data.

2) Generating Initial Codes

The next stage is generating initial codes (called nodes in the NVivo programme) from the data. Representing interesting ideas within the data, codes are also used to organise the data into meaningful categories. Codes are different from themes, which are usually broader and involve interpretative analysis of the data (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Tuckett, 2005). The key concepts and themes form the foundation of the thematic framework that is used to filter and categorise data (Chandler, 2009; Ritchie & Spencer, 1994; Srivastava & Thomson, 2009).

Chandler's (2009) manual for qualitative data analysis explains how to use NVivo for coding and managing data: initial coding starts with reading the data line by line, finding underlying concepts and marking (coding) relevant ideas and concepts as nodes in NVivo, which contains a list of recurring ideas. Then researchers can organise recurring ideas (nodes) into parent nodes that reveal themes or implicit topics (Chandler, 2009).

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that it is important at this stage to code as many potential patterns as possible because these might be interesting at later stages in the research. Also, researchers should code relevant data in the surrounding area of the extracts in order to preserve the context of the ideas. Furthermore, an individual extract of data can be coded into many different themes as long as it is relevant (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Subsequently, if the initial codes are too broad, subcategories can be created, or if the codes are too detailed, they can be combined into a broader idea (Tips for Analyzing Qualitative Data, 2007).

For this study, I employed the semantic level of thematic analysis. Therefore I merely sought explicit meanings from what participants said or wrote. Then I used theoretical thematic analysis. As this is a deductive technique, the analysis was theory-driven. Consequently, I approached the data with the knowledge of existing theory and theoretical concepts in mind, which were derived from my review of previous research (see Figure 5) as well as from my analysis of the pilot study.

At this point, it is important to briefly discuss the pilot study because the analysis of the pilot study was also driven by these theoretical concepts. Furthermore, the result of the pilot study also had an influence on data analysis in the main study.

The setting of interview questions for the pilot study was guided and shaped by these theoretical concepts (Figure 5). Subsequently, the interview questions in the pilot study that had been tested were then used in the main study, with additional interview questions as appropriate. In the analysis process, I employed theoretical thematic analysis, where I was influenced by these theoretical concepts when coding the pilot study. From several rounds of re-reading, I had coded the pilot study data into 25 free nodes: (1) accreditation; (2) balanced scorecard (BSC) customer lens; (3) BSC financial lens; (4) BSC internal business process lens; (5) BSC learning and growth lens; (6) collegiality; (7) creativity and innovation; (8) engagement with local community; (9) enterprise; (10) ethical practices; (11) financial capital; (12) human capital; (13) institutional background; (14) lean management; (15) organisational capital; (16) power structure and decision-making; (17) quality output; (18) ranking;

(19) recognition; (20) social capital; (21) strategic direction; (22) strategic leadership; (23) strategic thinking and planning; (24) transactional leadership; and (25) transformational leadership. All of these nodes, except the “transactional leadership” and “transformational leadership” nodes, were driven by the theoretical concepts in Figure 5. The “transactional leadership” and “transformational leadership” nodes were derived using the inductive approach of thematic analysis in the later rounds of re-reading and coding the data. Therefore, the main study was informed by the theoretical concepts and the set of 25 *a priori* codes from the pilot study.

Similarly, the main study employed both deductive and inductive techniques of thematic analysis. The combination of deductive and inductive techniques in thematic analysis has been deployed by a number of researchers and is known as a hybrid approach (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Heslop & McGough, 2012). For the main study, the process of coding started with theoretical thematic analysis or the deductive approach by exploring the entire data set with the theoretical concepts and the above set of *a priori* codes in mind. I repeatedly examined the data set for items that related to the research questions, theoretical concepts and *a priori* codes. When the deductive coding was complete, I continued with inductive coding in order to explore emergent ideas that also seemed relevant and important to the research questions but had not been coded into nodes in the previous stage.

Using the NVivo programme allowed me to easily code and name ideas as nodes, which could be organised and retrieved in a systematic manner. Although I also coded the relevant text surrounding extracts from the data, I also benefited from the NVivo function that provided an option to view quickly the context of a coded text, ensuring that context would not be lost in the analysis.

Upon completion of both deductive and inductive coding, I had a total of 69 initial codes as free nodes: 44 of which were emergent codes from the inductive approach and 25 of which were *a priori* codes from the pilot study and literature review. Table

9 presents the list of initial codes, with the *a priori* codes from the pilot study in shaded cells.

Table 9: List of initial codes

1. Accreditation	19. Different people, different leadership	37. Mission	55. Soft-skills development
2. Advisory board	20. Don't believe in leadership	38. Motivating colleagues	56. Staff management
3. Analytical tool	21. Effective resource management	39. Networking	57. Strategic alignment
4. Autonomy	22. Engagement with community	40. Organisational capital	58. Strategic direction
5. BSC customer lens	23. Enterprise	41. Organisational structure	59. Strategic focus
6. BSC financial lens	24. Ethical practices	42. Participative, Collective leadership	60. Strategic leadership
7. BSC internal business process lens	25. Executive education	43. Positioning	61. Strategic partnership
8. BSC learning and growth lens	26. Financial capital	44. Power structure and decision-making	62. Strategic priorities
9. Business school of future	27. Fundraising	45. Quality output	63. Strategic thinking and planning
10. Challenges	28. Hate concept of leadership	46. Ranking	64. Strategies
11. Collaborative leadership	29. Human capital	47. Recognition	65. Student recruitment
12. Collegiality	30. Imagination and knowledge	48. Relationship with stakeholders	66. Supportive environment
13. Competitive advantages	31. Incentives	49. Research performance	67. Transactional leadership
14. Confusion in leadership concept	32. Institutional background	50. Respond to employers' and students' needs	68. Transformational leadership
15. Contextual requirement for leadership	33. Internationalisation	51. Role and responsibilities	69. Values
16. Corporate connection	34. Key themes	52. Shared sense of direction	
17. Creativity and innovation	35. Key trends	53. Shared vision	
18. Curricular development	36. Lean management	54. Social capital	

After the long list of initial codes had been generated, the next stage of the thematic analysis was to search for themes from the coded data in the free nodes, described in the following section.

3) Searching for Themes

Upon completion of the initial coding, the third stage of thematic analysis begins. It is common that researchers have a long list of initial codes extracted from the

dataset. This stage involves analysis of themes, which are broader than codes. It involves organising different codes into potential themes after a collection of initial codes have been created. At this stage, researchers begin analysing codes and consider how they may be merged to form overarching themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that tables, diagrams, charts or mind-maps can be utilised to draw links and relationships between codes in order to facilitate the development of themes.

At this stage, researchers start thinking about relationships between codes, themes and sub-themes. This stage should finish with researchers having a set of potential themes and sub-themes. Some initial codes may be formed into main themes, while others may be formed into sub-themes. At the same time, there may be codes that do not belong in any theme. However, no initial codes should be abandoned at this stage, as they may be needed at the later stage of reviewing themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Therefore, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest creating a theme called ‘miscellaneous’ for codes that do not seem to belong to any theme.

For this study, in order to explore potential themes, this stage started with reviewing the long list of free nodes obtained from the initial coding and merging some repetitive and similar nodes. In the NVivo programme, these initial codes were in the form of free nodes, which could be merged or subcategorised if needed. I examined all these nodes (Table 9) to find ones that were repetitive, overlapping and/or similar. Nodes that shared similar concepts and broader ideas were then merged together, and some were renamed to reflect a more suitable meaning. The nodes that were merged and modified are as follows:

- a) The “engagement with community” node was merged with the “corporate connection” node because they shared the large part of the coded data. Additionally, the “networking” node was merged with the “corporate connection” node because the coded data in the former seemed to be a subcategory of the latter. Then, after re-reading the coding, I selected a new name to represent the merger of these three nodes: “industry linkages” node.

This node presented the coded data in relation to the participants' perceptions of how their institutions built and utilised networks, connections and linkages with business and industry.

Illustration A



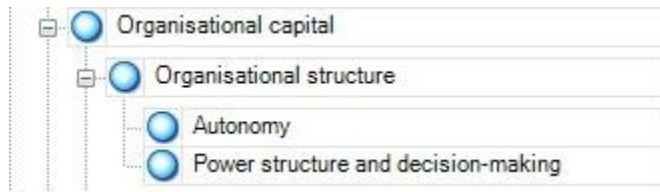
b) The three following nodes: “motivating colleagues”; “incentives”; and “recognition”, were merged into the “supportive environment” node. The coded data in the first three nodes were relevant to how participants in this study created and nurtured supportive environment in their institutions. Large parts of the coded data in these four nodes were similar, hence the consolidation of these four nodes, using the “supportive environment” node as the main one, as it represented the overall concept of the merged nodes.

Illustration B



c) At first, the “autonomy” and “power structure and decision-making” nodes were merged with the “organisational structure” node because these nodes were relevant to the structure of the organisation. Subsequently, the “organisational structure” node was merged with the “organisational capital” node according to Dess and Picken’s (1999) description of organisational capital as involving the structures, systems, processes, procedures and cultures that link an organisation’s resources.

Illustration C



d) The four nodes for “soft-skills development”, “respond to employers’ and students’ needs”, “research performance” and “curricular development” were merged into the “quality output” node. These nodes were all relevant to the broader idea of the performance of business schools in terms of the quality of students/graduates and the quality of education and research output.

Illustration D



e) The “relationships with stakeholders” node was merged with the “social capital” node because these two nodes largely overlapped. Furthermore, the former seemed to belong to the main social capital idea according to Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) and Hitt et al.’s (2007) definition of social capital as involving relationships – external or internal – that contribute to the organisation operating its business.

Illustration E



f) The three nodes for “strategic thinking and planning”, “internationalisation” and “strategic partnership” were merged with the

“strategies” node because the coded data in those three nodes seemed to suggest the same concept of strategies as a whole.

Illustration F



After the first modification of initial codes, I started exploring potential themes in the coded data. I reviewed all the codes again, this time by referring to the diagram of theoretical concepts in Figure 5 and the set of *a priori* codes from the pilot study. First, I looked for the codes that were derived from the theoretical or deductive coding, i.e. from the components in the diagram of theoretical concepts and the *a priori* codes. Those deductive codes that were heavily coded in the main study data and were relevant to the research questions were moved into a separate folder named “important deductive codes”. There were 15 nodes in this folder, as shown in Figure 7 as a list of important deductive codes.

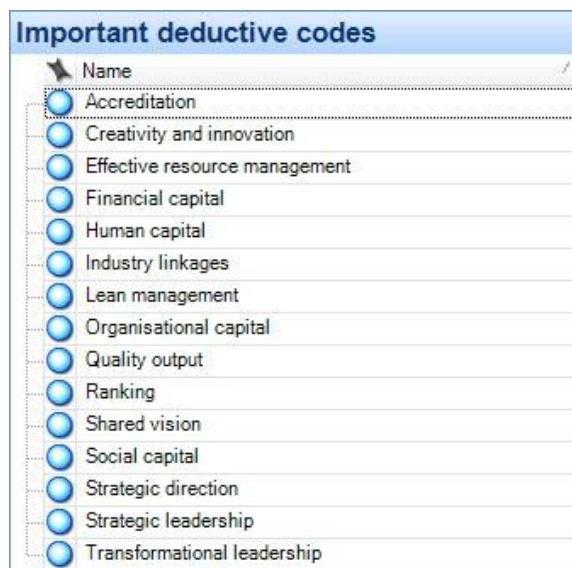


Figure 7: List of important deductive codes

Next, I created a folder for the nodes that arose from the inductive approach called “important inductive codes”, which contained five nodes that were heavily coded for and/or relevant to the research questions and to the other nodes in the “important deductive codes” folder. These five nodes are shown in Figure 8, as a list of important inductive codes.

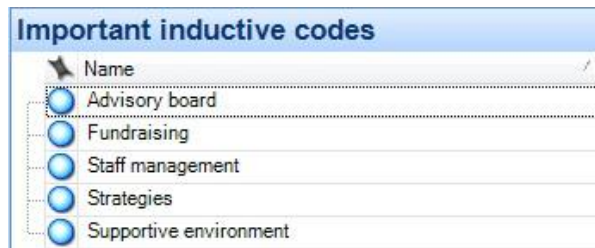


Figure 8: List of important inductive codes

At this time, I had two folders of potential themes: one from deductive coding and another from inductive coding. They were put in two different folders because the potential themes were explored separately by using the deductive technique first, followed by the inductive technique. In this way, a record could be kept of those that were derived from theoretical concepts and those that were emergent. Subsequently, I combined these important codes into one folder called “potential themes” in order to move them around and merge ones that seemed to form a theme together. At this point, relationships between the codes in these two folders could be explored and the theme could be configured, shown in Figure 9, as the potential themes.

Additionally, I created an initial thematic map (Figure 10) from the list of potential themes to illustrate the relationship between these codes and the process of developing the themes. Figure 10 shows that there were three groupings: “effective resource management”, “strategic leadership” and “reputation management”, while there were five items that, at this stage, did not yet belong with any items or groupings: “lean management”, “transformational leadership”, “creativity and innovation”, “quality output” and “strategies”. The details of the groupings of potential themes and sub-themes are as follows:



Figure 9: List of potential themes

3.1 Within the main “effective resource management” theme, I organised four relevant sub-themes: “social capital”, “organisational capital”, “human capital” and “financial capital”. This sorting was in accordance with Hitt et al.’s (2007) five functions that influence the effectiveness of strategic leadership, one of which is effective management of the resource portfolio or the four forms of capital named above. These four sub-themes contained their own child nodes or codes within them:

3.1.1. There were two items under the “social capital” sub-theme: the “advisory board” code and the “industry linkages” code. According to Hitt et al. (2007), external relationships that contribute to the success of an organisation and add value to stakeholders are considered part of social capital. Hence, this study included the “industry linkages” and “advisory board” codes in the “social capital” sub-theme, as these two codes represented external relationships that UK business schools utilised.

3.1.2. The “organisational capital” sub-theme contained the “supportive environment” code because the data extracts in the code suggested that it was related to the sub-theme. Culture, as in organisational capital, influenced the environment in these business schools. For example, institutions with a research-active culture provide an environment that nurtures good research. Therefore, I saw these two codes as connected and belonging together under the “organisational capital” theme, according to Dess and Picken’s (1999) description of organisational capital, mentioned earlier, it involves structures, systems, processes, procedures and cultures that create value for its customers and create sustainable competitive advantage for the organisation itself.

3.1.3. The “human capital” sub-theme contained the “staff management” code because the data extracts in the code were considered important for the “human capital” sub-theme in the sense that how business school leaders managed people could influence the effectiveness of their human capital.

3.1.4. The “financial capital” sub-theme contained the “fundraising” code because the data extracts in the code suggested that fundraising activities could increase the financial capital of business schools.

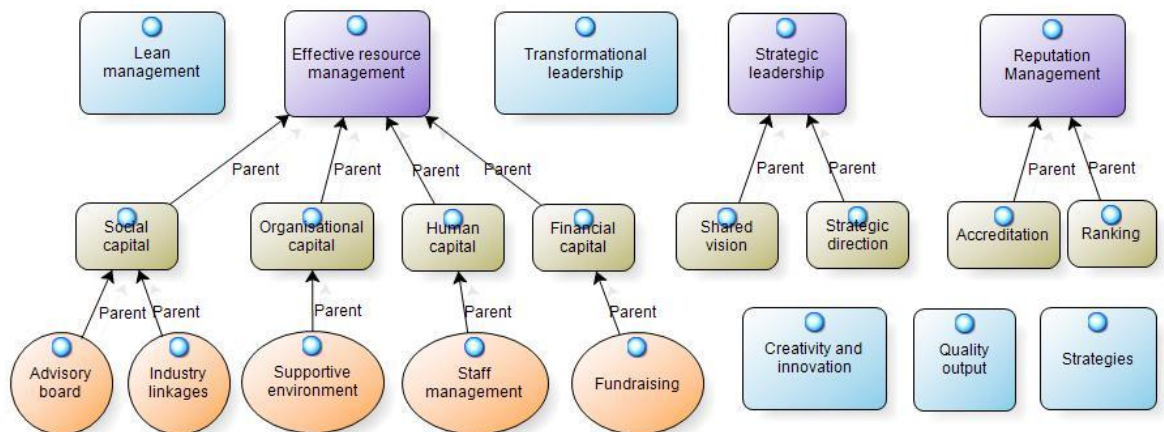


Figure 10: Initial thematic map

3.2 The second potential theme was “strategic leadership”. This theme contained the “shared vision” and “strategic direction” codes because the data extracts in the code suggested that strategic leadership involved vision, future and the direction (goals).

3.3 The third potential theme was “reputation management”, which contained the “accreditation” and “ranking” codes. The data extracts in these two codes represented how business schools made use of accreditations and rankings in establishing and maintaining their reputations in order to compete in the business education market.

As for the five remaining potential themes that had not been grouped, they would be reviewed in the next stage as part of the review of the overall themes.

The next section discusses how the candidate themes developed further and how connections between themes were constructed through the refinement process in the fourth stage.

4) Reviewing Themes

The fourth stage of reviewing themes is to refine potential themes developed in the third stage. At this stage, candidate themes may be dropped because the data do not support them, may be combined with others in one theme, while some may be divided into separate themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

At this stage coded data are examined to ensure they are coherent under the themes and that distinctions between themes are clear. If potential themes do not fit, the researcher should check whether the problem is the themes or the data. If the coded data in the potential themes present a consistent pattern, the researcher can now create a potential thematic map and then move to the next level of this stage (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

At level two, the researcher examines the validity of themes for the whole data set, whether the potential thematic map accurately represents the data set as a whole. It is normal for additional coding to be required within themes, as some content might have been missed in earlier coding stages. If the researcher is satisfied with the thematic map, analysis can move to the next stage. This stage ends with the researcher having a sufficient idea of the themes and their connections and the overall story of the data that the themes tell (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

For this study I started this stage by looking at all the data extracts in the potential themes and their codes obtained from the third stage. After examining the coded data and their potential connections between codes and themes, I reorganised the potential themes into the refined set of potential themes (Figure 11).

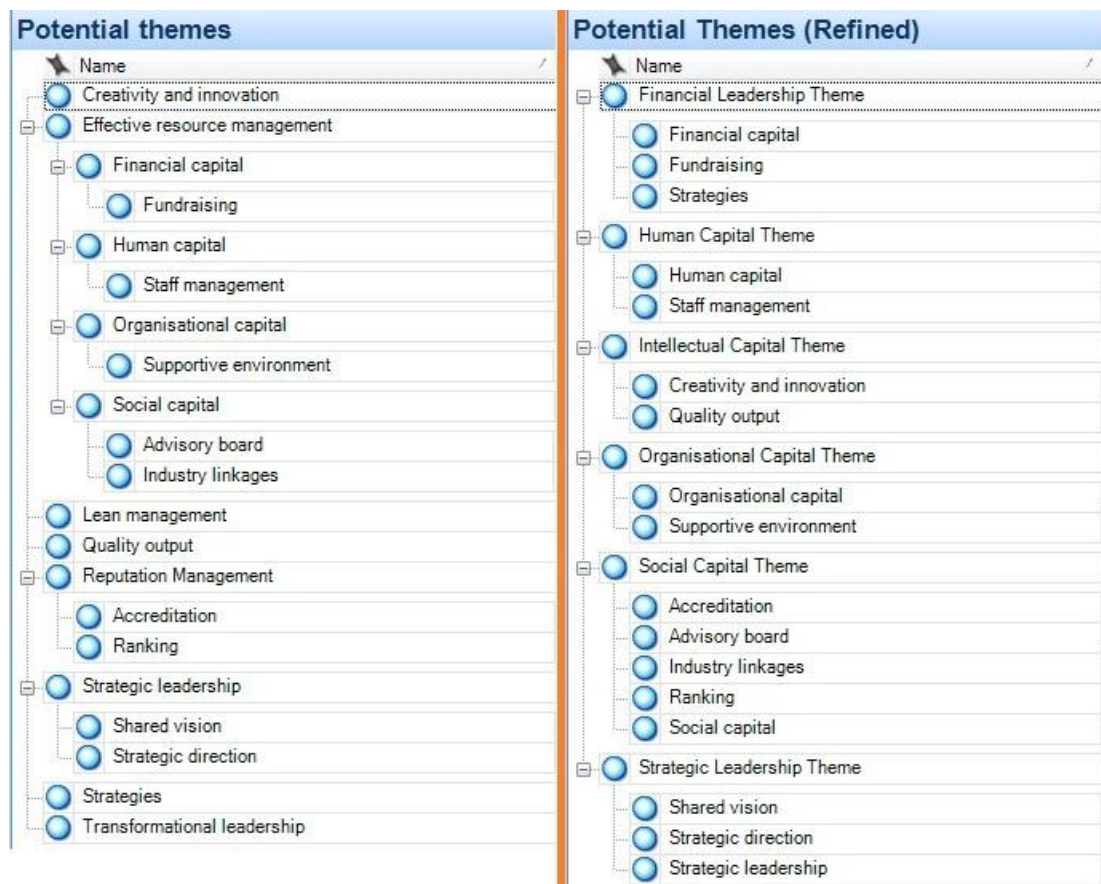


Figure 11: Comparison between the potential themes and the refined potential themes

Figure 11 shows, on the left side, the previous list of potential themes produced from the third stage (now called Figure 11a), while on the right side of the figure is the new list of refined potential themes that was revised in this fourth stage (now called Figure 11b). This shows that the “effective resource management” theme in Figure 11a is no longer in Figure 11b because I rearranged its sub-themes (i.e. “human capital”, “organisational capital” and “social capital”) as main themes, because there were connections between them and other themes. However, the former “financial capital” sub-theme in the main “effective resource management” theme was moved to form part of another theme, the “financial leadership” theme as shown at the top of Figure 11b.

The “financial leadership” theme (in Figure 11b) was newly created in this fourth stage. It combined the former “financial capital” sub-theme, which had contained the “fundraising” code, and another former “strategies” theme in order to develop into this new “financial leadership” theme. This theme conveyed that financial leadership could be the means to improve business schools’ competitiveness and financial sustainability, while the coded data in these three nodes represented the means that UK business schools adopted to achieve that.

Furthermore, the “creativity and innovation” and “quality output” themes in Figure 11a were combined to create the new “intellectual capital” theme, presented in Figure 11b because both these themes represented the ability and knowledge of business schools. This made these two themes more appropriate for the “intellectual capital” theme, represented by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) as the knowledge and the capability of knowing of a social entity.

Next, the “accreditation” and “ranking” codes were moved from the “reputation management” theme (in Figure 11a) to become part of the “social capital” theme (in Figure 11b), as, according to Fragueiro & Thomas (2011), reputation building is part of social capital. Therefore, these two codes were transferred to the “social capital”

theme because these codes represented the tools that UK business schools employed to build reputation.

In addition combining themes, this stage of analysis involved dropping some themes, including the main “effective resource management” theme, the “lean management” theme, the “reputation management” theme and the “transformational leadership” theme. The “effective resource management” theme was dropped because its sub-themes became main themes or became part of another theme. This rationale also applied to the “reputation management” theme that was dropped because the codes under the theme were moved to become part of another theme, as discussed above.

However, in the instances of dropping the “lean management” theme and the “transformational leadership” theme there were differences. The “lean management” theme was dropped because the coded data were insufficient for it to be a theme. This theme was originally included because it was part of the *a priori* code and might have had some important information for the main study. Nonetheless, the theme turned out to be insufficiently present in the data. The coded data were from only five participants in this study, and the information was brief and limited in detail. Two participants who discussed the topic of lean management were from the same institution but gave contradictory accounts. Therefore, I decided that this was not adequate for a theme or strong enough for making an argument about this topic. Hence, the “lean management” theme was dropped.

Likewise, the “transformational leadership” theme was originally included in the third stage because it had been an *a priori* code from the pilot study. It was dropped at this stage because the coded data in the theme were not prevalent, with the data came from only six participants in this study. Moreover, in the coded data, one of the six expressed an objection to the idea of transformational leadership. Furthermore, the data extracts in the “transformational leadership” code were also coded at other codes: for example: “human capital”, “strategic leadership”, “staff management”, “organisational capital” and “supportive environment” codes. This suggests a high

level of overlap between codes. Hence, this theme did not appear to fit with other themes in this study and was dropped.

Therefore, after reviewing potential themes obtained from the third stage of analysis, there were now six potential themes as shown in Figure 11b. These refined potential themes can be portrayed in the form of a developed thematic map as shown in Figure 12. In addition to the refined potential themes, this developed thematic map also illustrates potential connections between themes:

4.1 The “financial leadership” theme was seen as connecting with the “strategic leadership” theme, in the sense that the combination of these two themes could lead to the enhancement of the “human capital” theme.

4.2 Similarly, the “human capital” theme, was seen as having a connection with the “organisational capital” theme, in the sense that these two themes together could lead to the development of the “intellectual capital” theme.

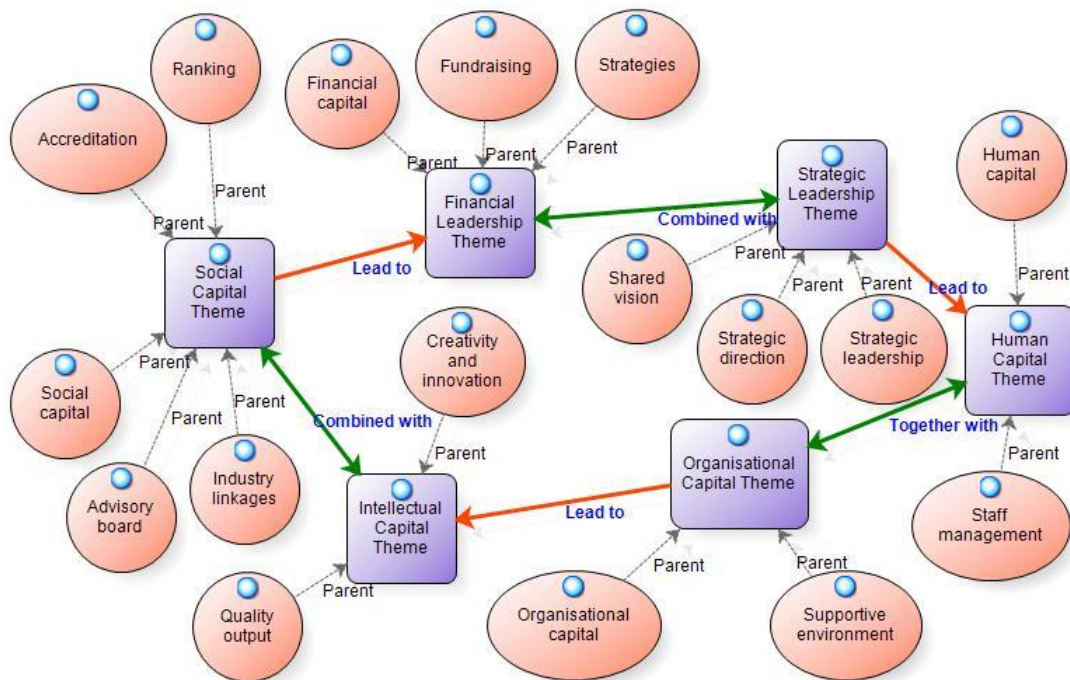


Figure 12: Developed thematic map

4.3 Likewise, the “intellectual capital” theme was seen as linking with the “social capital” theme, in the sense that the compound of these two themes could lead to the enhancement of the “financial leadership” theme.

This stage concludes at the developed thematic map (Figure 12), which shows the potential themes and connections between them. The next section discusses the fifth stage of further refinement of the themes and their connections to develop the accurate story of the data to be presented in the analysis report.

5) Defining and Naming Themes

The fifth stage begins after the researcher is satisfied with the thematic map. This stage involves defining and further refining the themes that will be presented in the analysis. This includes determining the essence of themes, in terms of what each one is about as well as the overall meaning of the themes, and defining the aspects of the data that each theme represents. At this stage, the researcher reviews and arranges the coded data in each theme in a coherent and consistent story and then backs up with the narrative. This stage includes presenting detailed descriptions of themes that are not only a paraphrased content of the data but also justification of the themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

In addition, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest, there needs to be detailed analysis of each theme, and that the story each theme tells should fit with the overall story the data tell, with regard to the research questions. Themes should not overlap too much. This stage should end with the researcher having clearly defined themes and concise names of themes to be used in the final analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

For this study, I started this stage by reviewing the data extracts in each theme in order to organise them according to the participants’ institution type, based on Fragueiro and Thomas (2011). The categorisation of participants according to their institutions allowed me to make comparison between each type. Once I had a

structure for the story, I started paraphrasing data extracts and to support with my own narrative as well as interpretation of the data.

Additionally, I defined each theme and reviewed the data extracts again in order to further refine the themes to finalise the names and the connections between them.

The details of the changes are as follows:

- The “strategic leadership” theme was renamed the “leadership” theme in order to reflect the broader concept than the former name did, to keep in line with the rename of its child code: “strategic leadership”.
- The “strategic leadership” code was renamed the “appropriate leadership” code in order to better represent its coded data, which suggested different preferences for leadership styles in the participants’ institutions.
- The “financial leadership” theme was renamed the “financial sustainability” theme in order to represent the overall story of the theme – that it was essentially about how the components of the themes could promote financial sustainability in participants’ institutions.
- The “strategies” code under the former “financial leadership” theme (now the “financial sustainability” theme) was renamed “strategies and tactics” in order to reflect the broad idea of the code, which was the result of the merger of “strategic thinking and planning”, “internationalisation” and “strategic partnership” codes, in the third stage.
- The “financial capital” code, also under the former “financial leadership” theme (now the “financial sustainability” theme), was renamed “income sources” in order to better represent the data under this code.
- The “strategic direction” code, under the “strategic leadership” theme, was renamed the “overall goals” code in order to represent the coded data that

were essentially about the overall goals that the participants said their institutions strived for.

- The “quality output” code, under the “intellectual capital” theme, was renamed the “quality of output” code.

At this stage, a fully developed thematic map was created. Connections between themes and codes were reviewed and adjusted in order to tell an accurate story of the data. The final thematic map is shown in Figure 13.

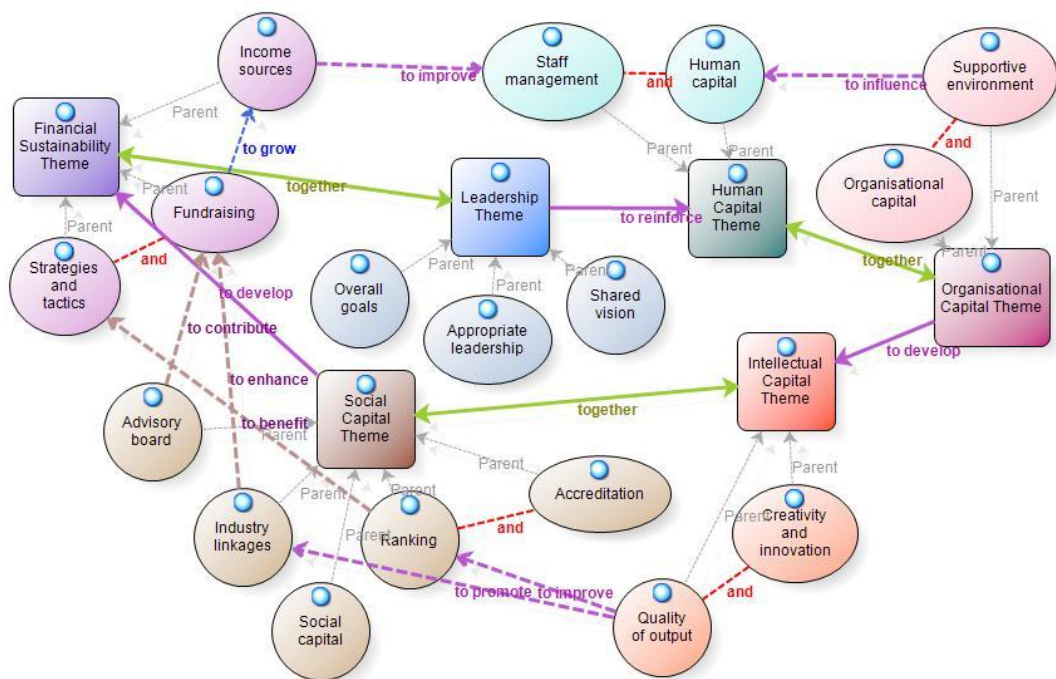


Figure 13: Final thematic map

Figure 13 shows the connections between components in the thematic map, starting at the “financial sustainability” theme – such that income sources could improve business schools’ staff management and human capital. Moreover, a supportive environment and organisational capital, under the “organisational capital” theme could also influence the effectiveness of business schools’ human capital. Then, the “human capital” theme and the “organisational capital” theme were seen as linked to the development of the “intellectual capital” theme, whose components (creativity

and innovation, and quality of output) were seen as connected to the improvement of business schools' accreditation and ranking as well as linkages with industry. Subsequently, accreditation and ranking could benefit business schools' setting of strategies and tactics, while their linkages with industry could enhance the success of their fundraising activities. Furthermore, the "advisory board" code within the "social capital" theme could contribute to business schools' fundraising efforts. Therefore, the "social capital" theme was seen as having an influence on the components of the "financial sustainability" theme (strategies and tactics, and fundraising), which could grow the income sources of the institutions, which could feed resources back into the cycle. Furthermore, the "leadership" theme was seen as the heart of the model, underpinning other components in the model to provide the foundation for actions and to achieve competitiveness and financial sustainability in business schools. The details of this model and its connections are discussed in depth in chapter seven.

6) Producing the Report

The final stage begins once there is a group of fully developed themes. This stage involves the final analysis and the writing up of a report to illustrate the detailed descriptions of the analysis with a concise, coherent and logical story of the data to prove the validity of the analysis. It is necessary that this report presents sufficient evidence, such as data extracts, to demonstrate the prevalence of themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In addition, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that data extracts included in the report should capture the essence of participants' points and should clearly be seen as examples of the issue being addressed in the research. These data extracts should be embedded within an analytic narrative that should include reasonable arguments relevant to the research questions. For this study, the work of this stage is discussed in chapters four, five, and six.

CHAPTER IV: LEADERSHIP THEME

Chapter four presents the “leadership” theme. This chapter involves the fifth and sixth stages of thematic analysis, as outlined in the previous chapter, in which the themes were refined and prepared for presentation in a report. Therefore, this chapter discusses the combination of the “appropriate leadership”, “shared vision” and “overall goals” codes into the main “leadership” theme. It reviews the concept of leadership from the participants’ perspectives and discusses their perceptions of shared vision and overall goals/purposes in their institutions. In doing so, this chapter aims to answer the following question: From their experiences, how did the business school leaders perceive leadership, vision and goals within their institutions?

Introduction

The origin of the leadership concept in this study arose from the review of literature involving leadership theories in educational institutions and other organisations. The theories of leadership underlying this research were transformational leadership and distributed leadership. Distributed leadership is of particular importance in the context of educational institutions (Bargh et al., 2000; Bolden et al., 2008; Harris, 2008; Macfarlane, 2011; Middlehurst, 1993; Storey, 2004). In addition to these underlying theories of leadership, this research also examined the function of strategic leadership in education, not specific to the business school sector. However, it gave a basic idea of how strategic leadership was understood and applied in education.

Strategic leadership has been suggested as a crucial component for the effective development of educational institutions because it provides strategic direction and translates vision into operational actions (Davies, 2006; Davies & Davies, 2004, 2006). Hence, this idea formed a fundamental part of the theoretical concepts for this study.

Two years after this study commenced, Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) published a book entitled “Strategic leadership in the business school: keeping one step ahead”. They discussed the interaction between key actors in business schools and their internal and external contexts. However, discussion of the financial perspective was limited. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the issues of financial sustainability and competitiveness of UK business schools, to be discussed in later chapters.

Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) emphasised strategic leadership as an important component for higher education and the business school sector in particular. Therefore, this thesis included the topic of strategic leadership in the research questions as well as the interview questions.

From the literature, the concept of strategic leadership in this thesis was influenced by the following scholars. For the subject of strategic leadership in the business context, this study has been influenced by the works of Hitt et al. (2007) and the works of Davies (2006) and Davies and Davies (2004, 2006) for strategic leadership in the education context. It then narrowed down into strategic leadership literature in the higher education context, influenced by Hamidi (2009), and then onto strategic leadership in the business school context influenced by Fragueiro (2007) and Fragueiro and Thomas (2011).

This “leadership” theme focuses on participants’ perceptions of the leadership concept. The interview data in this study suggested a definition of strategic leadership that was similar to that of Hitt et al. (2007), which involves “the ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessary”. From the participants’ perspectives, it seemed that strategic leadership was engaged with vision, direction, goals and purpose. Hence, the “leadership” theme includes “appropriate leadership”, “shared vision” and “overall goals” codes.

Participants' and institutions' profiles

The table of participants' and institutions' profiles is presented in Table 10 in order to foreground information that influenced the analysis. Table 10 shows the name of the participants, the business school they worked in, their institution's business school model, the numbers of accreditations their institution obtained, their rankings arranged in four groups of 25 institutions each, their management level and whether they had had business experience.

Table 10: Participants' and institutions' profile

Participant	Business School	Business School Model	Accreditation	FT Rankings 2010	Management level	Business experience
Henry	A	Quasi-US	3	1-25	Middle	Yes
James	B	Quasi-US	1	1-25	N/A	No
Edward	C	Professionally-oriented	3	26-50	Middle	Yes
Larry	C	Professionally-oriented	3	26-50	Middle	Yes
Thomas	D	Social-science-based	3	26-50	Middle	No
Benjamin	F	Social-science-based	3	51-75	Middle	Yes
Catherine	F	Social-science-based	3	51-75	Senior	Yes
George	F	Social-science-based	3	51-75	Middle	Yes
Charles	G	Social-science-based	3	51-75	Senior	No
William	G	Social-science-based	3	51-75	First-line	Yes
Daniel	H	Social-science-based	2	76-100	Middle	Yes
Frank	I	Quasi-US	1	1-25	Middle	No
Peter	J	Social-science-based	3	51-75	Senior	Yes
Phillip	K	Social-science-based	2	76-100	Senior	Yes
Samantha	K	Social-science-based	2	76-100	Middle	No
Angela	L	Social-science-based	2	76-100	Senior	Yes
Emma	L	Social-science-based	2	76-100	Middle	No
Neil	L	Social-science-based	2	76-100	Senior	No
Sean	L	Social-science-based	2	76-100	First-line	Yes
Albert	M	Specialised	3	26-50	Middle	Yes
Johnny	M	Specialised	3	26-50	Senior	Yes

Regarding the business school model in the third column of Table 10, this study categorised participants' institutions according to Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) models of UK business schools in order to facilitate understanding of the cultures and orientation of the business schools in this study. Therefore, the participants' institutions were sorted into four groups: quasi-US model, professionally-oriented model, social-science-based model and specialised model. More details on this categorisation are provided in the "Models of UK Business Schools" section in chapter two.

The quasi-US model is virtually privately-funded, not dependent on public funds, emphasises fundraising and endowment activities, providing a strong resource base to recruit high-profile professors (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). In this study this group included Business Schools A, B and I. The professionally-oriented model mostly focuses on the postgraduate level and practically-oriented programmes such as MBA, DBA and executive programmes, with less emphasis on research (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). For this study, the institution with this model was Business School C. The social-science-based model provides both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes and is based in research-intensive universities (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). This group made up the highest number of the participants' institutions in this study, which included Business Schools D, F, G, H, J, K and L. Lastly, the specialised business schools focus on areas such as technology, finance and economics (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). For this study, the institution with this model was Business School M.

Information about participants and institutions in this section was used during analysis. The information about the business schools that participants worked in, their business school's model, the number of accreditations and their institution's ranking facilitated understanding of participants' contexts. Information about their management level and business experience facilitated the understanding of their backgrounds, which could have been related to their perspectives on their work and opinions given in this study.

Basic Map of Main Theme

The basic map of the main theme in Figure 14 shows the outline of the codes under the "leadership" theme discussed in this chapter. The figure describes the three codes: "appropriate leadership", "shared vision" and "overall goals" are branches under the main "leadership" theme.

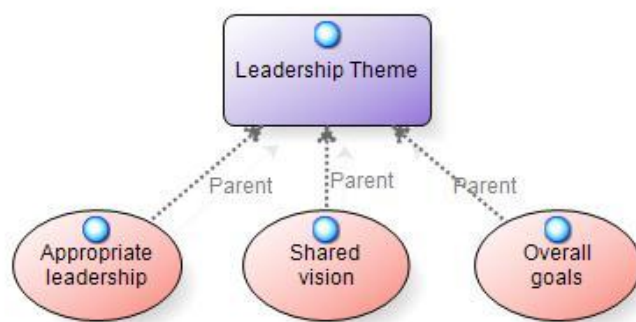


Figure 14: Map of leadership theme

Leadership Theme

Figure 15 shows the outline of the codes under the “leadership” theme, comprising “appropriate leadership”, “shared vision” and “overall goals” codes. Additionally, the outline summarises the data sources of each code according to the business school models and the institutions. Presented in the first column of Figure 15, the “appropriate leadership” code, which investigated the concept of strategic leadership from the participants’ viewpoints, was discussed by 19 participants from all four business school models. The “shared vision” code, demonstrated in the middle column, which explored shared vision within participants’ institutions, was mentioned by three participants from all but the professionally-oriented model business school. The “overall goals” code, shown in the last column of Figure 15, which examined participants’ views on their schools’ overall goals and purpose, was mentioned by four participants from the quasi-US model and social-science-based model.

Furthermore, Table 11 shows the summary of key points discussed by participants in each code under the “leadership” theme. The blue cells represent the business schools in the quasi-US model; the orange cells represent the business school in the professionally-oriented model; the green cells represent the institution in the specialised model; while the purple cells represent the business schools in the social-science-based model.

The following sections discuss the detail of each code and how the data were interpreted to represent the participants' perspectives.



Figure 15: Outline of codes and sources for leadership theme

Table 11: Summary of key points for each code in leadership theme

Sources	Leadership Theme		
	Appropriate Leadership	Shared Vision	Overall Goals
Henry (A)	A clarity of vision; clear sense of direction; being decisive with being attentive	Getting team to understand rationale behind important decisions	To have a profound impact on the way that business is done
James (B)	Convenorship and chairing; a shared sense of where things are leading		
Frank (I)	Collaborative leadership; working together with people		To be one of the best Business Schools in the world
Larry (C)	Providing vision and clarity as to the way forward		
Albert (M)	Deciding future for organisation; sharing that view with others; working together to create aspired future		
Johnny (M)	Determining main pathways for institution to achieve its mission/objectives	Dean to ensure there is a shared vision, to facilitate implementation of the vision; other members of the team can contribute to this	
Thomas (D)	Needing good leadership; a well thought through strategy that can adapt as circumstances change		
Benjamin (F)	Motivating employees to do the best; guiding and supporting them		
George (F)	Ability to think strategically; ability to lever strategic gains; ability to work effectively with university centre, to effectively manage bureaucratic requirements, to deliver results and develop business and team		
Catherine (F)	A clarity of focus; involving people; being transparent; trusting colleagues		
Charles (G)	Setting a very clear vision and mission; clearly articulating vision	A clear vision enables consistency in decision making	
William (G)	Engaging and getting the employees to go above and beyond call of duty		
Daniel (H)	Vision, its communication and implementation that differentiate institution and oversee the deployment of resources to achieve differentiation		
Peter (J)	Setting a direction and inspiring people to follow it; ensuring that people feel they can contribute to strategy		To be a world class research-based business school; to be best in Europe for employability and global mobility
Phillip (K)	Style must fit context; different situation requires different form of leadership		
Samantha (K)	Ability to foresee future challenges, to enable organisation to meet those challenges		
Neil (L)	Strategic leadership came from Dean's office; ensuring the strategy being delivered; monthly meetings to discuss strategy and progress		To regain our position as one of Europe's leading business schools
Angela (L)	A clear understanding of current strategic position; a view of where to get to and how to get there; a link between vision and strategy plus the implementation of strategy		
Emma (L)	Involving a dean or head of school who is first among equals		

Appropriate Leadership Code

This section discusses the detail of the “appropriate leadership” code by investigating the perceived concept of strategic leadership in the business school context from the participants’ perspectives. Although the questions asked in the interviews addressed strategic leadership, there were mixed views in participants’ answers, as presented in this code.

At specialised Business School M, Albert's view was that strategic leadership is about "deciding what future you want for your organization, sharing and developing that view with others, and then working together to create the future you want". This suggests that Albert perceived strategic leadership for that institution as visualising and determining the future and sharing that vision with colleagues in order to achieve the future that they aspired to. Likewise, Johnny, from the same institution, perceived strategic leadership in business schools as concerned with "determining/enabling the main pathways through which the [business school] can achieve its mission/objectives". Johnny's viewpoint on strategic leadership in his school was similar to Albert's, in that it involved vision, resolving the direction for the school to achieve its aspiration and goals.

James, at quasi-US Business School B, expressed his view on strategic leadership in his institution as "mostly incremental, negotiated and reliant on good-will". However, he said he thought that "leadership [was] a misleading word; convenorship or chairing [was] closer to my own experience and the practice of successful 'leaders' in more senior positions and parallel that I [had] observed". Furthermore, James considered that "even in such a consensual model, it [was] important that members [did] have a shared sense of where things [were] leading". Therefore, for James "convenorship or chairing" reflected a more accurate concept of leadership practice in senior positions and parallel in his business school, with people having a common idea of goals. Moreover, James's view on convenorship and having "a shared sense of where things [were] leading" suggests collective behaviour around leadership, which could imply that Business School B might have employed distributed leadership.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, observed that leadership at his institution was about "collaborative leadership" because "the world [had] become a place in which the old style of leadership, the top-down, command-and-control style of leadership [was] not appropriate anymore". From his perspective, it was about "working together with people", rather than "one person telling other people what to do". Frank perceived that his institution work together in a collaborative manner.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, viewed strategic leadership for business schools as requiring “a clarity of vision, clear sense of direction, which implies also being very clear about what the School is not going to be doing”. Furthermore, he also said that it was a combination of “being decisive with being attentive”, by which he meant “listening carefully but also being quite decisive and quite clear about the direction in which we are going, having taken soundings and having got views from other people”. Hence, for Henry, it was vital for strategic leadership in business schools to include clear vision, a clear sense of direction, while at the same time listening other people’s points of view. The act of taking other people’s opinions into account suggests that Business School A might, at some point, distribute leadership to the colleagues.

Larry, from professionally-oriented Business School C, said that his approach to strategic leadership was “to focus on providing vision and clarity as to the way forward”. He further remarked that “in [his] specific case this [was] about being very clear on our research strategy and the key measures we [needed] to achieve in order to make this happen”. However, in addition to providing vision and clear direction, Larry’s focus on providing a clear research strategy probably stemmed from his expertise in business strategy and his role as the director of research. It seemed that strategic leadership from Larry’s perspective also involved vision and direction, like other participants in this study.

For Daniel from social-science-based Business School H, strategic leadership was “the vision, its communication and implementation that [differentiated] ourselves from our competitors and [oversaw] the deployment of resources that alter competences and processes to achieve this differentiation”. This suggests a distinctive idea of strategic leadership. Daniel seemed to be one of the few who emphasised differentiating business schools in the market. In the interview, Daniel revealed that before joining his institution, he had held “a variety of leadership positions in a range of companies”, which was “applied in this School using overall and annual strategic plans for the whole school and for each key delivery area”. This

business background could have shaped his perspective about differentiating his institution.

Peter, from social-science-based Business School J, described his experience of strategic leadership in the school as involving “setting a direction and inspiring the staff in the school to follow it”. Peter acknowledged that academics were not to be “ordered” but rather be “persuaded” to follow a particular direction. Therefore, in his view, “a crucial element [was] making sure that everyone [felt] they [had] had a chance to contribute to the strategy”. Peter emphasised that it was the “School's strategy, not just the Dean's strategy”. He further revealed that they “[tried] to ensure that groups of all kinds, not just the professors, [had] an input, and that the final strategy [was] seen to be owned by the whole of the School's management team”. This suggests that strategic leadership in Business School J tended to involve people in setting strategy to create a sense of belonging and perceptions amongst people that they were part of the strategy, which helped to persuade them to take a particular direction to reach their institution’s goal. The concepts of sharing and persuasion were emphasised for strategic leadership at Business School J. This suggests that Business School J might have adopted distributed leadership.

Thomas, from social-science-based Business School D, defined strategic leadership from his experience as establishing strategic priorities on things to do or to invest in and things to withdraw from. Although Thomas remarked that “strategic leadership is management speak and doesn’t really mean anything”, he also acknowledged that “certainly you need good leadership, and certainly you need a well thought through strategy that is capable of adapting as circumstances change”. This suggests that Thomas might not be convinced by the concept of strategic leadership but might prefer another style of leadership.

At social-science-based Business School L, Neil said that “most of the strategic leadership came from the dean's office and I wanted those reporting to me to ensure the strategy was being delivered”. Furthermore, he pointed out that he, in his role as Dean, “had monthly meetings to discuss strategy and progress with the people

leading those areas”. From Angela’s point of view, she considered strategic leadership for a business school as similar to strategic leadership for any organisation, in terms of involving “a clear understanding of your current strategic position and having a view of where you want to get to and how you are going to get there”. Angela considered that leadership enabled strategy to be implemented within the organisation. She acknowledged that “[strategic leadership] is a link between vision and strategy plus the implementation of the strategy”. Regarding encouraging strategic leadership in others, Angela revealed that “what is really, really important is to delegate and to give people responsibility and accountability”. This was because delegating responsibility and accountability to her colleagues would encourage them to take a more active role as well as leave Angela time to focus on the strategic objectives of the institution. Moreover, Angela had a team to work on the school’s strategic direction. With respect to competition in the business school sector, Angela considered “there [was] a huge area of strategic leadership that [was] absolutely fundamental in establishing what your particular position [was] vis-a-vis other schools, and how you [could] improve it”. On the other hand, Emma revealed a different perspective from her colleagues, in that she “[believed] there [was] no such thing as leadership” and that she believed that “academia is a place where colleagues, who are all equals, work together”. Therefore, from Emma’s perspective, strategic leadership “would involve a dean or head of school who is first among equals”, where she hoped that colleagues could be “brought together to develop strategy” of business schools. Emma said she “[tried] to work collegially” and always supported a collegial culture rather than a leader-followers culture, by ensuring that her colleagues had time and space to develop their research and expertise. Furthermore, Emma admitted that she “[loathed] what leadership theory presumes” about “an unacknowledged, subordinated other for its existence, and this is that of ‘the follower’”.

These answers from Neil about discussing strategy with people leading specific areas, from Angela about delegating responsibility and accountability to colleagues and from Emma about bringing colleagues together to develop strategy are all suggestive of their preference for distributed leadership.

At social-science-based Business School F, Benjamin admitted that he was “quite skeptical of the whole concept of leadership”. However, from his own experience, he considered that he applied leadership in terms of motivating, guiding and supporting colleagues to do their best. For George, strategic leadership was about a leader who was able to think strategically, assisted by a management team that had a sense of strategic thinking to “see beyond the operational issues” and make strategic gains. George said that strategic leadership in a business school required the ability to work effectively with the university centre, to effectively manage bureaucratic requirements, to deliver the results and develop business as well as to develop “a team” not just “a series of separate managers of different areas”. Moreover, George argued that “strategic leadership [depended] not just upon the senior management team” but also on the heads of department who collaborated in strategy building and therefore were prepared to improve their own department in line with strategy.

The interview data from Business School F suggested two different viewpoints: one was that of Benjamin who was doubtful of the leadership concept and the other was George, who was positive about strategic leadership. Both were at the same management level, but Benjamin oversaw an offshore campus, while George worked more closely with the Dean. Their differences in work autonomy, experiences and relationships with the Dean could affect how they perceived the concept of strategic leadership within their institution. Notwithstanding, Benjamin’s answer about motivating and supporting his colleagues could be suggestive of a preference for transformational leadership, while George’s answers about the involvement of the Dean, management team and other heads of department in strategy building could be suggestive of a preference for distributed leadership.

Also from social-science Business School F, Catherine at the senior management level perceived that she exercised her leadership by being clear about the focus, being transparent, “[involving] people in the process” and trusting them. Furthermore, she perceived that the leadership style she was adopting was transformational leadership that about “trying to work with people in having a team

approach to solving, to setting objectives and then letting people get on with the setting of objectives and supporting them where you [could]”. Although Catherine clearly stated that she saw herself adopting transformational leadership, her answer about involving people in the process seems to be suggestive of a preference for distributed leadership as well.

At social-science-based Business School K, Phillip’s view on the concept of leadership was that he did not believe there was an ideal style of leadership and that “the style [of leadership] must fit the context”. In the interview, Phillip discussed his leadership experience, reported that he looked at what the institution lacked when he took the post and then compensated for that. For instance, when Phillip arrived, corporate management at the institution was weak, with little control over departments. He adopted the leadership style that was appropriate for the situation and context and improved central control and direction of the departments. Phillip also pointed out that if the situation had been different, a different form of leadership would have been more appropriate, as he always emphasised in his interview that leadership was dependent on the context and that there was no one optimum style.

For Samantha, leadership is the ability to “foresee future challenges and to be able to enable your organisation to meet those challenges”. Samantha emphasised that strategic leadership required “social support” to be able to execute strategies and “work with others to address those future challenges”. This suggests that strategic leadership from Samantha’s perspective involved predicting and overcoming challenges as well as engaging with other people. It appeared that Samantha’s response was similar to other participants’ responses, but Phillip’s answer was quite different from others in the way that he stressed the importance of fitting leadership style to the context, not just any other leadership style that seemed to work for other people but might not be practical in another context.

At social-science-based Business School G, Charles stated that the “absolutely critical” aspects of leadership in any organisation were setting a “very clear vision and mission” and understanding of the purpose of the organisation. He discussed

examples at his institution, which was about “research-led and high quality” that “[provided] a filter through which everything [was] put”. This suggests that the institution’s purpose would refine their choices in everything they did, potentially promoting consistency in decision-making. Furthermore, Charles emphasised articulation of vision, because it provided consistency of vision, mission and decision-making across the whole university and business school. Apart from the role of articulating vision, Charles perceived that his leadership role was to forecast what the market and competitors were doing, to anticipate and address challenges before they became issues. Charles pointed out that vision needed to be embodied and communicated because “ultimately you [wanted] to get people to commit to working to that vision and enjoy working in that organisation and display that enjoyment and commitment to the students”. As a result, Charles perceived that when the students received a wonderful experience from happy and committed staff, they would recommend the institution and would also do well in their studies. Charles spoke about the importance of encouraging strategic leadership in others, to the extent that he would first identify people in the leadership team, then would “work actively to encourage them and also to empower them to take on their part of delivering the strategy”. Moreover, Charles said that his strategy was “very much to be inclusive, be consultative and to involve other people too”.

For William, the key thing for leadership was to “engage and get the employees of the organisation to go above and beyond the call of duty”, hence he perceived that “transformational leadership would probably be more important to us”. However, he said that “leadership [was] contingent” and “there [wasn’t] one best way for every employee”. In addition, he understood that “the theory of leader-member exchange [told] us that, my practical experience [said] that [was] the right way to go”.

For the case of Business School G, Charles was at the senior management level, which shaped his perspective on leadership, seeing it as more relevant to the articulation of vision to ensure consistency across the institution. By contrast, William was at the first-line management level and might have perceived leadership from an operational perspective, so that he considered leadership as more relevant to

the relationship between leader and colleagues and inspiration. While William clearly stated in the interview that he considered transformational leadership as important, Charles's answer about how he encouraged leadership in others seems to be suggestive of a preference for distributed leadership.

These accounts of participants' perspectives on strategic leadership in their institutions show a range of perceptions of leadership in business schools. Some expressed similar perceptions, while others had different views. Eight of the 19 participants who discussed this topic expressed similar understandings of strategic leadership, as involved with vision, purpose, goal and direction, regardless of their background in business. Although these eight participants were at either senior or middle management levels, it could not be established whether or not this factor is relevant to their responses, because only two participants in this study were in first-line management.

Albert and Johnny, both from specialised Business School M, interpreted strategic leadership similarly, as business school members having a shared vision of the future, with strategic leadership involved setting direction to achieve that aspired to future. It appeared that strategic leadership for Business School M involved the future, the process of sharing vision and taking directed action to achieve the goal. The similarity in their perspectives, even though they were at different management levels and were interviewed separately, reflected that both of them might have similar leadership experiences in the institution, resulting in similar perceptions and understandings towards strategic leadership in the institution.

Henry's perspective on strategic leadership was quite similar to that of other participants, for example Larry, Angela and Charles, in terms of having clear vision, direction and goal and sharing them with other members in order to achieve consistency of message across the institution. "Being decisive with being attentive" seemed to be important for strategic leadership because leaders need to listen to colleagues, while at the same time they need to be reasonably resolute in their decision-making. An irresolute leader who followed every comment could lead a

business school in a confused direction, while a headstrong leader who was inflexible in their decisions, without listening to others, could drive a business school towards a dictatorship culture, which would be unsuitable for a knowledge-intensive organisation. Therefore, this decisive and attentive quality suggests that the leader would take risks and make decisions, which would be based on information and recommendations from the colleagues in order to prevent the business school losing competitiveness and direction.

Another two participants, Angela and Daniel, from Business Schools L and H, also showed a similar perception of strategic leadership in relation to strategy implementation. These two participants had similar backgrounds, having worked in business for more than ten years before joining academia. Their experience in business could have given them different perspectives on strategic leadership. This could be why Daniel concentrated on differentiation of the business school, because he might perceive that it would reinforce competitiveness rather than simply following competitors' practices. However, Angela's perception was slightly different. She viewed strategic leadership as a link between vision, strategy and its implementation, while Daniel's perspective of strategy implementation involved the distribution of resources. This could be attributable to the difference in the management levels they were at: Angela being in senior management and Daniel being in middle management, reflecting their different foci and responsibilities.

Additionally, ten of the 19 participants who discussed the topic of leadership seemed to suggest that they might have applied or preferred distributed leadership in their institutions. As Peter from social-science-based Business School J pointed out that it was crucial that colleagues felt they had an opportunity to contribute to the school's strategy, this suggests an attempt of Business School J to engage everyone in the development of strategy and that Peter might have exercised distributed leadership at that institution. Furthermore, George's answer about engaging not only the Dean and the management team but also Heads of Department in strategy building suggests that Business School F might have applied distributed leadership.

Similarly, Neil's answer about having regular meetings with people leading specific areas to discuss strategy and progress suggests that he, as the Dean, tried to engage people with relevant expertise in setting the strategy for the institution. This attempt to engage people in strategic decisions suggests that distributed leadership might have been adopted in Business School L. However, within Business School L, there was a contrast in views regarding strategic leadership, which came from Emma, a middle manager in the institution, who said she was not convinced by the concept of leadership. Neil was a former senior manager, while Angela was a current senior manager and Emma was a middle manager at this institution. This contrast between their ideas could arise from the different levels of management they were at because people at different management levels might look at the same concept with different perspectives. Emma mentioned in the interview that people tended to think that they were great leaders, but their staff at the next level down tended to think differently. Therefore, Emma's response could reflect the perceptions of colleagues towards strategic leaders and towards how managers at other levels operated within the institution. This could mean that colleagues might not agree with perception or definition of strategic leadership that managers think they are implementing. Notwithstanding, even Emma's answer could be suggestive of a preference for distributed leadership, which is similar to Neil's answer about engaging people in leading specific areas, with strategic decision making, and Angela's answers about delegation of responsibility and accountability to her colleagues.

Likewise, Charles from another social-science-based Business School G also emphasised engaging other people in strategic leadership by encouraging and empowering them to take part in delivering strategy, a practice which suggests that this institution might have adopted distributed leadership. Charles's answer about engaging people in strategic leadership was also consistent with that of Business Schools F, J and L in terms of involving colleagues in leadership and strategy.

Although most participants in this study welcomed the concept of leadership in their institutions, James from a quasi-US business school perceived the concept of "convenorship or chairing" as more appropriate for leadership practice in quasi-US

Business School B. It could be that the concept of “convenorship” was emphasised there because of the context of the business school, which was part of a university with a strong collegiate system (information taken from the university’s main website). Therefore, the term leadership might not be suitable for that institution, and the concept of leadership at that institution might differ from the leadership concept in other business schools. This suggests that convenorship could enable the freedom of thought to prosper in the strong collegial type of institution like Business School B because the school members were not ordered or led – rather, they were given space to think and act on their own. It seemed that freedom of thought could be considered as an element of strategic leadership for institutions with a similar culture to Business School B. Additionally, James described another feature of strategic leadership that was similar to the perceptions of participants from other institutions, which is to have “a shared sense of where things [were] leading”, which could suggest that they might have exercised a form of collective leadership, also known as distributed leadership. However, the organisational culture and structure at Business School B were difference from those of its peers, suggesting that the transferability of this school’s finding to other situations is limited.

Additionally, there was Emma’s answer, discussed in the above paragraph, together with those of her colleagues from the same institution. There was also Benjamin, who was from social-science-based Business School F. The data showed that Benjamin, from Business School F, was not convinced by the concept of leadership, like Emma from Business School L. Both Benjamin and Emma were at the middle management level. While Emma’s answer suggests a preference for distributed leadership, Benjamin’s answer about motivating and supporting colleagues is suggestive of a preference for transformational leadership.

In addition, an apparent preference for transformational leadership was also expressed by Catherine, from the same school as Benjamin, and William, from social-science-based Business School G, in the sense that it would be more relevant to them. However, William also deployed a similar concept to Phillip, from Business School K: that there was no ideal style of leadership and that it somehow required

flexibility for leadership to fit with a particular context. Their perceptions stood out from other participants' responses because very few participants mentioned being unique, flexible and institution-specific, except Phillip and William. Although there was little discussion of the concept of being unique, flexible and specific, it seemed to represent a valuable finding for this study other than mere imitation of others.

This analysis of participants' perceptions suggests that some might have preferred distributed leadership in their institutions, while others might have favoured transformational leadership. As a result, it may be concluded that the form of leadership to be adopted in a business school is suggested to be determined by the context and situation of the institution and department. The cases of Business Schools G and F suggest that a business school may adopt different forms of leadership at different levels or departments, depending on the suitability of the context and their people.

Shared Vision Code

This code discusses the shared vision within the top UK business schools, as perceived by the participants.

From the interview data, Johnny from specialised Business School M stated that “an important part of the dean's responsibilities [was] to ensure there [was] a [shared] vision and that appropriate steps [were] taken to facilitate implementation of the vision”. However, he stated that other team members could contribute to this. According to Bolden et al. (2008), with distributed leadership, the whole team participates in establishing the institution's vision. Therefore, Johnny's answer here is suggestive of a preference for distributed leadership.

Henry from Business School A in the quasi-US model emphasised the significance of getting the team to understand the rationale behind important decisions and how these decisions cohered with the School's direction. Henry stated that “not necessarily everyone [said], yes this [was] a fantastic idea, but they [needed] to

understand why it [was] being done, what the drivers [had been], and why it [had] made sense in terms of the School's overall development”.

Charles, from the social-science-based Business School G, explained that “having an absolutely clear vision... [enabled] you to be consistent in terms of your decision making”, otherwise there would be confusion about the institution's purpose and inconsistency in decision-making in terms of the institution's vision and mission. Furthermore, Charles stressed the importance of articulating vision and of colleagues “[agreeing] to buy into the common vision of that particular organisation”.

From Johnny's perspective on shared vision, it appeared that a leadership skill of motivating colleagues to pursue that shared vision within the business school would be essential. Johnny's comment about the team's participation in the process of sharing and executing vision in the business school suggests that shared vision could boost the sense of belonging amongst colleagues in the institution and increase the level of dedication of staff to work towards the shared goal.

Henry's comment about getting the team to understand the reasons for decisions and the institution's direction suggests a crucial practice for knowledge-intensive organisations like business schools. This suggests that the staff could not be forced to agree to things but they would rather be convinced by information to acceptance or at least be given an explanation for the school's decisions and direction. Similarly, Charles' answer suggests that the ability to articulate vision and persuade colleagues to agree to that shared vision might reflect the effectiveness of leadership because it could promote consistency throughout the business school.

These interpretations of participants' perspectives in different institutions suggest that these managers emphasised having a shared vision within their organisations, although Henry from Business School A admitted that not everyone would agree. It is suggested that vision should be clearly articulated and made understandable to all, so that people can accept and act on the strategy, and there would be consistency in actioning strategy within the organisation.

This analysis is consistent with literature that proposes shared vision as a crucial component of leadership in universities (Bargh et al., 2000; Hamidi, 2009; Hitt et al., 2007). Although setting and articulating vision were perceived by Johnny to be the duty of senior managers, it was also suggested that the team could contribute at various stages in the process to create the sense of belonging amongst staff and increase willingness to accept a vision and to take it forward.

Although both primary and secondary data suggest shared vision to be essential, nothing was mentioned about how to share it effectively, e.g. how to motivate contributions to build a shared vision, how to ensure that the vision is articulated and shared accurately, how to convince colleagues to accept that vision and act on it. I would suggest that the ability and experience of leaders are significant in this regard, because they would need to know their colleagues well and have developed approaches to dealing with them in their cultures, in order to create a sense of belonging for the organisation's vision of a shared goal.

Overall Goals Code

This section discusses the views of the participants on the overall goals and purpose of their business schools.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, described the "broad aim" for his institution as to "make it one of the best Business Schools in the world and to have it recognised as one of the best in the world".

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, said that his institution set strategic direction by answering the question about the future, shape and size of the business school to determine the direction and choices to take. Henry described the previous overall purpose of Business School A as "to be the premier global business school" and the new statement of purpose as revolving around "having a profound impact on

the way that business is done”, including building strong links with business and society.

Neil, from social-science-based Business School L, said that when he took the post at the institution it “had been going through some difficulties”. They had to set new targets and direction in order to improve the situation. Therefore, he felt that “the direction set was for us to regain our position as one of Europe's leading business schools” as well as targets for research output.

Peter, from social-science-based Business School J, revealed that his institution’s goals were “to be a world class research-based business school” and to be “best in Europe for employability and global mobility”.

Frank’s perception of his business school’s broad aim reflected the institution’s positioning as leading at the national and continental levels. Hence, the institution’s goal was to achieve at the international level and compete with top US business schools that already dominated the market. By contrast, Henry did not mention competition at the national or continental levels. This suggests that Business School A had passed those levels and was competing at the international level with top US business schools. Furthermore, Henry’s view of his business school’s new purpose suggests that the institution had gone beyond competition into building a global impact on business, which would mean not merely pursuing rankings but aiming to be a real force for change. By contrast, Neil’s view of his business school’s goal reflected its current positioning, fluctuating in the rankings and with limited success at the European level. This could suggest that the institution was still in pursuit of rankings, which was a priority in the business school sector, in order to attract students from around the world. Similarly, Peter’s perception of the institution’s goal reflected its positioning and its focus on establishing a presence in the top Europe position and at world level.

This analysis of participants’ views in different institutions suggests that the overall goals of these business schools revolved around being world-class, international

business schools, depending on their current standing. From the participants' point of view, these schools seemed to shape their goals towards improving their positioning.

The coded data under this heading suggest that an institution's overall goals may reflect its positioning, and this could influence how strategy and vision develop at these schools. The implication for leadership is, as Angela described, that it should be about creating "a link between vision and strategy plus the implementation of the strategy".

Summary

This chapter explored business school leaders' experiences and perceptions of leadership, vision and goals in their institutions. The "appropriate leadership" code revealed diverse perceptions of the leadership concept: some welcomed the use of leadership, while others were uncomfortable with aspects of the concept of leadership. Some might have been using transformational leadership with colleagues, while others seemed to prefer distributed leadership. Several answers suggested that there was no sense of an ideal style of leadership for any institution. However, the interview data suggest that participants' theory-in-use may be different from their espoused theory. This could be seen from the responses of Catherine, Daniel and Emma. Catherine said she adopted transformational leadership, whereas her interview data suggests that she might have adopted distributed leadership. Daniel and Emma were reluctant with the concept of leadership, whereas his interview data suggests that he might have used transformational leadership and her interview data suggests a preference for distributed leadership.

There was a common perception that shared vision, direction, goals and purpose were components of the concept of strategic leadership, regardless of management level the participants were in. Having a shared vision was highlighted by participants in middle and senior management from different business schools when discussing the process of formulating and articulating vision across the business schools. The "overall goals" code reflected the current positioning of each business school.

This chapter has examined the “leadership” theme in detail, including “appropriate leadership”, “shared vision” and “overall goals” codes. The next chapter will discuss the various forms of capital within UK business schools, categorised into four main themes of “human capital”, “social capital”, “organisational capital” and “intellectual capital”.

CHAPTER V: HUMAN CAPITAL, SOCIAL CAPITAL, ORGANISATIONAL CAPITAL AND INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL THEMES

This chapter introduces the four following themes: “human capital”, “social capital”, “organisational capital” and “intellectual capital”. As a discussion of the fifth and sixth stages of thematic analysis, this chapter presents the integration of codes into themes.

The “staff management” code was combined with the “human capital” code into the main “human capital” theme. The “supportive environment” code was incorporated with the “organisational capital” code under the main “organisational capital” theme. The “industry linkages”, “advisory board”, “accreditation” and “ranking” codes were merged with the “social capital” code into the main “social capital” theme. The “creativity and innovation” code was combined with the “quality of output” code into the main “intellectual capital” theme.

The interview data suggested that there were perceived links between human capital, social capital and organisational capital and intellectual capital in participants’ business schools. Yet, the data suggested that human capital and organisational capital required support from financial capital in order to achieve intellectual capital. However, financial capital in this study is discussed in the form of income sources and will be explained in the next chapter under the “financial sustainability” theme. In doing so, this chapter aims to answer the following question: How did these business school leaders perceive the management of human, social, organisational and intellectual capital in their institutions?

Introduction

The human capital, social capital and organisational capital concepts in this study emerged from the review of literature on strategic leadership. Hitt et al. (2007) proposed that the management of a business's resource portfolio, which includes human capital, financial capital, social capital and organisational capital, influences the effectiveness of strategic leadership. The management of the resource portfolio topic could therefore be considered as a component of strategic leadership for UK business schools. Subsequently, the data from the pilot study demonstrated that these four forms of capital were discussed in the three interviews in the pilot study. Therefore, these four forms of capital were included as topics for the main study interviews.

Similarly, data from the main study revealed the significance of the human capital, financial capital, social capital and organisational capital concepts. The data coded in these themes were originally sorted into several codes, which were subsequently grouped according to their relevance to each theme. This chapter explains how these codes were incorporated into the main themes.

The "income sources" code is presented in the next chapter, due to its relevance to other codes in relation to the financial landscape of UK business schools. It is included with the "strategies and tactics" and "fundraising" codes under the "financial sustainability" theme in chapter six.

Human capital is defined by scholars as being made up of the capabilities, knowledge, skills and experience of individuals employed in an organisation (Dess & Picken, 1999; Hitt et al., 2007) that are relevant to the task and add up to the stock of knowledge, skills and experience through individual learning (Dess & Picken, 1999). According to Wright, Dunford, and Snell (2001), the literature on human capital suggests that knowledge can be shared amongst groups as well as can be made part of organisational processes and procedures. Furthermore, Hitt et al.'s (2007) study of strategic leadership suggests that investments in human capital are productive, as seen from the effectiveness of human capital in the context of the US industrial

sector. As competition heightens, human capital may be the “truly sustainable source of competitive advantage” (Hitt, Bierman, Shimizu, & Kochhar, 2001; Snell & Youndt, 1995, as cited in Hitt et al., 2007).

For this study, the “human capital” theme refers to the stock of competencies, capabilities, knowledge, skills, learning and the management of these elements. The interview data showed that participants’ institutions placed an emphasis on human capital. The analysis suggested that they invested in hiring high quality people and developing younger academics, while providing opportunities for staff to have a say in the development of the institution and promoting communication among staff in the institution.

As the literature suggests, the challenge that UK business schools appear to be facing arises from human capital, which is a key resource for business schools. The number of academic staff is potentially at risk, with many high flyers choosing to work overseas where salaries are higher (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Goodall, 2009; Ivory et al., 2006). The interviews included discussions of how participants saw themselves handling the recruitment and retention of the best staff and how they managed development issues.

Social capital is defined by Bourdieu (1989) as involving relationships between individuals within particular groups. Hence, it represents a collective phenomenon, where relations between group members engender social capital that would influence other forms of capital as well as stimulate solidarity among individuals that would lead to institutionalisation (Bourdieu, 1989). Similarly, Bolden et al. (2008) argued for collective leadership in higher education, with social capital operating as formal and informal networks within institutions. This could be because their research focused on how higher education institutions develop collective leadership within institutions. Hence, their work would fundamentally involve more internal social capital rather than external social capital. Furthermore Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) describe social capital as involving networks of relationships that improve the efficiency of interaction and behaviour of individuals in the organisation, while

Coleman (1988) defines social capital as the relationships between individuals and their jobs as well as across organisations.

However, while many researchers emphasise internal social capital, Hitt et al. (2007) refers to social capital as both internal and external relationships that contribute to the organisation in achieving its goals and adding value to stakeholders. Hitt and Duane (2002), in their research on strategic leadership, discuss the external dimension of social capital from a resource-based view that building social capital by forming alliances and partnerships could facilitate access to resources for the business. Hitt and Duane's (2002) work, although not set in higher education, seemed relevant to this study because it focused on strategic leadership in organisations. Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011), in a book that did focus on strategic leadership in business schools considered external social capital because they specified "reputation" as a form of social capital for business schools. Additionally, Fragueiro and Thomas suggested that building up reputation was part of social capital.

Bourdieu (1989) argued that social capital would eventually change into a form of economic capital. Furthermore, Stiles and Kulvisaechana (2003) argued that social capital and social relationships are important for the development of human and intellectual capital, while Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) observed that social capital is particularly important at the organisational level, in terms of facilitating the development of intellectual capital. Coleman's (1988) analysis of the influence of social capital on human capital, regarding family and community, presents the concept of social capital as relationships between family members (internal) and relationships between students' parents (external), all of which have an influence on the creation of human capital in students, measured by educational results.

For this study, the "social capital" theme mainly concerns the external aspect rather than internal relationships in the organisation. The topic of internal relationships seemed more relevant to the data in the "staff management" code in the "human capital" theme. Therefore, the "social capital" theme in this study focuses on the

topics of building industry linkages, nurturing relationships with advisory boards and maintaining accreditations and rankings.

The primary data demonstrated that social capital established both the internal and external networks of the institutions, and that social capital, especially the external networks, seemed to influence the institutions' ability to form productive partnerships and its ability to raise funds and donations. Although some participants perceived building external social capital as the senior managers' job, this study argues that social capital could be developed through various activities by any staff, not just senior managers. All staff could find themselves in situations that could lead to building external networks that could be valuable to their institutions. Therefore, based on the interview data from the participants, it is suggested that the development of external networks could be shared amongst staff by building a culture that appreciates people who could contribute to the growth of the institution's social capital.

Organisational capital is described by Dess and Picken (1999) as the structures, systems, processes, procedures and cultures that link the organisation's resources together to create value for its customers and sustainable competitive advantage for the organisation. For this study, organisational capital is considered mainly for its cultural aspect, due to the difficulty of getting information about organisational structures from participating business schools. Hence, this study concentrated on organisational cultures when discussing the organisational capital of business schools.

The "organisational capital" theme presents the importance of having the right mixture of culture and identity that would form a distinctive form of organisational capital for a particular institution, which could nurture the environment for development in other areas, such as the intellectual and social capital of the institution. It is suggested that an institution that imitates the practices of other institutions could end up losing its identity. Even though the recommendation of accreditation bodies or guidance from ranking agencies seemed useful for them,

business schools could lose focus in the pursuit of rankings. The “organisational capital” theme shows how these participating business schools saw themselves in their cultures and how these cultures were built into their organisational capital.

These forms of human, social and organisational capital seemed to carry equal weight as components of strategic leadership in these business schools. The evidence suggests that the combination of human capital, internal social capital and organisational capital can provide the right environment for intellectual capital to prosper.

In addition, this chapter presents the “intellectual capital” theme, which combines two *a priori* codes: the “creativity and innovation” code and the “quality of output” code, into one main theme of intellectual capital. In a previous stage of analysis, these two codes were separate components of the theoretical concepts of this study. They were later merged under the “intellectual capital” theme because they fit the concept of intellectual capital described by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998, p. 245): “the knowledge and knowing capability of a social collectivity, such as an organisation, intellectual community, or professional practice”.

According to Hawawini (2005), although investment in intellectual capital is expensive and the cost is likely to rise faster than the ability for business schools to raise tuition fees, increase the size of the student intake or launch new programmes, it is still important as he suggests that without top faculty it is difficult for business schools to attract top students and charge top prices. This argument therefore emphasises the importance of links between intellectual capital, human capital and financial resources in business schools. Although, it seems that human capital comes first in order for a business school to achieve intellectual capital, recruitment and retention of top faculty represent an investment that requires considerable financial resources.

For this study, the “creativity and innovation” code represents the capability of knowing of the business schools, while the “quality of output” code represents the

knowledge of business schools. Although the topic of intellectual capital was not directly referred to by participants, their responses implied that the sustainability of business schools included human, (internal) social and organisational capital, and that these would contribute to the formation of intellectual capital. This analysis demonstrates a concept similar to studies suggesting that intellectual capital is part of human capital, social capital and organisational capital (Stiles & Kulvisaechna, 2003). The links between intellectual capital and other forms of capital, as perceived by the participants in this study, are shown in the next section.

Basic Map of Main Themes

The basic map of the main themes in Figure 16 shows the four main themes and codes discussed in this chapter. It shows the “human capital” and “staff management” codes under the “human capital” theme, while the “organisational capital” and “supportive environment” codes are under the “organisational capital” theme. Additionally, it shows that the coded data from the “human capital” and “organisational capital” themes were perceived by the participants in this study to link with data in the “creative and innovation” code and the “quality of output” code, making up the “intellectual capital” theme. It also shows the “social capital” code, the “industry linkages” code, the “advisory board” code, the “accreditation” code and the “ranking” code under the “social capital” theme, which are shown reinforced by intellectual capital.

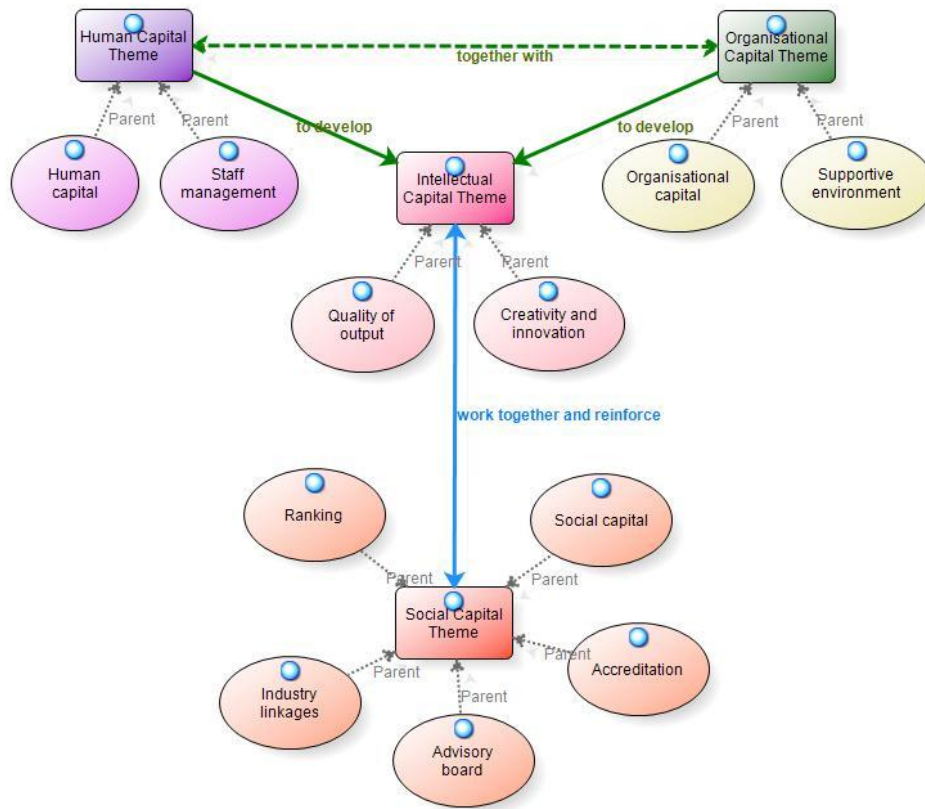


Figure 16: Map of human capital, social capital, organisational capital and intellectual capital themes

Figure 17 presents the outline of the codes of these four main themes in this chapter: “human capital”, “social capital”, “organisational capital” and “intellectual capital” themes. Each of the four themes unites relevant codes to represent the main concept of the theme. Additionally, this outline summarises the data sources of each code according to the business school models and their institutions.

The first group at the top left of the figure is the “human capital” theme, which combines the “human capital” code and the “staff management” code. The “human capital” code, which examined participants’ experiences and perceptions of their institutions’ management of human capital, was mentioned by participants from business schools in the quasi-US and social-science-based models. The “staff management” code, which explored the management of staff recruitment and

retention as well as development of staff competency within the participants' institutions, was discussed by participants from all four business school models.



Figure 17: Outline of codes and sources for human capital, social capital, organisational capital and intellectual capital themes

The second group at top right of the figure shows the “organisational capital” theme, which incorporates the “organisational capital” code and the “supportive environment” code into the main theme. The “organisational capital” code, which examined the business schools’ culture as perceived by participants, was discussed by participants from the quasi-US and social-science-based business schools. The “supportive environment” code, which examined the environment perceived by the participants as enhancing their institutions’ performance, was mentioned by participants from all four business school models.

The middle of Figure 17 represents the development of the “intellectual capital” theme, which brings the “creativity and innovation” code and the “quality of output” code together. From the participants’ perspectives, there seemed to be perceived links between human capital, organisational capital and intellectual capital. In other words, the participants in this study perceived that the consolidation of human and organisational capital enhanced their business schools’ creativity, innovation and the quality of their output, which made up their intellectual capital. The “creativity and innovation” code, which explored how participants encouraged creativity and innovation in their institution, was discussed by the participants from the quasi-US and social-science-based business schools. The “quality of output” code, which examined participants’ perceived assurance and improvement of their institution’s output quality, was mentioned by participants from all but the specialised model.

The last group at the bottom of Figure 17 is the “social capital” theme, which unites five codes: “social capital”, “industry linkages”, “advisory board”, “accreditation” and “ranking” codes. The “social capital” code, which explored the business schools’ advantageous external relationships from participants’ perspectives, was mentioned by participants from all but the professionally-oriented model. The “industry linkages” code, which examined how the business schools established and exploited corporate connections and industry linkages, was discussed by the participants from the quasi-US and social-science-based business schools. The “advisory board” code, which explored the formation and functions of advisory boards in the participants’ business schools, was mentioned by participants from all but the specialised model.

The “accreditation” code, which explored the perceived significance of accreditation in these business schools, was discussed by the participants from the quasi-US and social-science-based business schools. Lastly, the “ranking” code, which examined the perceived importance and impact of rankings of UK business schools, was mentioned by participants from the business schools in the quasi-US and social-science-based models.

The following sections discuss the detail of each theme and the codes under them. The coded data are examined and analysed to represent the participants’ perspectives.

Human Capital Theme

Human capital is relevant to the competencies, capability, expertise, knowledge and skills of an organisation’s personnel (Hitt et al., 2007). It was discussed at length by participants in this study, as presented in the theme in this section. The interview data reflected how participants at different managerial levels perceived their management of human capital in order to achieve international competitiveness for the institution. The presentation of the theme is elaborated, explaining how the codes were composed into the main theme, presenting the evidence that human capital could be an important factor in the competitiveness of business schools. The “human capital” theme combines the “human capital” code and the “staff management” code into one main theme.

Table 12 shows the summary of key points discussed by participants in each code under the “human capital” theme. The blue cells represent the business schools in the quasi-US model; the orange cells represent the business school in the professionally-oriented model; the green cells represent the institution in the specialised model; while the purple cells represent the business schools in the social-science-based model.

Table 12: Summary of key points for each code in human capital theme

Sources	Human Capital Theme	
	Human Capital	Staff Management
Henry (A)	Faculty at top level are attracted by institution's name and reputation and the Faculty who are already there in their subject area	Ensuring that faculty and staff understand each other and work well together; key to recruiting and retaining good academics is quality of the research and teaching environment, quality of students, and quality of research that they could be doing
Frank (I)	The team are all very good, highly motivated people	Attracting top scholars: by interpersonal relationships, salary packages, environment to live in and intellectual environment of institution; through visiting professorships, network events
Larry (C)		Attracting and retaining good staff by its environment and culture
Edward (C)		Providing opportunity to pursue a thorough academic career and opportunities to spend a lot of time on teaching executive education programmes; a system to reward people annually for contribution
Johmy (M)		Getting top researchers to accept that they are expected to undertake a fair amount of teaching/tutoring; delegating tasks to expand their experience
George (F)	Recruiting top people in the right arenas; nurturing younger staff and growing them by providing training and mentorship	Providing right opportunities, facilities, training, good mentorship for staff; establishing research culture
Catherine (F)	Recruiting the best; supporting the best in time; supporting the best in terms of guidance with clear indications of what is expected	Giving the staff opportunity to involve with the running of school; making them feel they are appreciated, their contributions are heard; giving them adequate time and space to do research
Charles (G)		Recruiting research-led and high quality people; talking to people to learn about their attitudes, ideas and comments; being assessable and approachable to colleagues
William (G)		Developing a culture that employees want to stay; providing development programmes
Peter (J)		Building and maintaining relationships with colleagues by constant communication especially informal one and by being honest with them
Report (J)		Using performance-related pay scheme; being strong in job satisfaction, leadership, culture and values, appraisals and role clarity
Phillip (K)		Motivating colleagues by reviewing their performance, giving them performance feedback and offering them supports for those who underperform
Samantha (K)	Having the best human capital is the best strategy for staff retention	Social relationships between colleagues are very important; people will stay because they have got good colleagues
Neil (L)		Attracting top researchers by institution's reputation, being well-resourced with modest teaching loads, with some financial resources
Angela (L)	People want to be part of a successful research unit; the more success institution has the easier to retain staff	Important to delegate responsibility and accountability to colleagues; maintaining right culture and climate for research to take place helps retain research-active staff
Emma (L)	Encouraging colleagues to develop their research expertise; ensuring that less experienced colleagues have time and place to develop research	
Sean (L)		Having both formal and informal interactions between colleagues; annual review to discuss previous targets and set new ones

Human Capital Code

This code explores participants' perspectives on how they managed human capital in their institutions, from a broader perspective than the "staff management" code in the next section.

Emma, from social-science-based Business School L, always encouraged her colleagues to "develop their research expertise" and ensured that "less experienced colleagues [had] a time and place in which to develop their research" and were not over-burdened by their teaching load. Angela, also from Business School L, believed that "success [bred] success", and if the School performed well in the REF, it would

help them “recruit more people and it [helped] to retain people as well” because “people [wanted] to be part of a successful research unit”. Angela argued that “the more success we [had] the easier it [was] to retain staff”.

Catherine, from social-science-based Business School F, emphasised that “the key to having a good REF score [was] to pay attention to who you recruit to the staff”. She believed that recruiting and retaining research-active staff helped boost the School’s performance in the REF. She revealed that “when people [came] here they [needed] to be properly supported” – hence support in terms of time, reasonable teaching load and mentorship were provided to her institution’s staff to increase their competencies for producing good research. Similarly, George, also from Business School F, focused on the same issues of recruiting top people “who [were] good at the job and [were] in the right arenas” as well as “[nurturing] some of our good younger members of staff and [growing] them” by providing training and mentorship. George perceived that it was a “nice virtuous circle” that “if you [had] got good researchers here then good researchers [wanted] to work with good researchers”. This view can be seen as linking social capital and human capital.

Similarly, Samantha, from social-science-based Business School K perceived that “having the best human capital [was] the best strategy” for retaining people.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, claimed that his colleagues were “all very good, highly motivated people”. His school had strategic groups in different subject areas, with “a lot of people working on innovation” and technology.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, believed that top people were attracted to his school by “the Faculty who [were] already there in their subject area” as well as “attracted by the name and reputation of the school”.

These participants’ perspectives suggest that Business Schools L and F, which were both of the social-science-based model, focused on research and paid particular attention to the REF. They aimed to attract good researchers to work with them and

to foster emerging researchers to help them develop. By contrast, Business Schools I and A, in the quasi-US model, were in a better position and hence seemed to believe that they had already recruited good staff. However, most participants indicated that existing staff would attract other top people to work with them, in addition to the institutions' reputation. This suggests that human capital could be very important for business schools' staff recruitment and retention.

Furthermore, it is suggested that managers should be able to nurture the potential of their colleagues as well as support them in the developmental stages. As human capital is crucial to knowledge-intensive institutions like business schools, another element of human capital, apart from recruiting new staff, could involve retaining skilled and active staff. Having effective human capital was perceived by the participants as important for the REF, in that it helped business schools to achieve better research scores, which was seen as an important form of quality assurance for research-led institutions, particularly those social-science-based schools.

Staff Management Code

The "staff management" code explores further participants' perspectives on the issues of attracting, recruiting, managing and retaining staff in their institutions. This code also explores participants' views on developing and improving staff competencies in their schools.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, revealed that his institution attracted top scholars to work with them through different schemes, including visiting professorships, as well as through interpersonal relationships, such as informal networks within disciplines and networking events. To attract senior faculty to work at his business school, Frank acknowledged that it was "a combination of salary package and what else they [could] earn on executive education", plus the living environment and the intellectual environment of the institution. Therefore, the institution put together attractive salary packages to attract top people. However, he noted that top academics were "very attractive to institutions and they [could]

command very high salaries”, meaning that it was “difficult sometimes to do enough to attract people”, especially in the city where the cost of living was high. Frank further commented that his institution’s culture was that academics got “asked to do things”, not got “told to do things” and that this “[required] the ability to be persuasive which [would] depend on things like personal charisma and ability to hold one’s own in an argument, to be well informed”. Frank’s answer revealed that even in a top institution like Business School I, it required attractive pay packages to attract top people to work there, suggesting that the more financial resources the school had, the better the chances of recruiting top human capital. His response on the staff management topic reasserted the notion that academics were not to be ordered but persuaded and inspired into doing things.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, revealed the challenge of managing staff as having to “ensure that the faculty and the staff, i.e. the non-faculty staff, understand each other and work well together”, in order to get value from both parties. He believed that it was “a partnership between faculty and staff, rather than [staff] simply led by the faculty”. Regarding the recruitment of academics, Henry perceived that the name and reputation of his institution attracted top academics to the business school. However, an even more important aspect was that the top scholars in their subject area who already worked there and would attract other top scholars to work with them in the institution, particularly if they had had some sort of collaboration together. He acknowledged that there was a small pool at the top level of academic recruitment and “therefore a lot [would] depend on the reputation (a) of the school and (b) of the faculty in the particular area” to attract faculty at the top level to come to work at the institution. Furthermore, he pointed out that the more people in their discipline, the better the institution’s chances were of recruiting, or, as Henry put it, having a “critical mass”. He explained that “critical mass [was] very important” because “if [an institution was] trying to recruit a full time permanent member of faculty, [academics wanted] to come to an institution where there [were] a number of other people in their discipline”. Additionally, Henry considered that the key to recruiting and retaining good academics was “the quality of the research environment and the teaching environment, the quality of the students that they

[taught], but crucially the quality of the research that they [felt] they could be doing, both on their own and with other people here [or] elsewhere”. Henry also observed that the scope for staff to develop their careers, and the space for them to do work that they felt had value were some of the key factors in recruiting and retaining the best academics at his institution.

There are differences between these responses from quasi-US Business Schools I and A: while Frank perceived salaries as important for attracting top people to Business School I, Henry did not think that salary packages attracted top people to Business School A. Rather, Henry considered that they came to Business School A because of its reputation, connections, its being a good place to work and a good environment for productive work. Henry’s emphasised the importance of the quality of research and teaching environment, quality of the students and quality of their own research as the main factors that made people want to stay at his institution. He stressed that good staff wanted to have scope to develop their careers and mobility around the business school. Henry’s response therefore suggests that monetary rewards were not as important as the value the staff hoped to gain from working in Business School A.

Johnny, from specialised Business School M, admitted that “getting top researchers to accept that their post [was] not a full-time research one, and that they [were] expected to undertake a fair amount of teaching/tutoring” was the most challenging aspect of his role as a senior manager. Moreover, Johnny revealed that he encouraged the development of leadership in his colleagues by “delegating tasks to expand their experience” and “encouraging them to attend short courses run by the university which [were] designed to help them learn more about leadership”.

At professionally-oriented Business School C, Larry revealed that his institution recruited and retained quality staff by its supportive environment and culture. For Edward, he perceived the main reason people chose to work at Business School C was that it “[had] a good brand, a well-known brand”. Edward described the methods of recruiting in his department as internal transfer within the institution, external recruitment using advertisement and through an agency. For retention, Edward

stressed that it was “a combination of several things”, such as providing an “opportunity [for academics] to pursue a very thorough academic career” by “doing lots of research, writing and publishing”, and “opportunities for people to spend a lot of time doing teaching on executive education programmes”. Furthermore, Business School C also had “a system to reward people at the end of the year for contributing things which the school [found] very useful”, which were assessed by: “the number of publications they have made”; “the amount of business they have brought into the school”; “their professional standing within their particular area”; and their other contributions to the school community. From Edward’s answer, it seemed that Business School C attended to the issue of payment and rewards, suggesting the perceived importance of this issue at his school. However, neither Larry nor Edward mentioned salary packages when discussing staff recruitment. Both merely mentioned that their institution attracted academics because of the school’s reputation, its environment and academic support, which suggests a link between human capital, social capital and organisational capital.

At social-science-based Business School L, Neil defined a difficulty in academic recruitment: although his institution was reputable, well-resourced with modest teaching loads, offering research assistants and funded PhD studentships, “this attracted staff but didn't always result in the [research assistant] and PhD student producing high quality research”. He explained that “finding good staff and motivating those whose performance needed the most improvement” were the most challenging aspects of his senior management role. For Sean, management of staff involved both formal and informal interactions between colleagues in chats to “[encourage] submission of abstracts for conferences, applications for university/faculty admin posts” and formal meetings for “a review annually at which we [saw] how previous targets [had] been met and set ones for the following year”. Angela acknowledged that it was important to delegate responsibility and accountability to colleagues, and she was “very keen to pass down other tasks for other people to do”, as she believed it was “very important for them” that “people [needed] to take more responsibility for their particular areas of activity and be accountable much more for that”. Regarding recruitment, Angela revealed that she

started by inviting leading scholars to give talk, or with a research collaboration and whenever possible tried to “recruit them to work with [the school] full time if they [were] leading scholars”. On staff retention, Angela said that if her institution wanted to retain those research-active staff, it would go back to “the question of maintaining the right culture and the climate for research to take place and to encourage them”.

At social-science-based Business School F Catherine discussed staff retention in terms not only of monetary rewards and promotion, but also that staff “[had] to feel that they [were] appreciated” and “[had] to know that their contributions are heard”. She said that staff “[had] to have an opportunity where they [wanted] to be involved in the school and in the running of the school and have their say” and they needed to “have adequate time and space to carry out their research”. In addition, she stressed the need for a leader to “encourage people to use their talents” and “to be able to allow people to reach their potential”. George acknowledged the importance of the school’s ability to “recruit top people from elsewhere” together with the ability to “nurture some of our good younger members of staff and grow them”. He pointed out an emphasis that his institution placed on having research-active people, establishing a research culture and reinforcing their commitment to research. George revealed that the qualities he looked for when recruiting people were “the commitment and energy to what we [were] trying to do and the ability to work on their own and be trusted to work on their own and be able to make autonomous decisions and take initiative on their own”.

At social-science-based Business School K, Phillip explained that when he arrived at the institution, the culture had been “a little bit of a sleepy hollow and it needed wakening up”, where “the department was losing money” and “there was a necessity to effect a turnaround”. He described how he motivated colleagues by reviewing their performance, giving them performance feedback and offering support for those who underperformed. Phillip admitted that people who did not improve or felt uncomfortable with change were persuaded to leave. Therefore, he believed that “this combination of people leaving, people improving their performance and new people arriving with the growth and income of the school transformed the culture, very

quickly, and created a much more performance-orientated school”. However, he stressed the need for other people’s support in the form of collective leadership, in terms of motivating and establishing new culture. Additionally, Phillip believed that elements that helped with the recruitment of top academics included his international academic reputation, both the institution’s and the parent university’s reputation as well as the city where the institution was situated. Phillip perceived that high quality people were “critical in the performance and improvement of the school and they were critical also, fundamentally critical, in the success in the research assessment exercise in 2008”. Viewing “recruitment and retention of key people [as] a fundamentally crucial factor in performance and in competitive performance”, Phillip acknowledged that his institution increased salaries to attract academics. At a more junior management level, Samantha perceived social relationships between colleagues as “very important” in retaining people at the institution because “people [could] go anywhere for more money” but “they [would] stay because they [had] got good colleagues”. From her perspective, human capital was considered the best strategy for staff retention, confirming her earlier comment that people stayed because of their colleagues. Additionally, although Samantha did not mention social capital as a factor in staff retention, this suggests that good interpersonal relationships between colleagues, as a form of internal social capital, could persuade people to stay at the institution. These responses from Phillip and Samantha suggest that there are perceived links between financial resources, social capital, human capital and organisational capital, and that these components could be important for staff recruitment and retention of business schools.

At social-science-based Business School J, Peter describe how his institution had the “friendly, inclusive and team-based culture” and staff satisfaction surveys to ensure that staff were working well together, helping each other, developing teamwork – not in “a command and control style of leadership”, which Peter considered inappropriate for Business School J. He explained that his institution built and maintained relationships with colleagues through constant communication, especially informal communication, mostly face-to-face or by phone, if there was issue, and by being honest with them, and by nurturing relationships with other senior colleagues

in the university. Meanwhile, a confidential report from Business School J revealed that the institution used performance-related pay and did very well in job satisfaction, leadership, culture and values, appraisals and role clarity, according to a survey of staff attitudes. The report showed that one of the institution's strengths was staff motivation and morale. Peter's answers in the interview and the information in this report demonstrated that Business School J devoted a lot of effort to staff attitudes and satisfaction. This suggests that human capital could be valuable to knowledge-intensive institutions like business schools. Therefore, Business School J worked hard on developing and maintaining relationships with staff as it could result in stronger human capital for the school.

At social-science-based Business School G, Charles explained that for an academic appointment, the person had to be "research-led and of high quality". Charles revealed that in his post the strategy was "very much to be inclusive, be consultative and to involve other people too". He further revealed that he spent a lot of time walking around the school talking to people to learn about people's attitudes, ideas and comments on a range of subjects. Charles considered that it was "a matter of being accessible and making sure that the people [understood] that if they [came] up with an idea that they [could] approach you with it". Charles emphasised that his leadership involved "team-based activity", that he felt it was important to "keep meeting lots and lots of people" and "to keep the communication lines open throughout the school and be available".

For William, although his institution did pay staff higher salaries in order to retain them, "money [was] not a key driver" but the school "[developed] a culture that employees [wanted] to stay, [it wanted] to be an employer of choice". Moreover, he said that his institution provided developmental programmes for staff, such as technical development, skill development and personal development to help them improve their capabilities and competencies.

These answers from Charles and William demonstrate the perceived links between human capital and organisational capital that academics can flourish in a suitable

environment. Business School G concentrated on establishing a team-based environment, research culture as well as providing developmental programmes to help the staff flourish. Additionally, the data suggested that although financial resources might be important, other forms of capital such as organisational capital could affect staff retention as well.

From the data of these two codes under the main “human capital” theme, participants’ perspectives suggest that motivation, job satisfaction, good colleagues and collegial relationships were seen as factors in attracting and retaining a pool of high-quality human capital, which could be fuelled by a vibrant research culture, training, and interdisciplinary sharing of knowledge, which, in turn, could foster creativity, innovation and high-quality output in business schools. In short, the participants in this study perceived that it was important to recruit the best people, train them and retain them in an accommodating environment. Therefore, every stage of human capital could be important, from recruiting, nurturing to motivating academic staff in a supportive environment where they have sufficient space, time and training to conduct research and to think creatively.

This finding suggests that UK business schools should focus on the creativity of staff, encourage them to be innovative, bring out their tacit knowledge and talent, and maintain their mental well-being in order to improve the potential of human capital while making them happy to stay.

Furthermore, this study argues that human capital could be an increasingly vital source of competitiveness for UK business schools. It could be treated as an asset for business schools aiming to retain and develop staff in order to enhance the institution’s performance. Therefore, developing people according to their talent and skill could be beneficial for individuals and institutions. Specifically, the management of human capital could utilise processes discussed by participants in this study: performance measurement, distributed leadership, staff empowerment, developmental training programmes, rewards and supportive context.

Social Capital Theme

As discussed in the introduction to this chapter, the “social capital” theme focuses on the external dimension of social capital. The internal dimension of social capital is also explored in the study under the topic of staff management of the main “human capital” theme, as it discusses how business school leaders manage staff and relationships between them. As Coleman (1988) and Hitt and Duane (2002) suggest, there is an interrelation between social capital and human capital. It is, therefore, appropriate to include relationships between staff in explaining how leaders manage and retain staff to ensure the optimal performance of their human capital.

According to many researchers, the definition of social capital could be drawn for this study as the capital that is based on both formal and informal relationships and trust between two or more parties, which facilitates the development of other forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1989; Coleman, 1988; Hitt & Duane, 2002). Social capital is extrinsic to individuals, and even internal social capital is not intrinsic to individuals. Social capital exists in the relationships between individuals or parties. Internal social capital is the relationships between individuals within a particular group, while external social capital signifies the relationships between individuals or parties across the groups. As the “social capital” theme in this study discusses the external aspect of social capital, the theme therefore combines the following five codes under one main theme: “social capital”, “industry linkages”, “advisory board”, “accreditation” and “ranking”.

Table 13 shows the summary of key points discussed by participants in each code under the “social capital” theme. The blue cells represent the business schools in the quasi-US model; the orange cells represent the business school in the professionally-oriented model; the green cells represent the institution in the specialised model; while the purple cells represent the business schools in the social-science-based model.

Table 13: Summary of key points for each code in social capital theme

Sources	Social Capital Theme				
	Social Capital	Industry Linkages	Advisory Board	Accreditation	Ranking
Henry (A)	Building link with businesses and social context; strong connections between business and faculty members	Strengthening relationships between faculty members and businesses; inviting business leaders to give talks	Giving perspective current situation in their region	Accreditations from three main accreditation bodies are important	Focusing on FT rankings on MBAs, executive education, etc.
Frank (I)	University's connection benefits school's financial resources, human capital, advisory boards and networks	Establishing linkages via: careers; projects between the students and companies; and high profile guest speakers	Helpful with advising in the major review of curricula development and other aspects	Accreditation process is not a big driver for change	Working hard to meet criteria of FT ranking
Edward (C)			Helping institution think through its initiative and keeping relationship with stakeholders		
Johnny (M)	Building connections through committees and advisory bodies; maintaining relationships with key stakeholders via various activities				
George (F)		Having a corporate connections group for developing linkages		Triple accreditation distinguishing institution in marketplace	Position in FT rankings is important factor that markets respond to
Catherine (F)		Making a bigger than normal impact and improvement in terms of corporate connections	Giving information; challenging institution's direction		
Charles (G)	Getting institution's stakeholders involved; attending events with them; inviting them in and visiting them; having constant two-way communication	Inviting companies to give talks; collaborative relationships linking specific employers to specific courses		Having triple accreditation serves different markets	FT ranking somewhat drives overall reputation of institution
William (G)					Using criteria from different rankings for evaluation
Peter (J)		Communicating knowledge and understanding to communities			
Report (J)	Establishing knowledge transfer initiatives with community and businesses; creating virtual network for stakeholders to share ideas	Developing relationships with international clients through customised executive education; closer links with businesses via close partnerships	Advising institution's strategies, curricula, research foci, business engagement, marketing	Triple accreditation put institution in distinguished group	
Phillip (K)			Supporting the development of the school		
Samantha (K)	Engaging with local businesses; contributing to community through various programmes				
Neil (L)	Making connections with business people; attending various network events			Accreditation process as effective change agent	
Angela (L)	Encouraging people to attend networking events, to build links with businesses that might lead to other collaborations	Establishing close links with business and other third sector organisations by bringing businesses in, doing guest lectures, work placement, projects	Being impetus to examine plan of actions; challenging or supporting institution's plan of strategies	Triple accreditation important for international market	FT rankings critical; huge benefit to attract international students
Emma (L)		Having knowledge transfer and consultancy works with businesses			

Social Capital Code

Social capital in this study refers to external relationships that contribute to an organisation's performance and add value to stakeholders (Hitt et al., 2007).

Therefore, this code examines the external relationships between business schools

and their stakeholders, as perceived by the participants in this study, focusing on those that were seen to benefit institutions.

Johnny, from specialised Business School M, explained that he built connections for the university with influential people through members of committees and advisory bodies. He perceived that building and maintaining relationships between his school and key stakeholders was most effectively managed through “the building of networks, publishing brochures disseminating the achievements of the school, organising ‘events’ for different groups (e.g. alumni, business, researchers), and generally having a professional and active marketing department”.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, perceived that alumni were crucial. However, he noted that his institution was “very young” but had been “very fortunate in having big benefactors” from the parent university’s connection, which benefited the business school in terms of financial resources, human capital, advisory boards and networks, thus social capital.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, stressed “building a good link with both businesses and more generally the social context” by securing strong connections between business and faculty members, inviting business leaders to lectures and presentations, and exposing MBA students to local businesses in action.

At social-science-based Business School L, Angela believed that “external networking and business engagement [was] very important”. She added that she encouraged people to attend networking events, building links with businesses that might lead to other collaborations, such as corporate programmes and/or research partnerships. For Neil, he “made connections with influential business people in the locality and region by attending as many network events as [he] could”, enhancing the school’s advisory boards and using a PR firm for marketing.

Charles, from social-science-based Business School G, strengthened the institution’s social capital by getting the school’s advisory board and all stakeholders involved,

attending events with them, inviting them in and visiting them and having “constant two-way communication and traffic between all of those routes”. Furthermore, he revealed that his institution also put an effort into building relationships with alumni, using a dedicated alumni team, adding that “there [was] quite a bit of resource that [went] into that”.

Samantha, from social-science-based Business School K, explained that her school engaged with students by “teaching them to the very best standards”, tried to engage with “business in the local businesses in which [it was] situated” and tried to “contribute to the community as well through various programmes”. In response to the question about how her business school engaged with different stakeholder groups, she said “it [was] the community, business and students”.

The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J revealed that the school carried out several knowledge transfer initiatives, such as sharing its talented people with the community, sharing research knowledge with businesses and the community and MBA consultancy projects with businesses. The institution also created a virtual network that involved staff, students, businesses, policy makers and other stakeholders to share ideas about improvements the school could make.

From the interview data, social capital appeared very important for these participants’ business schools. They all sought to build this form of capital through networking with many stakeholders, i.e. students, alumni, local businesses and local authorities. They also made connections with influential business people and tried to get them on their advisory boards. This analysis suggests that social capital could be established through knowledge transfer schemes, consultancy projects and the student placement schemes that most business schools in this study had adopted. Some participants’ institutions had specialised marketing and PR departments dedicated to developing these forms of social capital. The recurring themes in the “social capital” code were linkages with industry, connections with business people, engagement with stakeholders and community and knowledge transfer.

For business school leaders/managers, developing social capital involved creating networks from inside to outside the institutions. It seems that managers generally bring with them existing connections and networks from past positions at other organisations, which could be very useful for building social capital. Furthermore, clear communication of important messages can help in establishing understanding between business schools and their stakeholders. This analysis suggests that business schools could use marketing materials, such as brochures and websites to communicate with stakeholders and the public, organising events to get closer to business and industry and to reinforce existing networks and connections. Additionally, networks and connections could be built by exchanging the knowledge that institutions have with business and industry, in return for which institutions could get funds for doing research. Subsequently, business schools could design and offer executive courses to businesses that they have connections with, which could in turn enhance their financial resources. Although it was not clear from this study whether engagement with industry, community and stakeholders was for the purpose of enhancing social capital or for serving the community without strategic self-interest, social capital could facilitate the enhancement of UK business schools' financial resources, and this subject will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter under the "financial sustainability" theme.

This interpretation of interview data suggests that instead of solely focusing on securing the financial growth of institutions by exploiting social capital, business schools could add value to their institutions by paying more attention to the sustainable development of both the institutions and the community. Knowledge transfer initiatives could yield significant rewards in terms of improving the community, because they could share practical ideas between policy makers, researchers and other stakeholders. This in turn could bring benefits to business schools, such as new ideas for innovation, which could be more valuable, over the longer term, than the immediate financial benefits.

Industry Linkages Code

This code explores the participants' perspectives on how their institutions established and exploited corporate connections and linkages with industry.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, described how his institution established corporate connections and industry linkages via careers, projects between the students and companies and high profile guest speakers. He explained that the institution had “an external relations team that [worked] with firms” to strengthen the corporate connections, and that “obviously the bodies of Advisory Boards [did] a lot of introducing for us”.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, revealed that his school was fortunate to be in a large city, making it easier to establish corporate connections with large businesses. He stressed the strength of relationships between academic staff and businesses, with his school inviting business leaders to talk to students in order to maintain links. The students at his institution also had an opportunity to be exposed to businesses in the city. He acknowledged that his institution “[placed] a premium on building these links” and that “it [revolved] around a number of different elements to do with faculty linkages, guest speakers, governing body representation, students going out and meeting business leaders and seeing businesses in action”.

At social-science-based Business School L, Angela revealed that her institution aimed to establish “very close links with business and other third sector organisations” by “[bringing] businesses in”, “[doing] guest lectures”, “[having] students go on placement”, or “[having] projects running business”. Moreover, she perceived that the key role for a senior manager like her was “external networking, taking every opportunity to network, developing relationships with companies here”. From her perspective, there were different ways to build corporate connections, such as networking events, “links that you [had] in the past”, “specific conferences where we would invite companies” and corporate clients for executive education that could lead to other corporate programmes or research links. For Emma, her answer

suggested that her institution engaged in knowledge transfer and consultancy with businesses.

At social-science-based Business School F, Catherine described her school's "two over-arching big pushes" on internationalisation and corporate connections, whereby the institution had to "make a bigger than normal impact and improvement". George explained that his business school had a "corporate connections group" dedicated to developing corporate connections, which were considered "an important part of [the institution's] stakeholder group".

At social-science-based Business School J, Peter described his institution's emphasis on wide and effective communication of its knowledge and understanding to its communities, particularly the scientific and business communities, both nationally and internationally. Additionally, the confidential report from Business School J revealed that that institution developed relationships with international clients through accredited or customised executive education programmes. The report explained that Business School J engaged with the community through an initiative that brought its staff, students, businesses, policy makers and other stakeholders together to share ideas on how to best develop the business school. Furthermore, the report revealed the institution's linkages with the community through sharing of its talents and research knowledge in various projects with the community in the region, as well as consultancy projects and work placement schemes with businesses and knowledge transfer partnerships with industry. In addition, the report acknowledged the institution's efforts to establish closer links with businesses through close partnerships of various sorts, as well as building new links with target industries. Furthermore, it revealed that the institution encouraged the exchange of contacts and networks between the business school and the parent university as well as promoting corporate connections, partnerships and collaborations through a dedicated team. Moreover, it explained that the institution also participated in a scheme that invited small and medium enterprises (SMEs) to purchase academic support from one of the universities in the region, as well as having a centre dedicated to working with corporate clients, in both the public and private sectors, to deliver tailored

programmes for its clients' managers to gain revenue, create research opportunities and nurture links with corporate clients.

Charles, from social-science-based Business School G, described how his institution engaged with business and industry by “[inviting] companies to come and give talks, it [was] a part of our teaching”. He explained that some of his school’s collaborative relationships created links with certain employers to certain courses and “[contributed] both to the development of those courses, both to the delivery of those courses and also to their evaluation”.

Advisory Board Code

The “advisory board” code examined participants’ perspectives on the formation and functions of advisory boards in their business schools.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, described how some members of his business school’s advisory board were graduates from its parent university, and that its graduates provided connections that the institution did “certainly rely on”. He explained that the advisory board had been very helpful in a major review of the curriculum and other aspects in regular reviews, as well as on occasions when the institution needed advice from experts on the advisory board. In the regular consultation process, Frank explained that the institution had meetings with the advisory board twice a year, where the board “[got] told what [the institution was] doing, and then also [had] an opportunity to respond and make suggestions”. However, he felt that the format of these meetings was “not so formal anymore”.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, described his institution’s reliance on two sources of advice: the governing body and the global advisory board, which Henry explained was the result of the merger from regional advisory boards. According to Henry, the institution’s global advisory board was “an international board with people from all over the world”, each bringing a “perspective of what [was] happening in their country or their region”. Apart from their regular meeting, Henry

acknowledged that the Dean and other school members could “draw on members of that [advisory] board for advice” between meetings. He described this as “a combination of semi-formal mechanisms”, with a mixture of formal board meetings and informal discussions with members of the board. He explained that some of the board members were alumni, so there was already a connection. However, he perceived that the key to building connections with people they wanted to become board members was to ensure that the institution could “create real value for them and do something that they appreciate”, and not waste their time. To do this, his institution had to show that it would take and “listen to their advice”, “ask them good questions”, “manage their time very effectively” and “keep them well apprised of what the school [was] doing but at the right level of detail”.

Edward, from professionally-oriented Business School C, described his institution’s advisory board as “leading industrialists and business people” who helped his institution “think through initiatives that [the institution had] and how to keep in touch with [the institution’s] various stakeholders”.

Angela, from social-science-based Business School L, stressed the importance of her institution’s advisory board in making the school “focus on what [it had] done for the last few months, [the school made] a presentation about strategy and [got] them to give [the school] some input on [its] strategy”. She saw the key advantage of having an advisory board as the “support and challenge” that it provided, as well as their external perspectives, which she considered useful for her institution. Furthermore, she pointed out that the advisory board was useful for her institution as an “impetus” to examine its plans and in terms of challenging or supporting its strategy. Having an advisory board could help an institution develop a well thought-through strategy.

Catherine, from social-science-based Business School F, described how her institution had two advisory boards: a junior advisory board and a traditional advisory board. The junior advisory board consisted of school students – to represent their views on the purpose of a business school, their expectations of business education and their perspectives on new technology – and a traditional advisory,

which consisted of business people, policymakers and leading people from local industry – to provide the institution with information and to challenge the institution. According to Catherine, the advisory board “[would] give [the school] information and they challenge [the school], I [encouraged] them to challenge us, openly about the direction that we [were] going in”. This presented a response similar to Angela’s from Business School L, in that the advisory board had a role in challenging her institution’s plan, suggesting that it was a process of ensuring that the institution was on the right track. Furthermore, Catherine explained that her institution had three annual advisory board meetings and that she “[kept] them involved with information all the time” about the current situation in the institution as well as “[engaged] them on strategic questions at every board meeting”, so that board members were “fully appraised” and “fully involved” in all school projects and decisions. Additionally, Catherine explained that when there was a problem she could contact board members with specific expertise for advice. This suggests that Business School F also had a combination of formal and informal discussion with its advisory board, similar to Business School A.

Phillip, from social-science-based Business School K, described how his institution’s advisory board consisted of senior businesspeople from top companies, not only in Britain but also from other European countries. He explained that this international advisory board was created to “support the development of the school”. This international advisory board is comparable to the Business School A’s global advisory board.

The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J showed that the institution’s advisory board was made up of both national and international members from industry, the public sector and alumni. According to the report, the institution’s advisory board was created to provide advice for the institution on its strategic development of business school strategies, curricula and programme portfolio, research foci, engagement with businesses and marketing of the institution. The report revealed that the business school had two annual meetings with the advisory

board, and that the board was helpful in providing impetus for the institution's long-term strategy and objectives.

The constitution of advisory boards in business schools was seen by participants as very positive and effective in providing them with advice for managing and leading their institutions. The interview data suggest that all participating institutions' advisory boards were made up of leading people from industry and business, to ensure that they had expertise and could advise on the schools' strategic direction and development. Although some interviewees reported that their schools' advisory boards comprised both national and international members, some other interviewees did not mention this topic. However, it would probably be wrong to conclude that those who did not mention it only had national members on their advisory board. Therefore, considering the international standings and rankings of participating business schools, it could be assumed that most of the participants' institutions, if not all, had international members on their advisory boards. Furthermore, it is suggested that an advisory board that is made up of leading people from various industries around the world could provide more valuable advice, from different perspectives and deeper insights on current situations in their regions, and that could be more beneficial for business schools than having advisory boards that only have local and national businesspeople.

Accreditation Code

Business schools around the world are facing challenges and struggling to add value to their institutions. Accreditation is one way to help business schools in identifying value added. It is provided by an accrediting body. For business education, the three most respected accreditation bodies at international level are the European Quality Improvement System (EQUIS), the Association of MBAs (AMBA) and the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). The "accreditation" code in this research explored the importance of accreditation in UK business schools, as perceived by participants in this study.

At social-science-based Business School L, Neil perceived the accreditation process as “an effective change agent” for his business school, while Angela revealed thought that triple accreditation “[was] really important in the international market”.

George from social-science-based Business School F, when asked what he thought distinguished his institution in the marketplace, stressed that having triple accreditation was one of the factors.

The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J expressed the pride of its institution a business school that had triple accreditation, because this put it in “a group constituting less than 1% of Business Schools world-wide”, meaning it was in a better position than business schools that were not triple accredited.

Charles from social-science-based Business School G agreed that “having triple accreditation [mattered] because very few schools [had] triple accreditation”. He explained out that “those accreditations don’t mean the same in every marketplace”, so having triple accreditation served different purposes in different markets or countries. However, having the three main accreditations probably served most of the needs of most marketplaces.

From the perspectives of participants in the quasi-US business schools, Henry, from Business School A, agreed that having accreditations from three accreditation bodies (EQUIS, AACSB and AMBA) “[were] important”, while Frank from Business School I, which was double accredited, did not see the accreditation process as “a big driver for change”. Frank claimed that his school “[had] made very few changes in response to [the accreditation process] because for the most part [the accreditation bodies were] quite happy with what we [were] doing”.

Although participants from professionally-oriented Business School C and specialised Business School M did not mention accreditation in their interviews, the institutions evidently put some effort into the process, because the secondary data showed that both schools held triple accreditation. Furthermore, the secondary data

showed that of three quasi-US business schools in this study, only one was triple accredited, and the other two held double accreditation. The two with double accreditation have had a longstanding background and distinguished success that differentiate them from other institutions in the marketplace.

Most participants who discussed this topic agreed that the accreditation process was crucial for competition in the marketplace, particularly triple accreditation. The interview data suggest that participants who stressed the importance of accreditation were mostly from social-science-based business schools, except Henry who was from a quasi-US business school. This could be partly attributed to the very large number of social-science-based business schools in the UK, causing them to strive for triple accreditation in order to be accepted as high quality institutions in a crowded market. However, while Neil from a social-science-based school believed that the accreditation process was “an effective change agent”, Frank from a quasi-US school did not. This might be because the quasi-US school might have already been performing better than the social-science-based school, so that the accreditation process might be more beneficial to those schools that were performing less well. However, responses from Business Schools A, C and M suggest that these institutions also placed an emphasis on triple accreditation, which suggests that triple accreditation is important to UK business schools, regardless of the model of business school they have adopted. In such a competitive market, it is likely that leaders/managers in all schools will be sensitive to the potential impact of accreditations.

Ranking Code

Rankings are another method for business schools to establish visibility in the marketplace. Of the many rankings that are available, *The Financial Times* (FT) and *The Economist* are two of the most referred-to rankings (Devinney et al., 2008; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011). The “ranking” code in this research explores the importance and impact of rankings of UK business schools, as perceived by the participants in this study.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, described how the FT ranking “[depended] very much on salary and salary increases”, and, hence, in effort to boost its position, his institution focused on getting “people that [were] employable” and worked hard to ensure students got the jobs they wanted. This suggests that his institution perceived the importance of the FT ranking and therefore attempted to improve on the critical areas in the FT ranking criteria.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, explained that, in terms of rankings, his business school paid most attention to the FT rankings on MBAs, executive education and Masters and management programmes. His response confirmed that FT rankings were considered crucial for business schools.

Angela, from social-science-based Business School L, recognised the significance of rankings for the positioning of her institution. She said that the FT rankings were crucial for Masters programmes and MBAs, and that her school’s position in the FT rankings was “a huge benefit and [that it attracted] international students from all over the world”. Angela concluded that she could not “emphasise too highly the importance of the FT rankings” and that “they [were] really absolutely critical for business schools”.

Similarly, George, from social-science-based Business School F, described his institution’s “positioning in the Financial Times rankings” as one of the most important factors, which “the marketplace [responded] to more than anything else”.

At social-science-based Business School G, Charles explained that “the Financial Times ranking to some extent [drove] the overall reputation of the Business School”, in terms of both the MBAs and other postgraduate programmes. Although Charles considered the FT ranking as “perhaps the most important”, his institution looked at its performance in other rankings as well and tried to improve based on their criteria. Likewise, William added that his institution used criteria from different rankings to evaluate its programmes.

The interview data suggest that the FT rankings were the most respected for business education, particularly at postgraduate level. This is consistent with the literature about the use of the FT rankings (Devinney et al., 2008; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Goodall, 2009). Managers from social-science-based business schools stressed the influence that their positions in FT rankings had on their institutions' reputation. Frank described his institution's efforts to improve its position in the FT rankings by focusing on the critical criteria that could boost its performance in the rankings. This is consistent with the literature about business-schools being market-oriented and focused on ratings and rankings (Devinney et al., 2008; Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). However, Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) suggest that the relentless effort to pursue rankings and accreditations may cause business schools to limit their innovation and distinctiveness, because they might begin to imitate each other, if they use the same set of criteria provided by ranking publishers and accreditation bodies. This may also misdirect business school Deans to focus on image rather than bridging the gap between theory and practice.

Although accreditation and rankings are perceived as quality indicators for prospective students, stakeholders and the wider society (Wilson & McKiernan, 2011), efforts to pursue these two factors may result in schools focusing on the same criteria, just to make their way to the top of the rankings or to be triple accredited. This may mean that they ignore their context and the competitive advantages that could differentiate their institutions in the marketplace. Therefore, while accreditation and rankings are undeniably critical for business education, leaders/managers in UK business schools should identify their school's distinctiveness, background, context and strengths and weaknesses in order to establish competitive advantage and gain reputation for the institution. They could follow ranking and accreditation criteria but should acknowledge and highlight their institution's distinctiveness in order to stand out in the crowded business school market.

Organisational Capital Theme

The “organisational capital” theme combines the “organisational capital” code and the “supportive environment” code into one main theme.

Table 14 shows the summary of key points discussed by participants in each code under the “organisational capital” theme. The blue cells represent the business schools in the quasi-US model; the orange cells represent the business school in the professionally-oriented model; the green cells represent the institution in the specialised model; while the purple cells represent the business schools in the social-science-based model.

Table 14: Summary of key points for each code in organisational capital theme

Organisational Capital Theme		
Sources	Organisational Capital	Supportive Environment
Henry (A)	A commitment to being excellent in everything, to providing a very good service, to doing great research	A good atmosphere for productive work; supporting people for new ideas and to be innovative
Frank (I)	Collaborative, non-hierarchical culture; a very democratic place; a very research active environment; doing research is general expectation	
Larry (C)		Offering a unique experience; giving staff freedom and support to pursue their own research agendas
Edward (C)		Providing opportunities to do lots of research, writing and publishing; autonomy to work on things staff find interesting and valuable
Johnny (M)		A research culture; a teaching load with sufficient time for research; attractive salary; funds for attending conferences
Thomas (D)		Research-valued environment; promoting strong subject disciplines, interdisciplinary themes and development of interdisciplinary research; supporting training on publications; providing support funds, database facilities
George (F)	A commitment to being a research-led business school; a culture in which not doing good research is unacceptable	An ambitious environment; building research clusters in departments; providing right opportunities for younger staff
Catherine (F)		Allowing new lecturers space to deal with teaching preparation and requirements; providing them with mentorship from experienced researchers
Charles (G)	A research-led, inclusive and consultative culture; being world-class and of highest quality in everything institution strives to do	
William (G)	Building a world-class research culture	Managing and supporting colleagues; protecting them from bureaucracy; not closing down the suggestions that they make
Peter (J)	Building the culture of supportive and motivating team-based environment, friendly and inclusive	
Report (J)	Embedding a research active culture throughout the school	Research centres to encourage linkages at business school, university and inter-university levels; support and advice for writing, application and submission for research grants
Phillip (K)		A climate that encourages good quality research, values innovation; a positive incentive system; support and mentorship for younger academics; role models for people to follow
Samantha (K)		An environment people feel part of and motivated; making an environment for people to interact
Angela (L)	Important to create a good research culture in institution	Encouraging a climate for good research, giving people enough time in blocks to do research; offering incentives for top journal publication
Emma (L)	Ensuring that every staff has a chance to develop their career in the way they want	

Organisational Capital Code

Organisational capital represents the ability of an organisation to prepare for change and implement strategy. It includes organisational culture, which involves principles, philosophy and core values that are held in the organisation and influence the way the organisation operates (Hitt et al., 2007). As discussed earlier in this chapter, difficulty of getting information on organisational structure meant that this code focuses on organisational culture and explores participants' perspectives on their business school's culture.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, described his institution's culture as "collaborative" and "non-hierarchical", where people were not told to do something, but asked to. According to Frank, his institution's faculty members "[had] a lot of time to research if that [was] what [they chose] to do". Furthermore, from his perspective, his school was in a very research-active environment, where doing research was a "general expectation": "the only way that you [could] get promoted here [was] if you [did] good research". Additionally, he described the institution as "a very democratic place", based on committees' decisions and involving a continuous process of negotiating and convincing people with rational arguments.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, defined the culture in his school as having "a commitment to being excellent in everything we [did], to providing a very good service, to doing great research".

At social-science-based Business School L, Angela said that it was "really important to create a good research culture in the school" because it "[differentiated] a research-led institution from a teaching-led institution". She said her institution maintained a favourable climate for doing research, so research active staff would tend to stay with the school, suggesting a link between organisational capital and human capital in that school. For Emma, she encouraged collegial culture and

“[tried] to fight to ensure that every member of staff [had] a chance to develop their career in the way they [wanted]”.

At social-science-based Business School J, Peter described how his institution tried to build a “supportive and motivating team-based environment” that was friendly and inclusive. Additionally, the institution’s confidential report revealed its effort to “embed a research active culture throughout the school”.

George, from social-science-based Business School F, emphasised his school’s commitment to “being a research-led business school” with ambitions. Hence, he said his institution’s culture was one where it would be “in a sense, unacceptable [for staff] not to be doing good research”.

At social-science-based Business School G, Charles described his institution’s as having “basically a research-led culture in which everything we [strived] to do is of the highest quality”, including research, teaching, the university infrastructure, and/or college experience. In addition to being research-led and of the highest quality, Charles said that his school was “trying to strive in whatever we do to being world class”. He saw his school’s culture as “very inclusive and consultative”, where Heads and Deans were not executives, and they had to “consult with their department” for academic decisions. According to Charles, the parent university also had a consultative culture, where colleagues were expected to “have information on why decisions should be made in this way”. Hence, he said, “at [Business School G] we [did] not have executive deans”. For William, his institution “[built] a world-class research culture and supportive environment” in order to make people want to stay at the institution. William’s answer is similar to Angela’s and confirms the emerging link between organisational capital and human capital. In addition, both Charles’s and William’s answers are consistent on the school’s culture of being world class.

As all institutions in this study were research-led, all participants recognised the importance of nurturing a research culture in a supportive environment. It seemed that the fact that these participants’ institutions were knowledge-intensive

organisations was linked to developing a culture of sharing knowledge between peers to develop in the aspired direction of the institutions. This analysis suggests that the institutional cultures of participants in this study were not in the leadership-follower style, but more about respecting and supporting colleagues and being collaborative, inclusive, positive and motivational.

Supportive Environment Code

The “supportive environment” code represents participants’ perspectives on the work environment in their institutions that they perceived as supporting and contributing to the performance of their institutions.

Johnny from specialised Business School M described how his institution cultivated a supportive environment for staff in terms of assigning “a teaching load that [left] sufficient time for research”, providing funds for attending conferences, offering an attractive salary and establishing a research culture, which was “encouraged through an appraisal scheme, rewards, research ‘events’”. Johnny observed that “if all these conditions [were] right then creative research [was] likely to follow”, suggesting that a supportive environment, which is part of organisational capital, could lead to creativity and innovation, which is part of intellectual capital.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, said that it was important for his institution to create “a good atmosphere for productive work for both staff and faculty”. Henry also considered that “the quality of the research environment and the teaching environment” were key factors in his institution’s recruiting and retaining the best academics, suggesting a link between organisational capital and human capital. He explained that his school supported people in their new ideas and encouraged them “to be innovative and imaginative”.

At professionally-oriented Business School C, Larry described how his institution used its organisational capital to enhance its human capital, evidenced in his response that his institution attracted and retained quality people by providing “a unique

experience” and by giving them “the freedom and support to pursue their own research agendas”. Similarly, Edward described how his institution provided its academics with opportunities to do “lots of research, writing and publishing”. He perceived that having “the right level of autonomy for people” was very important in academic settings and that at Business School C “people [were] trying to be given as much autonomy to work on the things that [were] interesting to them and value adding to the school”.

Thomas, from social-science-based Business School D, described his institution’s supportive environment as one that created a research-valued environment, “strong subject disciplines and interdisciplinary themes”, “strong support for PhD program and DBA”, development of “centres for excellence in interdisciplinary research” and training on publications. Moreover, Thomas acknowledged the importance of provision of “support funds for travel”, “excellent database facilities” as well as scrutiny and a review service for project proposals, as the aspects of environment that promoted high quality research in his institution.

Angela, from social-science-based Business School L, explained that because a good research culture was important for her institution, she therefore considered that “encouraging a climate in which [a good research culture could] take place, giving researchers enough time in blocks to pursue their research [was] really critical”. From her perspective, building a good research culture meant that “conversations or discourse [was] about research and not just about teaching”. In addition, she revealed that her institution created a good research environment by offering incentives or rewards to people who got “a publication that [was] ranked in one of the journals that [was] ranked by the Financial Times or a four star journal”.

At social-science-based Business School F, Catherine described how her institution supported new lecturers by allowing them space to deal with teaching preparation and requirements and providing them with mentorship from experienced researchers. She acknowledged the need for “a very clear communication of what the expectations [were]”. Regarding the environment that helped retain staff, Catherine

recognised the need for an appreciation for what her colleagues had done well because the staff “[had] to feel that they were appreciated” and that “their contributions [were] heard”. Additionally, Catherine acknowledged the need to provide an opportunity for her colleagues “to be involved in the school and in the running of the school and have their say” as well as the need to allow her colleagues enough time and space to carry out their research. Similarly, George said that Business School F was “doing quite a lot to provide the right opportunities for our younger members of staff”, who were “likely to get better given the sort of facilities that we [could] provide and the sort of training that we [could] provide, good mentorship”. According to George, Business School F sought to “build research clusters in departments so that [reflected] the different research strands of each of the departments”. He explained that what attracted good researchers to come and work with them was the environment where there were ambitions and high-profile researchers. This suggests a link between the institution’s organisational capital and its human capital. From his perspective, these seemed to be the reasons that people would find Business School F “an attractive place to work”.

At social-science-based Business School K, Phillip described how his institution created “a climate which [encouraged] good quality research” and showed that “those people who [did] well [got] promoted”. He explained that at his school there was “a positive incentive system to encourage people to do well and then to reward them and to recognise them for doing well”, which was “important”. Additionally, he said that his institution provided support and mentorship for younger academics as well as presenting successful role models in the department. From Phillip’s perspective, the positive climate for research in his institution was developed from a mixture of incentives, support, mentorship and role models. In order to encourage innovation and creativity, Phillip stressed that the institution built a climate that explicitly “[valued] innovation and change” and “a culture which [encouraged] and [supported] innovation, then you [found] people to come forward”, and then, he said, supported the best ideas amongst them. For Samantha, “offering an environment in which [her colleagues felt] part of” and “making an environment for people to interact” helped with motivating them.

William, from social-science-based Business School G, explained that in addition to building a research culture and supportive environment where people would want to stay, he also managed and supported his colleagues for what they did and protected them from bureaucracy, told them what they were expected to do and listened to their suggestions.

The confidential report, from social-science-based Business School J, showed that the institution had an environment that was strong in job satisfaction, leadership, culture and values. Furthermore, it revealed that the institution developed research centres that encouraged linkages at business school, university and inter-university levels. It also explained that the institution had created a post to provide support and advice for the writing, application and submission of research grants. Additionally, the report revealed the institution's efforts to strengthen the culture and values, particularly in providing a supportive environment for all staff, students and stakeholders.

Intellectual Capital Theme

The “intellectual capital” theme combines the “creativity and innovation” code with the “quality of output” code into one main theme.

Table 15 shows the summary of key points discussed by participants in each code under the “intellectual capital” theme. The blue cells represent the business schools in the quasi-US model; the orange cells represent the business school in the professionally-oriented model; while the purple cells represent the business schools in the social-science-based model.

Table 15: Summary of key points for each code in intellectual capital theme

Intellectual Capital Theme		
Sources	Creativity and Innovation	Quality of Output
Henry (A)	Paying attention to innovation on issues like teaching and developing curriculum; supporting people who have come up with new ideas for doing things	Faculty are evaluated by student feedback; for research the key measure is publication in top tier journals, using own list of top journals; degree courses are subject to the major programme review; executive education is reviewed continuously
Frank (I)	Having meetings with some experts to share and swap ideas around	
Larry (C)		A very rigorous feedback on teaching quality is used for assessing faculty performance; monitoring research outputs as key indicator for research; own journal ranking for research quality indicators
Edward (C)		Continually reviewing the competitive profile and refining institution's position in the marketplace; developing new ideas; answering problems customers find problematic; reviewing the quality of individual development programmes
Catherine (F)	Establishing culture of being creative and innovative	
Charles (G)	The more inclusive and the more consultative institution is, the more likely it is to come up with a great idea	An annual review system for all programmes; requesting a commentary on teaching to ensure delivery of research-led education; peer review
William (G)	The institution is constantly developing new programmes and new areas	Research quality is measured by publication in top-rated journals and RAE
Peter (J)		Doing rigorous research that fulfils the important questions encountered by business leaders, policy makers and practitioners
Report (J)		Maintaining research quality by increasing publications in top journals, ensuring staff are research active, winning more research funding; improving the staff/student ratio for teaching quality
Phillip (K)	Important to have innovative products in the market; innovation is necessary for performance and competitiveness of a business school	A strong performance management system to encourage faculty to improve performance; recruiting people with a higher quality of research output
Angela (L)	Innovation is key part of competitiveness; creating an innovation club to share ideas for innovation; encouraging innovation by welcoming ideas and helping people to implement their ideas	Quality of teaching is benefited from faculty who do strong research and deliver on programmes, teaching evaluations, student feedback; establishing a research monitoring system; quality of research is measured by publication
Sean (L)		Teaching monitoring is by peer review and student feedback; research is assessed by outputs; annual awayday for assessment and feedback

Creativity and Innovation Code

The “creativity and innovation” code explores participants’ perceptions of their institutions’ creativity and innovation and how they encouraged these developments in their schools.

Angela, from social-science-based Business School L, stressed the importance that her institution attached to innovation, including creating an innovation club where they could share ideas for innovation with business leaders and the business school’s managers. She perceived that “innovation [was] actually a key part of competitiveness”. She observed that “people [were] changing their programmes all the time and we [had] to do the same”. Hence she explained that her institution kept up with changes introduced by competitors and in their context, which included curriculum development, corporate engagement, employability, international

exchange and overseas joint programmes. Angela discussed encouraging innovation in her institution in terms of “welcoming ideas”, “helping people to implement their ideas”, “facilitating things that [were] new happening” and “pushing all the processes”. Therefore, she saw her role as encouraging innovation by seeing an idea through from its start to its implementation.

Catherine, from social-science-based Business School F, explained that her school had a culture of being creative and innovative and that people in the institution had a very clear understanding of it. She explained that “we [made it] very clear to them, that the expectation [was] that they [would] do research and the best research that [needed] to be done, or [could] be done, [was] original research bringing new perspectives”. She considered that her institution “[innovated] all the time”. For instance, they addressed innovation in teaching technology and presenting materials to students to improve their learning experience.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, noted that there were “a lot of innovative people” in his institution, particularly with students, but sometimes “they [wanted] to innovate in ways which we [couldn’t]”, which mean that it was about “being more realistic about possibilities”. Although Frank did not see his role as encouraging innovation among his colleagues, he acknowledged that one of his colleagues was “keen” on encouraging innovation in people. He revealed that his institution also arranged meetings with experts to encourage sharing and swapping of ideas.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, explained that his institution paid attention to innovation on issues like teaching and developing curriculum. He perceived that innovation in his institution could be encouraged by “supporting people who [had] come up with new ideas for doing things, particularly amongst the staff”.

Phillip, from social-science-based Business School K, emphasised the significance of “[having] some innovative products in the market”, for example Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees with work placements with top companies. He criticised people in

business schools as “[having] been somewhat conventional about what they [had] done and there [was] a need, perhaps, to be more innovative than they [had] been” so that they would not “lose competitive performance”. He stressed that “competitiveness [was] an innovation contest and to win the competitiveness game you [needed] to win the innovation game”. Consequently, he perceived that innovation was “important” and “necessary to improve the performance of a business school”. In addition, he said that innovation was encouraged in his institution by fostering the environment that supported innovation and change, together with having people “with ambition, with aspirations, with high energy”. In his perception, innovation was “a means to raising performance”. This suggested that his institution’s ultimate goal was to improve its performance by using innovation as a vehicle, rather than seeing innovation itself as the ultimate goal.

Charles, from social-science-based Business School G, acknowledged that “being creative and innovative [was] very important”. His perception of innovation involved other people in the inclusive and consultative process of innovation because he perceived that “the more inclusive you [were] and the more consultative you [were], the more likely you [were] to come up with a great idea”. Therefore the process was not supposed to be exclusive to those in management positions, but should include others. For William, he said his institution constantly developed “new programmes and new areas”.

Quality of Output Code

The “quality of output” code examines how participating business schools assured and improved the quality of their teaching and research output, as perceived by the participants in this study.

Larry, from professionally-oriented Business School C, explained how his business schools assured the quality of its teaching by obtaining “rigorous feedback on teaching quality which [was] used as a basis for assessing faculty performance”. Additionally, for quality of research, Larry acknowledged that his school

“[monitored] research outputs very carefully, as the key indicator for research” using its “own journal ranking which [enabled] us to assign quality indicators to research output”. Edward, also from Business School C, remarked that his institution “continually [reviewed] the competitive profile to see what [its] competitors [were] doing”, particularly in the area of executive education, and tried to “refine [its] position to make it distinctive in the marketplace”. Furthermore, he noted that his institution had “an active research programme” to ensure that it was “developing new ideas” and “answering problems that our customers [found] problematic”. Moreover, Edward revealed that his school also assessed the quality of individual development programmes to ensure that they “[delivered] the quality that individual participants [were] after”. Edward’s answer seemed to stress the institution’s focus as a professionally-oriented business school.

Angela, from social-science-based Business School L, perceived that the quality of teaching at her institution benefited from “excellent faculty who [were] doing strong research and who actually [delivered] on our programmes”, the sharing of best practice within the institution and external seminars, teaching evaluations and student feedback. For the quality of research, Angela explained that it was measured in terms of publications, where people had targets, and if “they [didn’t] meet those targets again there [was] a system of mentoring being introduced now”. However, she noted that there had always been mentors but not as formal as the new system where they would have “research cluster heads who would be responsible for a group of researchers”. For Sean, he explained that teaching monitoring in his department was “by peer review and student feedback”, while research was assessed “by outputs (actual and planned)”. According to Sean, his institution had “an away day” every year for assessment and feedback.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, explained that his institution’s faculty members were evaluated by student feedback on their teaching, and to some extent on the innovation that the faculty member initiated in teaching or in the curriculum. For research, Henry pointed out that “the key measure [was] the extent to which you [were] publishing in the top tier journals”, using the institution’s own list of top

journals. With regard to the curriculum, the degree courses were subject to a “major programme review” every five years. However, for executive education, Henry acknowledged that it was reviewed “pretty much continuously”, “quarterly started or discontinued, subject to market and so forth”. In addition, he explained, the institution itself was subject to the standards of the qualification agency. He pointed out that the quality of teaching was maintained by “recognising that teaching [mattered] and it [made] a difference”, “mentoring younger faculty” and ensuring that they did not “have to do too many preparations for different courses”. Furthermore, he observed that the quality of research was maintained by “not compromising on standards”, “maintaining very high standards” and “being very consistent in your application of those standards”.

Phillip, from social-science-based Business School K, revealed that the research quality of faculty members in his institution could be boosted by using a “strong performance management system to encourage the faculty to improve their performance”, as well as by recruiting people “with a higher quality of research output”. According to Phillip, encouraging people to apply for research grants from government, the public sector and industry was used by Business School K to improve its research performance. He stressed that the key purpose of a business school was to “provide high quality education and high quality research, [...] which challenges society, which challenges established ways of thinking and acting”. From his perspective, this required “top quality research, top quality ideas and top quality people to be working in business schools to achieve that”. This suggests that human capital could be a key driver for the quality of business schools.

Peter, from social-science-based Business School J, referred to the quality of his school’s output as the rigorous research that addressed the questions encountered by business leaders, policy makers and practitioners, both nationally or internationally. The confidential report from Business School J revealed that the institution was making progress in terms of research evaluation, so that it had increased its rating significantly in 20 years: in 2008 “95% of [its] output [was] rated as world leading, internationally excellent or internationally recognised”. The report also showed that

the institution maintained its quality by “increasing the number and proportion of publications in the top international journals, ensuring that the majority of its staff [were] research active, winning increasing research funding year on year”. The assessment of research quality at Business School J was similar to other schools, in that it was measured by publications in top-rated journals. However, the professionally-oriented Business School C and the quasi-US Business School A had their own lists of top-tier journals to be used in their internal research quality assessment, while other social-science-based business schools referred to the national research assessment criteria, such as Business Schools J and G. The report suggests that another method of ensuring the quality of output at Business School J was to “improve the staff/student ratio” by “[increasing] the number of academic staff within the school whilst not substantially increasing student numbers”.

At social-science-based Business School G, Charles explained that his school maintained its quality by “[having] an annual review system for all of our programmes ... [to] ... examine whether they [were] research-led”. Furthermore, Charles explained that all of his colleagues had to “provide a commentary on their teaching” in order to contemplate on how they were “delivering research-led education”, together with having peer review to “observe each other teaching”, ensuring that they were “delivering teaching to a high standard”. In addition, Charles revealed that his institution had module review panels, assessment application panels, departmental processes and university processes to ensure quality. According to Charles, his school consulted feedback from students, university surveys, external surveys and external rankings to determine whether it achieved quality. Both Charles and William, also from Business School G, revealed that the institution’s research quality was assessed by the research committee in terms of publications in top-rated journals and the RAE. Charles stressed that ultimately quality was indicated by alumni who felt transformed by their educational experiences and improved personally and in terms of their career prospects. This suggested that Charles perceived that alumni represented an indicator of quality of the business school’s output. Furthermore, William remarked that “there [was] only one game in town and that [was] constant improvement”.

Summary

This chapter discussed four main themes: “human capital”, “social capital”, “organisational capital” and “intellectual capital”. As the aim of this study was to identify effective components of strategic leadership in UK business schools from participants’ perspectives, this chapter provided the evidence of how these components were perceived by participants to help their business schools achieve financial sustainability and competitiveness. This analysis also showed how these components could work together to enhance effectiveness. This means that it is not possible, based on this analysis, to say which is the most important form of capital for UK business schools; each form of capital addressed in this analysis seems to enhance the others. These links between the components, identified by participants, will be discussed in more detail in chapter seven under the “Perceived Links between Units and Components” section.

It then falls onto the question of “what is the most important form of capital for UK business schools’ financial sustainability and competitiveness?”. From the analysis of the data in this chapter, it is still unsettled at this stage whether human capital, financial capital, organisational capital, social capital or intellectual capital is the most important because all forms of capital, addressed in this study, seem to enhance the effectiveness of one another. As financial capital is discussed—in the form of income sources—in the next chapter, it would become clearer which form of capital would be the most important for the competitiveness and financial sustainability for UK business schools from participants’ perspectives. Hence, this question shall be answered in chapter eight of the thesis.

As a summary of this chapter, the participants’ perspectives seemed to suggest that, in addition to financial resources which will be discussed later, the capability of human capital could also be improved by organisational capital. Then the unified forces between human capital and organisational capital could lead to the development of creativity, innovation and enhanced quality of output (i.e. intellectual

capital) within business schools, which then was suggested by participants in this study as having the potential to improve their institutions' social capital. From the data, there seemed to be a perceived link between intellectual capital and social capital of business schools in term that they could be combined together to enhance other activities and processes in participants' business schools, which will be discussed in the next chapter of the "financial sustainability" theme.

CHAPTER VI: FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

THEME

Further from chapter five, financial resources of UK business schools, which the interview data suggest as linking to other forms of capital, are discussed in this chapter under the “financial sustainability” theme in terms of the income sources, the strategies and tactics to enhance income, and the fundraising efforts of the participants’ institutions. This chapter explores how the coded data were linked by the participants’ perspectives in this study. This chapter attempts to answer the following question: From their perspectives, how did the business school leaders perceive the management of income sources, strategies, tactics and fundraising within their institutions?

Introduction

The development of the “financial sustainability” theme emerged at the data analysis stage. The “income sources” code in this study was part of financial capital, which was also part of Hitt et al.’s (2007) concept of the management a resource portfolio and had previously been included in the investigation since the pilot study. The “income sources” code was formerly named the “financial capital” code and had been previously categorised together with the “human capital”, “organisational capital” and “social capital” codes. During the analysis stage, it became clear that the financial topic was one of the most important topics in the interviews, suggesting the relevance and weight of the topic for further analysis. Therefore, the financial topic was separated from other forms of capital to become a main theme in this chapter.

The fundraising topic emerged from the literature as a supplementary financial source. The interview data in the “fundraising” code suggested that the fundraising concept was relatively underdeveloped in the UK higher education sector. However, some forward-thinking higher education institutions had already taken the first steps, as seen in participants’ accounts of their experiences.

Research on the financial perspective of UK business schools is limited. Since the literature suggests that it is important to have a range of income streams, because business schools cannot afford to be dependent to one source of income (Fearn, 2009), this chapter aims to add to the literature by addressing the question of how UK business schools could manage their finances in terms of income sources, strategies and tactics employed for enhancing their financial resources and fundraising, in order to achieve financial sustainability. In this study, the financial sustainability of UK business schools is defined as their capacity to operate and make a profit for the long term, without relying on government funds.

Basic Map of Main Theme

The basic map of the main theme in Figure 18 shows the outline of the codes under the “financial sustainability” theme discussed in this chapter. The figure shows that the main “financial sustainability” theme is made up of the three codes: “income sources”, “strategies and tactics” and “fundraising”.

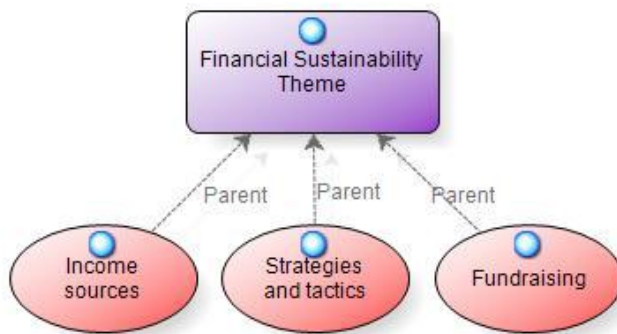


Figure 18: Map of financial sustainability theme

Financial Sustainability Theme

As shown in Figure 19, the “financial sustainability” theme integrates the “income sources” code, the “strategies and tactics” code and the “fundraising” code under one main theme to represent how UK business schools could achieve financial sustainability. Figure 19 reveals the outline of the codes under the “financial sustainability” theme and its three codes. Furthermore, the figure summarises the data sources of each code according to the business school models and the participants’ institutions.



Figure 19: Outline of codes and sources for financial sustainability theme

The first column of Figure 19 shows the “income sources” code, which examined the income and funding streams that participants said their business schools used. This was discussed by 15 participants from all four business school models. In the middle column is the “strategies and tactics” code, which investigated the strategies and tactics that participants perceived as effective. This was discussed by 13 participants from all but the professionally-oriented business school model. In the last column is the “fundraising” code, which explored the business schools’ fundraising efforts for donations and grants, was mentioned by 10 participants from all but the professionally-oriented model.

Furthermore, Table 16 shows the summary of key points discussed by participants in each code under the “financial sustainability” theme. The blue cells represent the business schools in the quasi-US model; the orange cells represent the business school in the professionally-oriented model; the green cells represent the institution in the specialised model; while the purple cells represent the business schools in the social-science-based model.

The following sections discuss the details of each code and how the data on participants’ perspectives were interpreted.

Table 16: Summary of key points for each code in financial sustainability theme

Sources	Income Sources	Financial Sustainability Theme Strategies and Tactics	Fundraising
Henry (A)	A very high proportion of fee income from degree programmes and executive education; small amount from fundraising	Strategy should fit context and be specific to institution; strategy for different markets should recognise differences in each market	Building fundraising team; targeting at alumni and general donors to raise money
James (B)		Better research, higher profile, better teaching	
Frank (I)	Mainly from MBA and executive education; some support from research funds, projects and government grants	Focusing on institution's location, quality, performance on rankings and investment in career services	Having benefactors via university's connection; facilitating research grant applications
Larry (C)	Mainly from corporate clients from executive education and MBA/MSc		
Albert (M)	Mostly from student fees, second from research grants, third from government		
Johnny (M)		Focusing competitive advantage on its location and expertise; international orientation	Fundraising was mainly done by deans and vice-chancellors
Thomas (D)	Mainly from tuition fees from MBA, Master's and undergraduate degrees		
George (F)	Government funding; non-public funded other, mostly postgraduate activities; offshore activities; executive development funding, postgraduates and post experience work; executive education	Not a single strategy, but portfolio strategies leveraging one another, working together; trying to be first to operate in international markets; building strong links with local companies and government; opening offshore campuses	
Catherine (F)	MBAs and the specialists Master's programmes for fee income	Collaboration with other faculties; partnership or joint degree; opening offshore campuses; development of internationalisation, particularly links with top institutions abroad; greater presence in executive education	Charities, research councils and industry funding were major sources, particularly industry and policy government bodies for research funds
Charles (G)	Mainly from teaching fees from both undergraduate and postgraduate courses	Positioning as high quality business school; strategic relationships with other institutions	Small amount of corporate funding
William (G)	Mainly through course programmes, research grants, industry; biggest revenue from MA in management, MSc in Finance	Focusing on quality of programme, quality of institution's business, quality of research, quality of things that it does	
Daniel (H)	Tuition fees from international market	Strategy for competitive markets includes: rebranding; running website, admissions team, marketing events; working with agents abroad; establishing partnerships in Asia and US	
Report (J)	Nearly 90% of income is from students	Focusing on partnership strategy, developing distinct brand, marketing and alumni activities; communication with constituencies	Winning commission funding, grants, awards; raising research funds from private, public sectors; seeking donations from individuals, corporations
Phillip (K)	Undergraduate tuition fees; postgraduate tuitions fees; research	No single strategy; focusing on balanced excellence and widening programme portfolio	Raising funds is difficult in UK but his institution made a start
Samantha (K)			Keeping people informed about grant opportunities; developing ability to write for and to win research grants
Neil (L)	All funds in the form of income from tuition fees, research grants, etc.	Strategies include monitoring of research output, professional administrative infrastructure, developing vision and mission statement	Having negligible donations
Angela (L)	Research income from government but becoming more difficult; looking to generate income from knowledge transfer; research is subsidised by teaching income	Relationship with overseas partners to deliver courses abroad; partnership for joint degrees; franchising programmes to institutions abroad	Fundraising is critical but difficult in UK; alumni connection, brand and quality of institution could persuade donations; must be win-win situation
Emma (L)	Mostly from teaching; small amount from research; some from knowledge transfer and consultancy activities		

Income Sources Code

Financial capital was suggested by Hitt et al. (2007) one of many forms of capital that influence the effectiveness of strategic leadership. Although financial capital was one of this study's *a priori* codes, it was discussed in the analysis of the main study data in terms of income sources. The topic of income sources was discussed at length by participants in this study, emphasising the importance of this code. Furthermore,

the coded data also suggested its relevance to the concept of financial sustainability, leading to its inclusion in the “financial sustainability” theme. The “income sources” code explores income streams and funding in participating business schools from the participants’ perspectives.

Albert, from specialised Business School M, reported that his school’s main funding was “mostly from (enhanced) student fees”, then the “second source [was] research grants” and the “third source [was] government”.

Larry, from professionally-oriented Business School C, explained that his institution’s main funding was from “corporate clients in delivering executive education and our MBA/MSc programmes”. He added that these two types of courses “[tended] to balance each other in terms of changes in demand”. It seemed that the main funding of his institution reflected the market that this professionally-oriented business school was in, which was primarily seeking to deliver programmes and courses to professionals, mostly paid for by their organisations.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, gave a similar answer to Larry’s that Business School I’s main income “[came] from the MBA and executive education”, with some support from university research funds, which were allocated according to the research assessment exercise, and some support from projects and government grants.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, revealed that the fee income from degree programmes and executive education “[accounted] for a very high proportion”. In addition, Henry acknowledged the significance of fundraising, which was still in small amount for his business school at the moment. In terms of management of financial resources, he perceived that his institution was “very careful”, that there were “strong financial controls”. Furthermore, he revealed that his institution recognised that “resources [were] restricted and not limitless”, so it was important to “instil in each individual a sense of responsibility for how the money [was] spent and how resources [were] used”.

At social-science-based Business School L, Emma revealed that her institution received “most of [its] income from teaching, with a comparatively small amount from research”, but it also earned some income from knowledge transfer activities and consultancy work. According to Emma, the school planned to increase its income from all of these areas. From Neil’s perspective, “all funds have been in the form of income from tuition fees, research grants, etc.”. Angela added that her institution’s research income was from the government, on the basis of research assessment exercise, but she perceived that it was “going to become increasingly difficult” because funding for management subject was being reduced. Therefore, she revealed that her school would be increasingly improving its knowledge transfer so that it could “lead [the school] to kind of income generation in terms of knowledge transfer”. This suggests that she viewed knowledge transfer activities as an alternative means of funding for her institution, to substitute for the reduction in government funding. Additionally, she noted that the school’s research would be subsidised by income from teaching.

For social-science-based Business School F, Catherine stated that funding council income “[was] not a major proportion of the income for this school”. She revealed that the MBAs, the international MBA programme and specialist Master’s programmes “[were] all sources of income to the school”. Although George stated that government funding accounted for approximately half of the school’s funding, he considered this amount to be a “relatively small level of public funding”, and most of it was meant for undergraduate programmes. Furthermore, he acknowledged that about 30% of the school’s income came from “non-public-funded other, mostly postgraduate activities” and about one-fifth from the school’s offshore activities. He explained that his institution had additional funding from executive development, postgraduates and post-experience work as well as from executive education. Regarding research funding, George had a similar answer to Catherine’s, that the school received its funding from industry and the funding council.

At social-science-based Business School G, Charles acknowledged that his institution's main funding came from "teaching fees" for both undergraduate and postgraduate courses. According to William, his school received "the bulk of [its] money through course programmes and research grants and industry". Furthermore, William added that the MA in management and MSc in Finance "[generated] the biggest revenue" for his school.

Thomas, from social-science-based Business School D, revealed that his institution's "main source of income [was] the tuition fees for [its] degree courses, from Master's degrees, undergraduate degrees and the MBA. According to Thomas, Business School D also had "diverse income streams so [it benefited] from a portfolio effect". Hence, it was "still generating a financial surplus". However, he noted that his institution also cut back on spending, to lessen the burden of the school.

The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J revealed that its research income had greatly increased in recent years. However, it revealed that the institution still recognised the need for cost reductions and alternative income streams to compensate the decrease in government funds. According to the report, Business School J aimed to "increase research income to ensure sustainability". Moreover, it revealed that "nearly 90% of [its] income" was from students.

Daniel, from social-science-based Business School H, claimed that his institution did not depend on state funding, as it accounted for only 17% of its income. According to Daniel, "as long as international markets remain open and expanding [the school's] income base is secure". This suggests that his institution concentrated on recruiting international students to earn income from student fees to support the school, rather than relying on government funding.

Phillip, at social-science-based Business School K, saw the main funding for British business schools as coming from "the fees which are generated by the students and that is a very important source of funding", while he acknowledged that an additional source of funding was "research and the conduct of research" and funds allocated on

the basis of performance in the research assessment exercise. Phillip acknowledged that another “very important” source of funds was “the recruitment of students from overseas because they pay higher fees”. He explained that another source was “funding from charitable or private donations”, which he admitted were “quite difficult to achieve in this country”. Hence he “concentrated on the other source of funds”. He concluded that the three income sources that his institution exploited “the development of the financial base from” were undergraduate tuition fees, postgraduate tuitions fees and research. He further revealed that his institution “widened the range of programmes and of course this generated much more income” and acknowledged that academics at his institution were encouraged to apply for research grants from government, industry and public services. Phillip stated that “if you [grew] the income then you [could] grow the Faculty” and that was what he had done at his institution. This suggests that he considered that financial resources were a means of growing human capital.

To conclude, the aim of this code was to describe the possible income streams that strategic leaders of UK business schools could use to strengthen their financial base and develop in other areas. Data from several participants in this study showed similar income sources: most of the funding for all the institutions was from tuition fees for degree programmes (undergraduate and postgraduate), corporate clients sending their managers to study executive education and/or specialised programmes and research grants from government and industry, which could also be in the form of knowledge transfer schemes. This analysis suggests that these participants did not seem to rely on continuously shrinking government funds, but sought alternative sources of income.

Strategies and Tactics Code

This code explores the strategies and tactics employed in business schools that the participants perceived as beneficial for their institutions.

At specialised Business School M, Johnny revealed that his institution's strategy involved deciding how the school could gain a competitive advantage and then determining the main pathway for achieving it. He pointed out that his institution saw its competitive advantages as location and expertise. He also explained that once the school decided to be "in the 'top' category of [business schools] nationally and internationally", its strategy was to do well in its research performance, which required "recruiting research achievers and structuring rewards" in order to achieve that aim. The institution's focus on location, expertise and position suggests that it would attract students from around the world, which could lead to enhanced student fees, as Albert had suggested in the "income sources" code as the primary source of the institution's income. Furthermore, Johnny stressed the importance of his school's "international orientation", "reflected in [executive] MBA programmes based abroad, international faculty, alumni structure and events abroad, etc.". The institution's provision of executive MBA programmes to students abroad suggests its efforts to reduce the challenge from visa restriction for students coming to study in the UK and it could lead to an increased income of the business school.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, revealed that his business school tried "to align [itself] as closely with the university and to leverage the connections [the school made] with the rest of the university". Apart from the university's connection, which Frank stressed was crucial, he also pointed out that his school's strategy could be analysed as including its location, its quality, its performance in rankings and its investment in careers services, which was "a very important part of what MBAs [were] about" and yielded "very good career outcomes". Additionally, Frank said that the strategy at his institution was "a matter of playing on where we [had] strengths" and developing "[its] strengths in the areas where there [was] a demand" in order to satisfy the market demand. Furthermore, he noted that his institution developed strategy "on the basis of a lot of market research and a lot of stakeholder analysis" and that a good strategy would need to "[get] to the nub of the problem and [to articulate] a clear route to getting to the goal". From Frank's perspective, it appeared that his institution could benefit from a strategy involving the parent university's connection, its quality as a top business school, its promise to students

on career advancement and the high quality education that met market demand. This mixture was a part of the strategy in Business School I that set it apart in the crowded market to attract international students to pay premium tuition fees for a quality education.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, stressed the importance of having a strategy that had a good fit with the school, and was not an imitation of other institutions. This meant having “a strategy and position that [was] authentic and specific to one’s own situation”. He revealed that part of his institution’s strategy in dealing with different regional markets was to recognise the differences in each market, but that what was common to them all was “a desire for quality education”. However, he stated that “the key to developing strategies for different markets [was] to listen carefully to what the market [was] telling you, to take good advice and to be very attentive to local market conditions, local market needs”. Furthermore, Henry discussed the factors that brought his institution into the strategic position they were in: a clear commitment in a strategic position, being superior in every aspect in relation to students, faculty, research, teaching, career services, programme operation, research assessment and academic performance assessment. He emphasised that to be considered as a top business school required a “combination of recognising that it [was] a long game and that all of the pieces of the jigsaw [connected] and you [could not] be weak in any one particular area”. In addition, Henry described the short-term strategy for his school as “to continue to perform well, to maintain its reputation and ranking”. The long-term strategy was “to make the reality of the positioning in terms of having a profound impact on the way that business [was] done”. Henry’s perception suggested that social capital (reputation and ranking) was a significant part of the school’s short-term strategy, which tended to be designed for attracting students to the institution. However, as Henry stressed, the institution needed to be excellent in every aspect. This suggests that Henry saw links between human capital, intellectual capital and social capital: “the faculty, their research, how they [were] judged, how they [were] assessed”, which were considered human capital and intellectual capital, influenced its position as a top business school (social capital).

For quasi-US Business School B, James perceived that “better research, higher profile and better teaching” at the business school could help his institution navigate the crisis in UK higher education. It seemed that there could be a connection between the performance of research and teaching, the school’s visibility and its ability to maintain financial sustainability and competitiveness.

Daniel, from social-science-based Business School H, revealed his institution’s strategy to compete in the “internationally competitive markets”: rebranding the school, running its own website, running its own admissions team, running its own marketing events, working closely with agents abroad and establishing partnerships with top institutions in Asia and the US. Furthermore, he said that his institution “[did] market test all new programmes [...] with agents and alumni, key employers and [benchmarked] against competitor [universities]”. From Daniel’s perspective, Business School H focused on attracting international students, as he described earlier in the “income sources” code, and that his institution concentrated on international student recruitment, as 50% of its students were international.

At social-science-based Business School L, Neil perceived that effective strategies for his institution included “annual monitoring of research output”, “developing a professional administrative infrastructure”, “setting a pace for introduction of new 'products' (i.e. courses)” and “developing a vision and mission statement for the school”. Regarding course design and curriculum development, Neil pointed out that his institution had course design teams that were “required to do a lot of competitor analysis and take account of [accreditation] guidelines and criteria as well as [quality assurance] subject benchmarks”.

On the other hand, Angela, also from social-science-based Business School L, revealed that her institution “[relied] heavily on international students”. Therefore, one strategy Angela explained that her school had already employed was “to have relationships with partners overseas so that you [were] delivering, you [were] exporting your knowledge if you like, not to international students coming here but

to international students in their own country”. This suggests the school’s effort to avoid the restriction of immigration control that international students encounter. For Angela, she considered this as “a survival strategy”, and she was happy with the result, as the school had “many, many more students overseas than we [did] actually have in the UK”. Angela discussed developing this form of partnership with an institution that did not have degree awarding status, allowing an opportunity for Business School L to “franchise [its] programme and [the students] would get a graduate degree”. Another form of partnership Angela described was “a partner of equals where you [were] collaborating with the top school and you [could] deliver a joint programme”. Another strategy that Angela mentioned, but her institution did not use, was to set up offshore campuses, which Angela saw as “a very high risk and capital intensive approach”, although it was successful in some cases.

Angela described her institution’s short-term strategy as to “increase efficiency and to increase income”, while in the long-term she aimed to “have sufficient sources of income to enable [her] researchers to have the space that they [needed] to do research” because that would enable the school to “give stronger support to research” and to create “greater impact” from the research via knowledge transfer activities from her institution to business, and this could establish the practical relevance of its research. From Neil’s perspective, it seemed that Business School L emphasised the importance of course design. However, as Neil was a former senior manager, his account of this might not be up-to-date. By contrast, Angela was a current senior manager at Business School L and provided a detailed account of the school’s partnership strategy, which could be the more current. From Angela’s perspective, when asked about her school’s strategy, she focused on internationalisation and partnership with institutions abroad in order to enhance income. Moreover, Business School L seemed to focus on the domestic market by aiming to “reposition [its] undergraduate programmes to be more attractive to the UK market” as well as increasing the impact of its research by sharing its research knowledge with businesses.

At social-science-based Business School F, Catherine revealed that her institution planned to “grow the quality of our programmes in the postgraduate arena” to attract international students. She acknowledged that her institution’s growth mostly came from international programmes, for instance in form of collaboration with other faculties like engineering, partnership or joint degree, and from opening up offshore campuses in other countries, which Catherine pointed out that, once her institution did market research, placed its products in the best position, launched its products but would “quickly exit if it [did] not become a success fairly quickly”. Moreover, when asked about strategy for achieving its goal of being a top business school, Catherine explained that, in addition to maintaining excellence and research, her institution emphasised the development of internationalisation, particularly the “links with other top quality Business Schools in Europe and in North America”, and “a much greater presence in executive education”.

George, also from social-science-based Business School F, revealed that his institution “tended to be the first to operate in [many international markets]” and it “[built] strong relationships with local companies and with the Government” when entering an international market. George pointed out that having offshore campuses enabled his institution to become “less dependent upon getting students into the UK than many of [its] competitors”. Additionally, George noted that for his institution, there was “not a single strategy”, but its “strategic success [depended] upon portfolio strategies leveraging one another, working together”.

These answers from Catherine and George suggest that internationalisation – in different forms – was a key part of the strategy that Business School F employed to grow its income, particularly its opening of offshore campuses, which seemed especially advantageous when the domestic market was restricted by government regulation. This suggests that Business School F might be less affected by the challenge posed by the new Home Office’s overseas student visa restriction than other business schools. Although internationalisation was merely part of the strategy Business School F utilised, it seemed to be a major theme influencing the orientation

of other strategies, such as its links and partnerships with other business schools and its enhancement of executive education.

Phillip, from social-science-based Business School K, stressed his perception that he “[did not] think there [was] any single strategy” which concurred with George’s viewpoint from Business School F that “there [was] not a single strategy” in bringing a business school to success. Phillip perceived that “desirable and possible” strategies were expected to hold “balanced excellence”, which meant “doing several things well, not just doing one thing well” as Phillip explained. For his institution, Phillip emphasised its balanced excellence around research, teaching and education. Phillip acknowledged that this balanced excellence could be delivered by recruiting high quality academics, high quality students as well as having innovative products, for instance his school’s innovative Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees with work placements for students in “very elite companies”, which Phillip perceived as having an “enormous impact” on the process of “maturing and developing these young people”. Phillip revealed that his institution focused on the combination of degree programmes for undergraduate, postgraduate and doctoral levels, in order to “maximise [its] financial strength”, stressing that it was a matter of broadening the programme portfolio. He claimed that the programme portfolio at his institution had been narrow when he arrived, and that expanding the range of programme offerings “generated much more income” and “also reduced the risk if any single programme should fail in a year”. He explained that “[his] strategy was to widen the portfolio of products, to increase the number of students, to grow the income” in order to “grow the faculty”, which was discussed earlier in the “income sources” code: his answer showed a perceived link between financial resources and human capital. However, Phillip noted that his school was “not particularly strong in the executive development market”, and was “not really in that market”. From Phillip’s perspective, it was evident that Business School K focused its strategy on offering various innovative programmes, particularly at degree levels such as Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees in order to attract students to increase school’s income and subsequently increase its faculty.

The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J revealed that the institution had a dedicated partnership team to develop its partnership strategy to align with the university's strategy. Furthermore, the report showed that the institution had a marketing team "dedicated to development of a distinct brand, events and alumni" and responsible for marketing and alumni activities. According to the report, Business School J utilised a digital channel to "enhance [its] ability to communicate with all [its] constituencies". Furthermore, the report showed that the institution stressed its internationalisation strategy, embracing the opinion of key stakeholders across the business school and the university, which contained four key elements: "students and their personal development, academic programmes and curriculum, faculty and administrative staff and international partnerships". The information in this report suggested that Business School J's strategy emphasised partnership, brand, students, alumni, curriculum and faculty, all with an international orientation. This suggested that Business School J gave priority to internationalisation for most of the things they did. The reason could be that internationalisation had potential to establish a greater presence of the business school in the eyes of perspective students around the world. Moreover, the institution's emphasis on those four key elements in setting strategy suggested its commitment to quality in these key aspects: students, curriculum, staff and partnership. It was noted that the school placed importance on alumni and marketing activities, which seemed to provide benefit in terms of perceptions of the business school's brand among prospective students, because alumni could represent the success of their education, while marketing activities could reinforce the brand.

At social-science-based Business School G, Charles revealed that one of the strategies his institution adopted was "to position [itself] as a high quality Business School" in the marketplace. Charles linked this strategy with having accreditations as a tool, which was discussed in the "social capital" code in chapter five, in order to achieve its competitive positioning in different markets. Another strategy for entering different markets that Charles said his institution adopted was "having strategic relationships with certain universities or business schools", which he perceived would "leverage the business school's reputation". Additionally, Charles considered

that “having targeted advertising, attending recruitment fairs, building relationships with universities” also helped with doing business in different markets. Furthermore, Charles noted that the strategy set for his business school would have to align with the university in terms of its direction, vision and mission. For William, at the more operational level, he perceived the strategy of his institution to include “the quality of [its] programmes, the quality of [its] business, the quality of [its] research, the quality of the things that [it does]” as well as constant improvement in all these aspects. The answers from Charles and William suggested that positioning, partnership, communication with prospective students and quality of the education the school provided were factors in its ability to attract students to study at the school. Moreover, it appeared that accreditation was a link between positioning and quality in perceptions of stakeholders because it assured the quality of the business school. At the same time, this mark of quality put the business school in a competitive position in relation to other institutions that did not have a similar or comparable mark of quality.

From the interview data, it seemed that some participants viewed strategy in marketing terms, while others concentrated on academic excellence, in terms of both research and teaching. However, from the marketing aspect, international strategy seemed to be the focus in the participants’ institutions. The international strategies that many participants opted for were building partnerships abroad, franchising degree programmes and opening branch campuses. The participants’ perspectives suggest that a good international strategy would respond to the differences of each local market. However, they also suggest that successful strategy should be built on the strengths of the institution and be institution-specific, not easy to imitate. At the same time, a good strategy should also reflect the strategic position of the institution. Responses from many participants suggest that the most important strategy for business schools is continuous improvement in every respect.

This analysis suggests that opening up the work of a business school to new markets can be beneficial. The earlier an institution set its place in a new market, the greater the chance that it will benefit. International markets could be exploited in terms of

bringing overseas students to the institutions, opening branch campuses and joining forces with institutions abroad.

Fundraising Code

The “fundraising” code explores participants’ perspectives on the efforts their institutions made to raise funds from donations as well as to secure research grants from the public and private sectors.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, when asked about fundraising, perceived that “alumni [were] important” but his business school was young, therefore it “[didn’t] have so many rich alumni”. However, Frank acknowledged that his school “[had been] very fortunate in having big benefactors” via the parent university’s connection, which greatly helped with fundraising. This was earlier discussed in the “social capital” code, and it suggests the link: that social capital could be useful and could be exploited for fundraising. According to Frank, his school also paid particular attention to securing research grants, that it made academics “aware of what money [was] available” and that it “had someone dedicated to helping preparation of these research grants”. He suggested that providing this assistance with research grant applications increased not only the chances of academics being informed of new grant opportunities but also the chances of applications being successful.

Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, stated that “the school [had] a very small endowment at the moment”, which might mean that it was at an early stage of fundraising. However, he recognised the significance of fundraising – that “it [was] increasingly important” and that his institution “made a big investment in building a fundraising team” in an effort to increase fundraising activities and endowment, using similar technology to the US. According to Henry, his institution was concentrating a lot of effort “to significantly improve fundraising to raise more money”, which would be used to “fund existing things, to fund new things and to create an endowment”. Henry perceived that the targets for fundraising for his

institution were alumni and general donors. Henry explained that the case for alumni would be that they “[had] been very appreciative of [the business school]” and that “it [was] very important to fund funds for future generations”. This category of alumni donations was described by Henry as “a very important part of the [fundraising] scheme”. For other donors, he explained that development of case “[had] to then be adapted and tailored to the needs and interests of a particular donor”. From his perspective, Henry pointed out that the case to present to donors had to be very clear “as to why the business school should be supported”, what the funds would be used for, and how well the funds would be spent. This practice of Business School A is consistent with Fearn’s (2009) suggestion that universities should know their targets and build relationships with them. Furthermore, Henry stressed that the institution should “[demonstrate] quite clearly the contribution that [his school made] to the broader society” when “making the case in terms of individual donors and corporate donors”. From his interview, although Henry remarked that his institution did not have significant endowment funds, the institution placed a high importance on fundraising, and it also had adopted fundraising practices similar to US business schools. However, US schools like Harvard and Stanford have dedicated teams to manage endowment, funds and supervise investments of donations so as to yield sustainable returns. Furthermore, fund management teams at such US institutions are normally owned by the universities. By contrast, in this study Business School A employed professional services from an external company to manage fundraising.

Johnny, from specialised Business School M, commented that his institution’s fundraising activities were “mainly undertaken by Deans and [Vice-chancellors]”, occasionally with some involvement of senior managers, when appropriate. “On the rare occasion” he personally had secured “a positive outcome” in fundraising for the research centre he directed. It seemed that Johnny himself did not actively engage in developing or implementing the fundraising plan in his school. Although he had some experience in fundraising, the income was spent on his research centre. From his perception, Johnny perceived Deans and Vice-chancellors as the people responsible for the institution’s fundraising. This suggests that the Deans’ and Vice-

chancellors' network could influence donations made to the institution, because, as Johnny revealed, that Deans and Vice-chancellors made initial contact with potential benefactors. It appears that the more contacts business school leaders have, the greater the chances of institutions being successful in fundraising. From Johnny's response, it seems sensible to put the right person in the right job: Deans and Vice-chancellors could be effective in raising funds because they have built networks that give them access to both individual benefactors and corporate donors.

For social-science-based Business School L Neil described how his school "had negligible donations" but he attended as many network events as he could in order to "[make] connections with influential business people in the locality and region". This suggests that although Neil did not see a pattern or history of donations to his school, he still sought opportunities that could lead to fundraising. For Angela, she perceived that fundraising was "absolutely critical", although she noted that "[they didn't] do it very well in the UK". As fundraising in UK education was not yet mature, Angela admitted that it was "still difficult to persuade businesses to cough up funds to support education", but she believed that business schools needed to improve on this because the current funding was insufficient for business schools to survive. She perceived that making connections for fundraising would be much stronger if they had a link or if they worked through alumni. In addition to "the brand and the quality of the school" persuading people to make donations, she emphasised that there had to be "a win-win situation", where the school "[had] got to give businesses something in return".

Catherine, from social-science-based Business School F, perceived that "charities, research councils and industry funding [were] the major sources" in fundraising for her institution, particularly industry and government bodies for research funds. Business School F was not in any research association, and hence it might need to establish connections and networks to earn research grants and funds.

At social-science-based Business School K Phillip stressed that raising funds from charities and private donations was "quite difficult" in the UK, although he

acknowledged that his institution had made a “very limited start” and that the process “was in its infancy”. It appears that he had seen little development in fundraising at his business school because of the early stage of philanthropic culture in the UK. Samantha revealed that she encouraged her colleagues to secure research grants and increased research funds in her department by “keeping people up to date about grant opportunities, developing the capabilities to write for research grants and to win research grants”. She also perceived that it was important to be “increasingly looking outside the research councils”, from “corporate relationships and using those to generate funding” for the school. As Samantha was directing a research centre in her business school, in her interview, she only discussed fundraising in terms of research, mainly research grants from various sources. She perceived that her responsibility for fundraising in her research centre mainly involved informing her colleagues of new grant opportunities, encouraging them to look for research grants from all kinds of organisations, motivating them to apply for grants and improving their skills writing applications.

Charles, from social-science-based Business School G, explained that his institution did not have “a huge amount of corporate funding”, except for funds that clients paid for employees to take courses at his school. Hence, the funding from business that Business School G received was in the form of tuition fees. However, it was not clear what else this school did about fundraising activities or knowledge transfer with businesses.

The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J revealed that its research income had increased greatly in recent years through commission funding, grants and awards. From the report, the business school raised research funds from private and public sector bodies, while it also sought “donations from individuals and corporations”.

This analysis suggests that seeking research grants was considered as important by these participants, not only through research councils but also from industry,

knowledge transfer activities between institutions and businesses and research partnerships with other organisations.

There were signs that the two quasi-US Business Schools A and I focused on fundraising campaigns and activities. Having influential alumni and connection was seen as a great advantage in helping them to raise significant funds, although this would still be very much less than top US business schools. This is consistent with the characteristic of the quasi-US business schools identified by Fragueiro and Thomas (2011): they emphasise fundraising and endowment activities, providing a healthy financial base that allows them to recruit notable professors from around the world.

By contrast, senior managers in social-science-based business schools such as Neil, Angela and Phillips said that they had made a start in fundraising, although with little success at this time. However, Phillip was a former senior manager from Business School K describing his experience when he was at the institution. It might have changed since he left.

Secondary research shows that Jessica S. Kozloff, president of Academic Search, stresses that it is important for Deans to engage in fundraising and external activities (Basu, 2012). This is in agreement with Johnny's perspective, from specialised Business School M, which was that the Deans' and Vice-chancellors' networks were crucial in making connections with potential benefactors. Therefore, it is suggested that the more contacts business school leaders have, the greater their chances of increasing their fundraising.

This analysis suggests that fundraising in UK business schools is still in its infancy. Most social-science-based business schools did not have much funding from private donations and seemed to focus on earning more from research grants than from individual donors. However, fundraising is an issue that should not be marginalised. Although earning money from private donations still posed a challenge for UK business school leaders, it seemed to promise fruitful returns if a philanthropic

culture could be nurtured. Therefore, business schools should maintain relationships with alumni, because some could return, perhaps as much as 20 years after graduating, with significant donations.

Summary

The “income sources” code revealed that participants’ perceptions were similar regarding the issue of main funding sources for their business schools. The coded data shows that the main funding source for participants’ business schools was tuition fees. The “strategies and tactics” code revealed a range of views on strategies and tactics in their institutions, from focusing on marketing to academic excellence. It seemed obvious that academic excellence was highly relevant because they were education providers, and this could strengthen the reputation of these business schools at the international level, which seemed to be the main strategy at every institution.

There was also a range of strategies used across the four models of business schools. However, these strategies were relatively similar, with internationalisation being the main theme for setting strategies in these institutions. Lastly, the “fundraising” code revealed an advantage that business schools in the quasi-US model had over the others. Although donations and endowments were not perceived by participants in this study as a significant source of funding for their business schools, some said their institutions had developed this kind of project.

These previous three chapters explained in detail the development of five main themes in this study: (1) “leadership” theme, (2) “human capital” theme, (3) “social capital” theme, (4) “organisational capital” theme and (5) “intellectual capital” theme. This chapter explored in detail the sixth “financial sustainability” theme, covering “income sources”, “strategies and tactics” and “fundraising” codes. The next chapter will discuss the research findings, the development of a Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness and the construction of

links between components of strategic leadership, as perceived by participants in this study.

CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

From the analysis presented in chapters four, five and six a model was created to illustrate connections between the components of strategic leadership, based on the interpretation of the perspectives of participants in this study. These components, and these connections, were constructed from the interview data, where the participants discussed links between the components. Therefore, this study integrates participants' perspectives in a model and demonstrates perceived links based on their accounts of their experiences and perceptions.

This chapter introduces a Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness to show the potential of a virtuous circle. It explains the components and their influences over one another that could enable UK business schools to achieve financial sustainability and competitiveness.

Introduction

The findings from previous chapters showed the potential for UK business schools to achieve financial sustainability and competitiveness. The analysis and interpretation of the interview data, from 21 participants in 12 UK business schools, demonstrated the key components and perceived links between them that could contribute to business schools' financial sustainability and competitiveness.

The analysis revealed eight components of strategic leadership that participants in this study identified as important for achieving financial sustainability and competitiveness during times of change and crisis: (1) leadership, (2) income sources, (3) human capital, (4) organisational capital, (5) intellectual capital, (6) social capital, (7) fundraising and (8) strategies and tactics. These components were brought together to convey relationships between them that were identified by the participants. It suggests how these links and components could lead to financial

sustainability and competitiveness in UK business schools and/or institutions with similar contexts.

The position of each component in this model was drawn from participants' perspectives of perceived links, as discussed during the interviews. Connections were seen in the interview data, where they provided both similar and different pieces of information. For instance, some participants in this study said that one component had an influence on another component, or that it facilitated the achievement of another component, while other participants expressed a similar idea, with additional information on another component. The connections between these components were therefore identified in these participants' answers. Furthermore, this model presents how these components were utilised collectively within the participants' institutions to represent the whole picture of how financial sustainability and competitiveness could be achieved in UK business schools.

The discussion of this model addresses the research questions that sought the views of leaders in top UK business schools on the components of strategic leadership and how these components contributed to their schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability.

Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness

The Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness for UK business schools in Figure 20 proposes that, from the participants' perspectives, there is potentially a virtuous circle that could facilitate UK business schools in achieving their financial sustainability and competitiveness in times of instability and changes. In addition to applying to UK business schools, this model could be useful for other academic departments with similar structures and contexts.

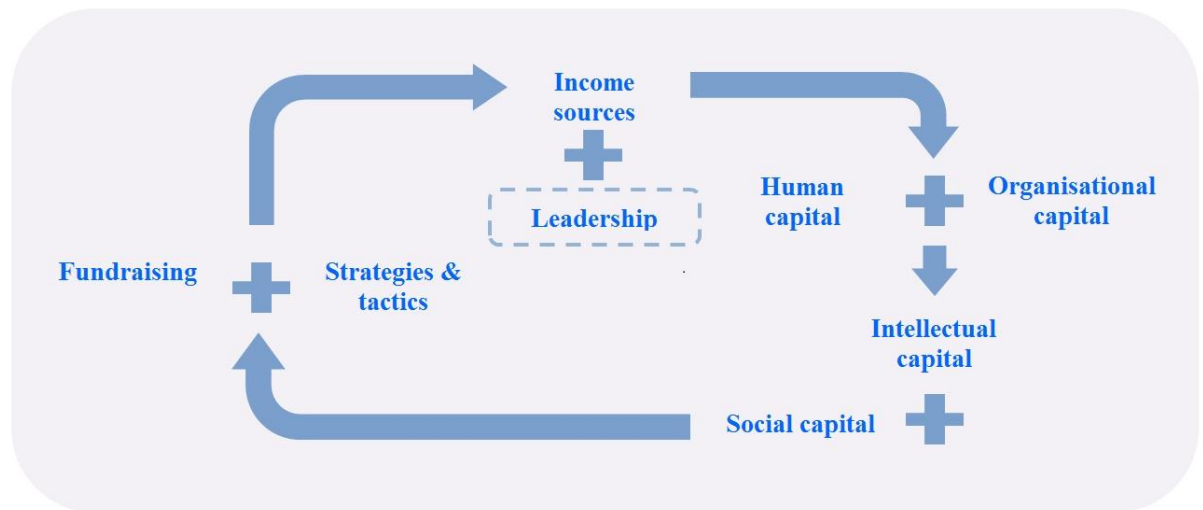


Figure 20: Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness for UK business schools

Before proceeding further, it is useful to clarify the terms used in this chapter. First, the term “model” means this Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness in Figure 20, which represents the concept of how UK business schools could achieve financial sustainability and competitiveness. Second, the term “components” represents the eight constituents that are assembled in this “model”, based on participants’ linking of these “components”. Third, the term “units” signifies the blocks of related “components”, where each block suggests the skills needed for achieving leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness in UK business schools. Lastly, the term “phases” refers to the transition stages in the “model” that connect each “unit”. In the “model” the phases are represented in the form of bent arrows in Figure 20.

The links between these eight components, as perceived by the participants in this study, are constructed in the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness to illustrate how the virtuous circle could be achieved. Furthermore, these components can be arranged into three units to represent the necessary skills required from each: (1) Primary Unit, (2) Management Unit and (3) Forward Unit, for business schools to achieve leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness.

This study integrates participants' responses in interviews and presents participants' different discussions of the components of the model in Figures 21, 23 and 25, indicating the pseudonyms of the participants. The letters in the brackets are the pseudonyms of the participants' institutions. Each component box has the total number of sources (participants) who discussed the topic and the total number of institutions these participants were from, in order to demonstrate the recurrence of each topic. The detail of how these links were perceived by the participants in this study is discussed in the next section.

Perceived Links between Units and Components

This section discusses in detail how each component of the model was perceived by participants in this study as linking to one another. It also illustrates the components in the form of units that connect them in the model.

Primary Unit

The interview data revealed connections between the eight components of the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness, starting with the first unit. This Primary Unit in Figure 21 consists of income sources and leadership.

The title Primary Unit signifies that this unit involves the primary skills needed from UK business school leaders/managers for their institutions to achieve leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness, as suggested by the participants' interview data. For this Primary Unit, it is suggested that UK business school leaders should have the ability to manage their institutions' financial resources, exercise leadership that is suitable to each institution by articulating shared vision and setting appropriate overall goals of their business schools.

The first component, which is income sources that the business schools utilised in the form of financial resources invested in order to improve human capital in terms of

recruiting the best academics they possibly could, as well as retaining the best academics they already had. The income sources component represents the income streams that the participating institutions benefited from. This income sources component was considered important because the participants in this study described a perceived link between financial resources and the development of human capital, which was also one of the most frequently discussed components of this model. This income sources component was discussed by 15 sources in 11 business schools from all four business school models.

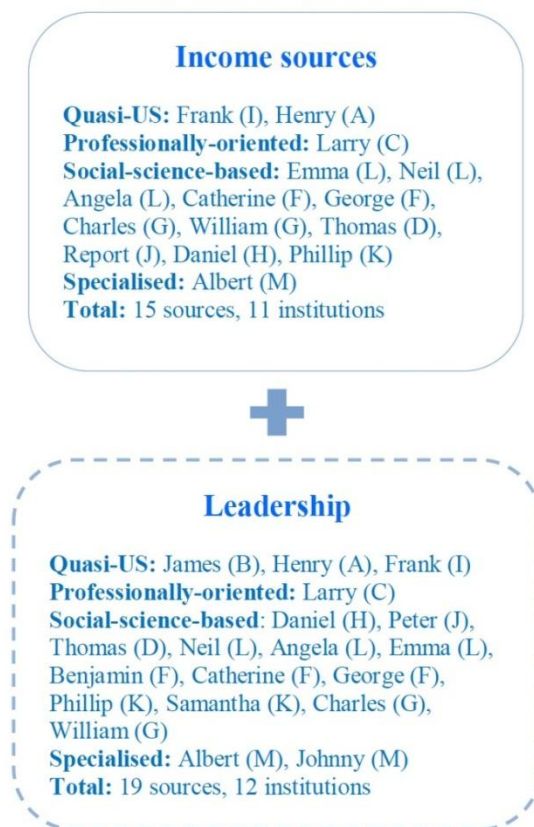


Figure 21: Primary Unit

Additionally, the leadership component was discussed by most participants in the interviews in relation to their perceptions and experiences of strategic leadership, and the quality of strategic leadership that the participants in this study perceived as important for UK business schools. This component contains the “shared vision”, “overall goals” and “appropriate leadership” codes under the “leadership” theme,

which were discussed by 19 participants from all 12 business schools in all four models. Having shared vision and overall goals within business schools was described by the participants in this study as important for the performance of human capital in terms of achieving an institution’s goals.

Regarding the income sources component, the interview findings suggested that money seemed to become very important in recruitment and retention of the best staff. Presented in Figure 22, there were five participants and the information from the confidential report that suggested that their business schools utilised financial resources to enhance human capital as follows.

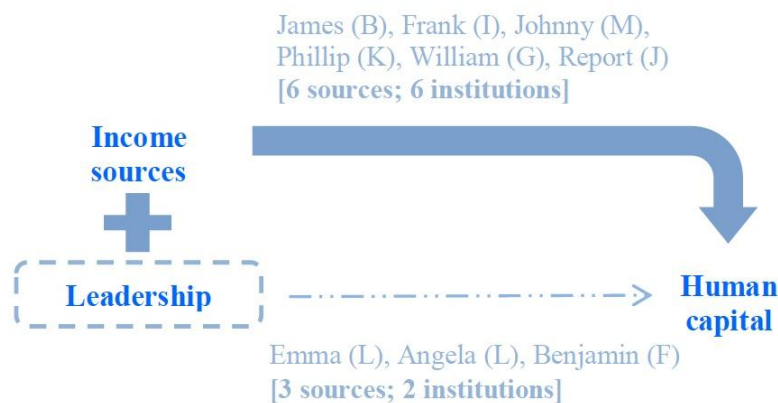


Figure 22: Sources of perceived links from Primary Unit

James from quasi-US Business School B revealed that his institution did “pay [the staff] more” than other institutions in order to attract and retain best scholars. At another quasi-US Business School I, Frank admitted that his institution attracted top academics by “a combination of salary package and what else they [could] earn on executive education”. At specialised Business School M, Johnny acknowledged that as part of the plan to attract top researchers, his business school made clear about “money available for attending conferences when a paper [was] being given [and] competitive salary compared to other top schools in the UK and abroad”. For social-science-based Business School K, Phillip admitted that his school “increased the salaries” to attract academics as well as adopted “a positive incentive system to encourage people to do well and then to reward them and to recognise them for doing

well”. At another social-science-based Business School G, although William recognised other factors as important to attract and retain best academics, he accepted that his institution also “[paid the staff] more money” as part of the recruitment and retention plan. The final example was the information in the confidential report from social-science-based Business School J, which revealed that the school adopted performance-related pay to “[reward] staff for publications in journals that [were] at least nationally recognised and [to provide] higher levels of rewards for publications in journals that [were] recognised as internationally excellent”.

From the information from six sources in six institutions shown in Figure 22 as the blue bent arrow, it is evidenced that these participants’ institutions invested their financial resources, which could be derived from institutions’ income sources, in the process of developing and enhancing human capital in their schools. This suggests the link between income sources and human capital, presented in the model in Figure 20, suggesting that the former could be a means to improve the latter. This is consistent with literature showing that many academics choose to work overseas because they pay higher salaries than UK business schools (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Goodall, 2009; Ivory et al., 2006), suggesting that money could be important for UK business schools’ human capital.

In addition to financial resources, leadership could also be important to the development of business schools’ human capital. Shown in Figure 22 as the blue dash arrow, this perceived link between the leadership component and the human capital component is suggested by the evidence from the following participants. At social-science-based Business School L, although Emma said she “[believed] there [was] no such thing as leadership”, her interview data suggest her preference for distributed leadership. When asked about how she applied leadership in her department, Emma discussed that she tried to “fight to ensure that every member of staff has a chance to develop their career in the way they want” and to “ensure that younger/less experienced colleagues [had] a time and place in which to develop their research”. Emma’s answers suggest a link between leadership and human capital in

her business school. Angela, also from Business School L, acknowledged that she developed leadership in her colleagues by “[delegating] and [giving] people responsibility and accountability” in order to encourage them to “take more of an active role whatever they do”. This suggests that Angela employed leadership as a means to enhance the capability of human capital in her school. At another social-science-based Business School F, Benjamin discussed that he applied leadership by “motivating employees to do the best they [could] – [guiding] and [supporting] them, and [letting] them get on with it”. These answers from three participants from Business Schools L and F, suggest that there is a perceived link between the use of leadership and the capability of human capital in these participants’ institutions.

The perceived links between the income sources, leadership and human capital components, and the participants whose interview data suggested these links are shown in Figure 22.

Moreover, shared vision and overall goals were included as part of the leadership component. Although no obvious link was discussed by the participants in interviews, these two codes appeared important to leadership in business schools. The evidence that shared vision was considered important is discussed in the following participants’ interview. Johnny from specialised Business School M revealed that although his school’s Dean needed to “ensure there [was] a [shared] vision and that appropriate steps [were] taken to facilitate implementation of the vision”, team was engaged in the process. Charles from social-science-based Business School G emphasised the significance of “having an absolutely clear vision” because that enabled the institution to be “consistent in terms of [its] decision making”.

Furthermore, the significance of shared vision is consistent with the literature. Vision is also discussed in the literature by several scholars as relevant to the effectiveness of strategic leadership of an organisation. In their work on university leadership, Bargh et al. (2000) suggest that to successfully achieve leadership at the chief executive level, it takes continual interaction and shared vision towards common

goals. In addition, Hamidi (2009) proposes, in an article about strategic leadership in medical sciences universities, that shared vision is essential for strategic leadership in universities and it facilitates the progress of institutions. Furthermore, Bolden et al.'s (2008) work on distributed leadership in higher education suggests that the whole team in a university engages in setting the institution's vision. This suggests that having shared vision is significant for leadership in business schools.

Although, the "overall goals" code was discussed by the participants differently, each business school's overall goals reflected their institutions' current standing and where they would like to be in the future. For example, Frank from quasi-US Business School I described his school's overall goals as to be "one of the best business schools in the world" and "to have it recognised as one of the best in the world". Business School I's goals reflected that the school was in the leading position in the UK and Europe and hence looking to compete with top US business schools at the world level. On the other hand, Henry from quasi-US Business School A revealed that his institution's overall goal used to be being the premier global business school, whereas its new goal focused on making an impact on business practices. Business School A's former and new goals suggested that the institution was competing at the world level with top US business schools and looking to be a real force for change in business practices. In the social-science-based model like Business School L, Neil described his school's overall goal as "to regain [its] position as one of Europe's leading business schools", which reflected that its positioning fluctuated and that it had yet to compete at the European level. Similarly, at another social-science-based institution, Peter from Business School J described his institution's overall goals as "to be a world class research-based business school" and to be "best in Europe for employability and global mobility". This reflected that Business School J was still competing at the European level and trying to compete at the world level.

At this stage, shared vision and overall goals seemed to be relevant to leadership in business schools. Vision was shared and owned by colleagues across the schools to ensure consistency of actions, while overall goals reflected their current positioning

and future aspiration as well as guiding their schools' strategies. Therefore, the participants' responses suggest that a business school's shared vision and overall goals could guide how a business school operates to achieve their goals.

From the income sources and leadership components in the Primary Unit, there is a transition phase of the model, where the participants' interview data suggested a perceived link: the components in the Primary Unit seemed to influence the components in the Management Unit in Figure 23. In the transition phase from the Primary Unit to Management Unit, the participants' perspectives suggested that leadership and financial resources could facilitate the development and performance of the business schools' human capital. The next unit explores the management aspect of the institutions' various forms of capital, which were also perceived by participants in this study as having influenced the improvement of each other.

Management Unit

The previous section explained the Primary Unit and how its components were seen as linking to this Management Unit. This section shows the links between the components within this second unit as perceived by the participants in this study. This second unit in Figure 23 is called the Management Unit in order to signify that it involves the necessary skills to manage the four components in the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness, as suggested by the literature (Hitt et al., 2007; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Stiles & Kulvisaechana, 2003) and participants' interview data. These four components represent the four forms of business schools' capital: human capital, organisational capital, intellectual capital and social capital.

For this Management Unit, UK business school leaders/managers are suggested to have the ability to manage human capital, organisational capital, intellectual capital and social capital to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. Although in the previous Primary Unit section the interview data suggested that money was important for recruitment and retention of human capital, it also suggested that financial resources

were not the only important component, but also human capital itself. Furthermore, there were links perceived by the participants in this study that, in addition to financial resources and human capital, organisational capital could also play a role in the development of business school's human capital. Figure 23 illustrates that the human capital component was significantly discussed in the interviews by 17 sources from nine business schools, in all four business school models. The organisational capital component was also discussed extensively throughout the interview data by 16 sources from 10 institutions in all four business school models.

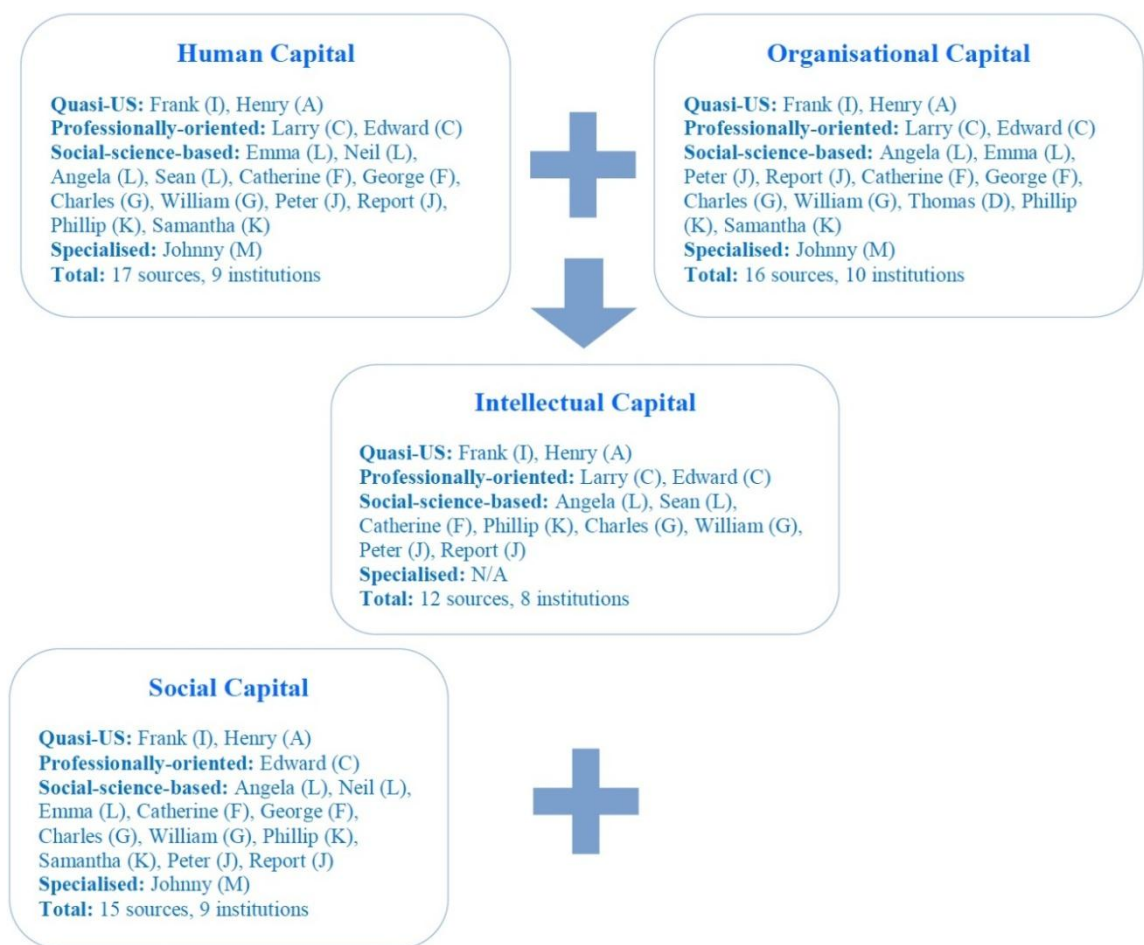


Figure 23: Management Unit

The evidence of perceived links that human capital reinforced itself includes the answers from three participants in two of the social-science-based and one of the quasi-US business schools (shown in Figure 24 as the orange curved double-arrow).

Samantha from social-science-based Business School K explained that a reason that staff stayed at the institution was “because they [had] got good colleagues”, and she perceived that “having the best human capital [was] the best strategy” for academic retention. Likewise, Phillip also from Business School K perceived that partly his “reputation internationally was a draw”, as a highly-cited academic attracted high quality people to work with the school. Similarly, Henry from quasi-US Business School A viewed top academics as “attracted by the faculty who [were] already there in their subject area”, in addition to the name and reputation of the school itself.

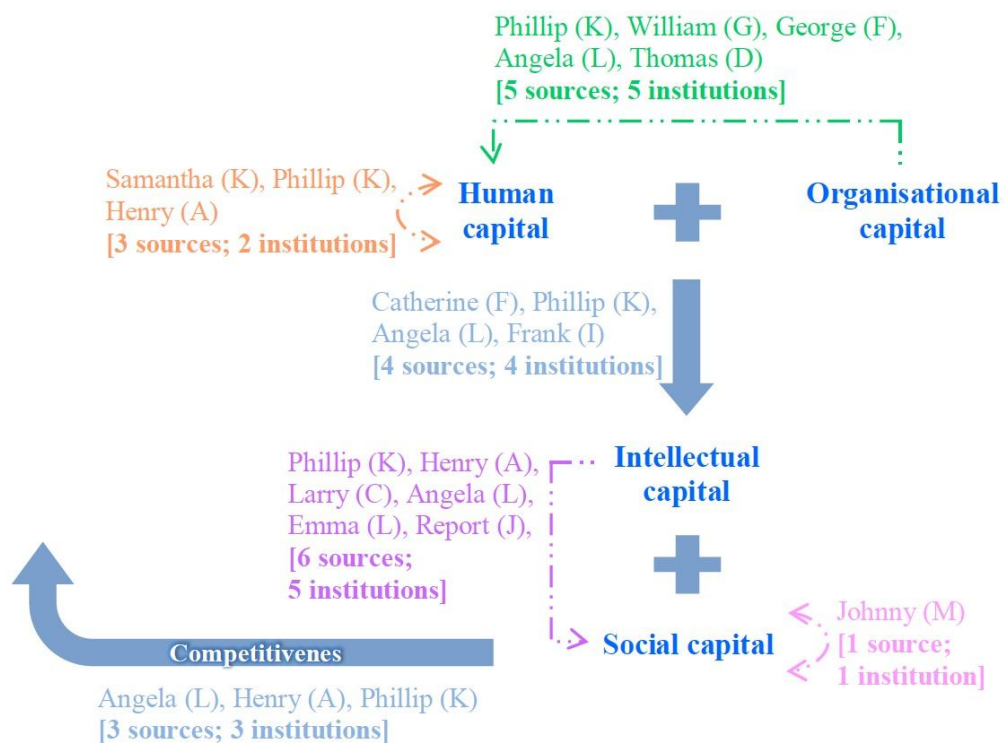


Figure 24: Sources of perceived links from Management Unit

In addition, there is evidence to suggest that the capability of business schools’ human capital could be influenced by their organisational capital, which included organisational culture within the schools and the environment that supported how staff could work and develop to achieve their best. Presented in Figure 24 as the green dash arrow, five participants from five institutions discussed how they perceived organisational capital as affecting the capability of human capital in their business schools.

William from social-science-based Business School G perceived that although money was one factor in staff retention, his institution “[built] a world class research culture and supportive environment that [people wanted] to stay”. George from social-science-based Business School F acknowledged that his institution endeavoured to establish a research-active culture within the business school so that “it [became], in a sense, unacceptable not to be doing good research”. Phillip from social-science-based Business School K stressed that “culture [was] important” and revealed his experience of changing “a culture which was somewhat complacent, somewhat comfortable”, where people were not interested in their performance to a more active culture, so that “people changed their behaviour and their approach and they began to perform much higher than they had done before”. Angela from social-science-based Business School L also said that a good research culture was important in the business school and that “success [bred] success” because people would want “to be part of a successful research unit, so the more success we [had] the easier it [was] to retain [research active] staff”.

For the supportive environment, the interview findings suggested that the capability of human capital seemed to increase in the environment that provided adequate facilities, training and mentorship and a culture that encouraged research and provided support for career development. The following evidence shows the terms of participants’ discussions of how they established supportive environments in their business schools, and how they perceived this as linking to the capability of human capital.

In the social-science-based model, Phillip from Business School K and George from Business School F explained that their business schools provided mentorship to support inexperienced academics in order to enhance human capital as well as to help them develop in their careers. Phillip described his institution’s “system to mentor and support younger people who may not be so experienced” in order to enhance their “behaviour towards research”. Similarly, George perceived that his colleagues were “likely to get better given the sort of facilities that we [could] provide and the

sort of training that we [could] provide, good mentorship”. In addition, Thomas from social-science-based Business School D explained that his school’s environment supported academics in terms of interdisciplinary research, training for research writing, support funds, world-class research facilities and a research-valued climate.

The answers from these five participants showed that there was a perceived connection between organisational capital (i.e. culture and environment) and performance and capabilities of human capital in these business schools. This suggests that human capital could also be enhanced by organisational capital, in addition to human capital itself. The link is illustrated in Figure 24 as the green dash arrow along with the names of participants and their institutions.

The next level of Figure 23 explains that there was also a perceived link from the participants’ perspectives that the consolidation between human capital and organisational capital could promote the development of intellectual capital which includes creativity, innovation and high-quality output of business schools. As evidence shows in the above passage, human capital, which the literature suggests may be the “truly sustainable source of competitive advantage” (Hitt et al., 2001; Snell & Youndt, 1995, as cited in Hitt et al., 2007, p. 388), was seen as being more productive and likely to produce higher quality output, both for research and teaching, in a supportive environment. Therefore, productive human capital was perceived by some participants in this study as being able to develop creative ideas in the environment where staff were encouraged to share the ideas with their colleagues in order to implement them and innovate. The following evidence shows how intellectual capital (i.e. creativity, innovation and high-quality output) was seen by these four participants from four institutions as linked to productive human capital and organisational capital (shown as the blue downwards arrow in Figure 24). Additionally, Figure 23 shows that the intellectual capital component was discussed by 12 sources from eight business schools in all but the specialised model.

Catherine’s answer, from social-science-based Business School F, clarified the link between intellectual capital, human capital and organisational capital. She explained

that, to ensure creative and original research as well as research performance, her institution recruited the best possible academics into its research-active culture, where it provided mentorship for younger academics and allowed academics sufficient time and space for their research pursuit. Therefore, Catherine's response suggests that there is a perceived link – that strong human capital, together with supportive organisational capital, could lead to creativity and innovation in her business school. Similarly, Phillip from Business School K perceived that to the development of high quality research could be achieved by “creating a climate which encourages good quality research”, including mentorship, incentive system and having role models. Likewise, Angela from Business School L viewed that in order to ensure her school's research performance, there needed to be “a good research culture in the school” and “a climate in which that [could] take place”, such as encouraging research conversations, giving enough time for staff to do research and providing rewards for publication.

Furthermore, Frank from quasi-US Business School I and Angela from social-science-based Business School L agreed that the climate could encourage innovation. Frank acknowledged that his institution held “meetings where you put different people together with some experts and then they just [swapped] ideas around” to encourage innovation in the school. Angela, perceiving the importance that “innovation [was] actually a key part of competitiveness”, established an innovative climate by building networks with CEOs in its “Innovation Club” to discuss the possibility of innovation development.

From the above evidence, it is therefore suggested that intellectual capital could be the product of the human capital and organisational capital of business schools. In Figure 24, the blue downwards arrow shows how the components are connected, together with responding participants who discussed these perceived links and showing their institutions.

Although the literature suggests that social capital is part of the development of intellectual capital (Wright et al., 2001), this study examined the external aspect of

social capital when referring to social capital, while the internal dimension of social capital was more appropriate under the “staff management” code of the bigger “human capital” theme (discussed in chapter five). That is to say, the internal social capital that Wright et al. (2001) suggest partly forms intellectual capital, was discussed in this study as part of part of human capital, which could be coupled with organisational capital to promote the development of intellectual capital in business schools.

Additionally, a connection was perceived by the participants in this study that business schools’ intellectual capital could promote the development of external social capital. In other words, it is suggested that creativity and innovation, as well as quality of output, could enhance business schools’ reputation (accreditation and ranking) and their ability to form linkages with industry in terms of research partnerships and specialised courses. This final component of the unit, the (external) social capital component, was discussed in the interview data by 15 sources from nine business schools in all four business school models (shown in Figure 23).

However, the perceived link between intellectual capital and social capital was relatively complicated, in the sense that intellectual capital was seen by some participants as increasing the performance of their business schools, and that it could also have an impact on the schools’ reputation, especially in terms of both media and research rankings. Shown in Figure 24 as the purple dash arrow, this perceived link was evidenced in the following five participants’ interview data and in the confidential report. Phillip from social-science-based Business School K explained that “innovation [was] a means to raising performance” and that his institution “[used] innovations at various times in order to drive up performance”. Henry from quasi-US Business School A and Larry from professionally-oriented Business School C had a similar method of quality assurance of research output: “the school [had] its own list of [...] top tier A List journals” (Henry); and “[the school] also [monitored] research outputs very carefully” that it had its “own journal ranking which [enabled the school] to assign quality indicators to research output” (Larry). These three participants from three institutions illustrate a perceived link between intellectual

capital and social capital that they felt their performance was likely to influence their business schools' reputation and positioning in research and media rankings.

In terms of intellectual capital enhancing industry linkages, Angela from social-science-based Business School L revealed that her business school aimed to “have greater impact from [strong] research by transferring that knowledge from the university to the businesses”. Likewise, Emma also from Business School L said that her business school aimed to be “a full-service business school”, from teaching to “research-informed consultancy services”. Another example is social-science-based Business School J whose confidential report, provided by a senior manager, revealed that the institution had done a number of knowledge transfer projects, including sharing its best talents with businesses, and an Innovation Voucher Scheme that involved Small-to-Medium Enterprises purchasing academic support from universities. The information from Angela and Emma from Business School L and the report from Business School J suggest that these business schools utilised their intellectual capital to enhance their external social capital by building linkages with industry. Therefore, from the interview data, the perceived link between business schools' intellectual capital and social capital were found in six sources from five institutions, as shown in Figure 24 as the purple dash arrow.

In addition to intellectual capital enhancing industry linkages, reputation as an aspect of external social capital seemed to facilitate the development of other aspects of social capital, i.e. industry linkages and relationships with advisory board. This is evidenced in Johnny's interview data and is presented in Figure 24 as the pink, curved double-arrow. Johnny from specialised Business School M explained that his institution built and maintained productive relationships with businesses, communities and other key stakeholders by different methods, such as “the building of networks, publishing brochures disseminating the achievements of the school, [and] organising events for different groups (e.g. alumni, business, researchers)”. Johnny's answer explained the link between the institution's performance, reputation and industry linkages in the sense that his institution publicised its successful performance in order to establish its reputation amongst the students and

stakeholders and to strengthen its linkages and connections with businesses, by using its reputation. Therefore, Johnny's answer suggests a link between various aspects of social capital.

At the end of the Management Unit is the transition phase of the model. The whole Management Unit was perceived by participants in this study as having potential to benefit components in the third unit in Figure 25. In this transition phase from the Management Unit to Forward Unit, the participants' perspectives suggested that the combination of intellectual capital, which was seen by the participants as a result of human capital and organisational capital, and social capital could promote their institutions' competitiveness.

Shown in Figure 24 as the blue bent arrow, the integration of intellectual capital (i.e. innovation, quality of output and performance) and external social capital (i.e. reputation and connections) could improve business schools' competitiveness, in ways specific to each institution. This is evidenced in the following three participants' interview data. Angela from social-science-based Business School L acknowledged that her institution's position in the rankings, which was the reputation of the school's performance, was one of the key competitive advantages that attracted international students from all over the world. Furthermore, she perceived that "innovation [was] actually a key part of competitiveness", so that her business school encouraged innovation in its services in order to maintain its competitiveness. This answer precisely depicts the link between intellectual capital, social capital and competitiveness that is shown in the model and Figure 24 as the blue bent arrow. Henry from quasi-US Business School A observed that his school's competitiveness partly came from its "strong commitment to outstanding research but also to research that [made] a difference in policy and practice". This response shows a link between the business school's intellectual capital and competitiveness. Interestingly, Phillip from social-science-based Business School K remarked that "competitiveness [was] an innovation contest and to win the competitiveness game you [needed] to win the innovation game". Therefore, the responses of these participants illustrate a perceived link, suggesting that intellectual capital and social

capital could lead a business school to achieve institution-specific competitiveness, because these two forms of capital were represented as the distinctive outcome from each business school's utilisation of financial resources, human capital and organisational capital.

As a result, these institutions' competitiveness could help determine their strategies and tactics, while business schools' social capital was seen as linking to the effectiveness of their fundraising. The following section explains these perceived links in more detail and discusses the proactive skills needed for the implementation of the two components in the third unit, as well as how these components could feed back to enhance business schools' income sources in the Primary Unit.

Forward Unit

The previous section discussed perceived links between the components of the Management Unit, according to participants' perspectives. In addition, it briefly discussed a perceived link between the Management Unit and this unit. The term Forward Unit in Figure 25 signifies that it involves skills that UK business school leaders/managers need to be proactive and forward-looking in planning strategies and tactics and fundraising activities.

This section explains how intellectual capital and external social capital were seen by the participants in this study as relevant to business schools' fundraising efforts and their strategies and tactics. Shown in Figure 25, the fundraising component was discussed by ten sources from eight business schools in all but the professionally-oriented model, while the strategies and tactics component was discussed by 13 sources from ten institutions in all but the professionally-oriented model.

As discussed in the previous section, the link between the Management Unit and Forward Unit was constructed to show the participants' views that a business school's intellectual capital could enhance its external social capital in terms of rankings and accreditation. Additionally, these aspects of external social capital were

said by some participants in this study to have the potential to establish business schools' reputation internationally and to benefit their strategies and tactics in terms of attracting prospective students from all over the world. The evidence from the following three participants, from three institutions, illustrates this perceived link between social capital and benefit for business schools' strategies and tactics.

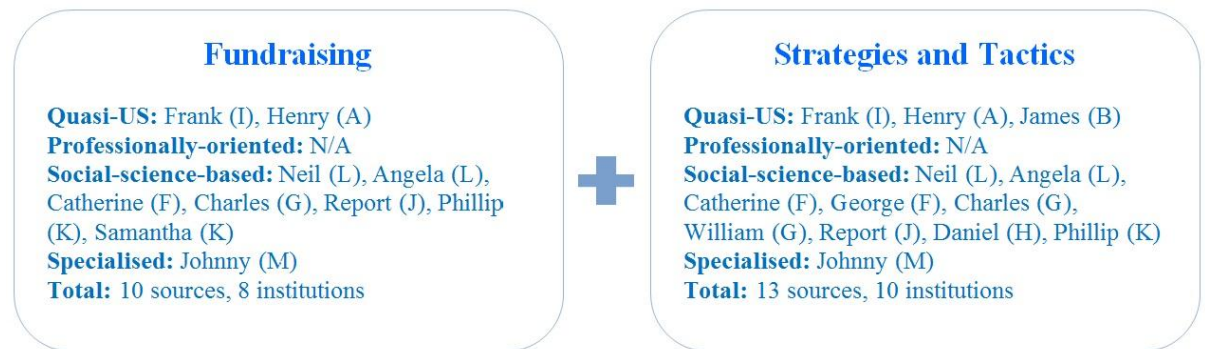


Figure 25: Forward Unit

Angela from social-science-based Business School L recognised that the school's position in the FT rankings was "really absolutely critical for Business Schools", while having triple accreditation was "really important in the international market". Similarly, George from social-science-based Business School F revealed that being triple accredited and highly ranked in the FT rankings mattered to his institution's strategy because "those [were] the two things that the marketplace [responded] to more than anything else". Likewise, Charles from social-science-based Business School G expressed his perception that triple accreditation was important because "very few schools [had] triple accreditation" and "different markets [used] different accreditations to ascertain a quality of a business school". Hence, Charles perceived that having all three main accreditations increased the chances of a business school being accepted in different countries. These answers from Angela, George and Charles from Business Schools L, F and G respectively, suggest that there is a perceived link with social capital (accreditations and rankings), which could benefit their business schools' strategies, particularly their internationalisation strategies that involve different markets around the world. Figure 26 shows this link in the orange dash arrow.

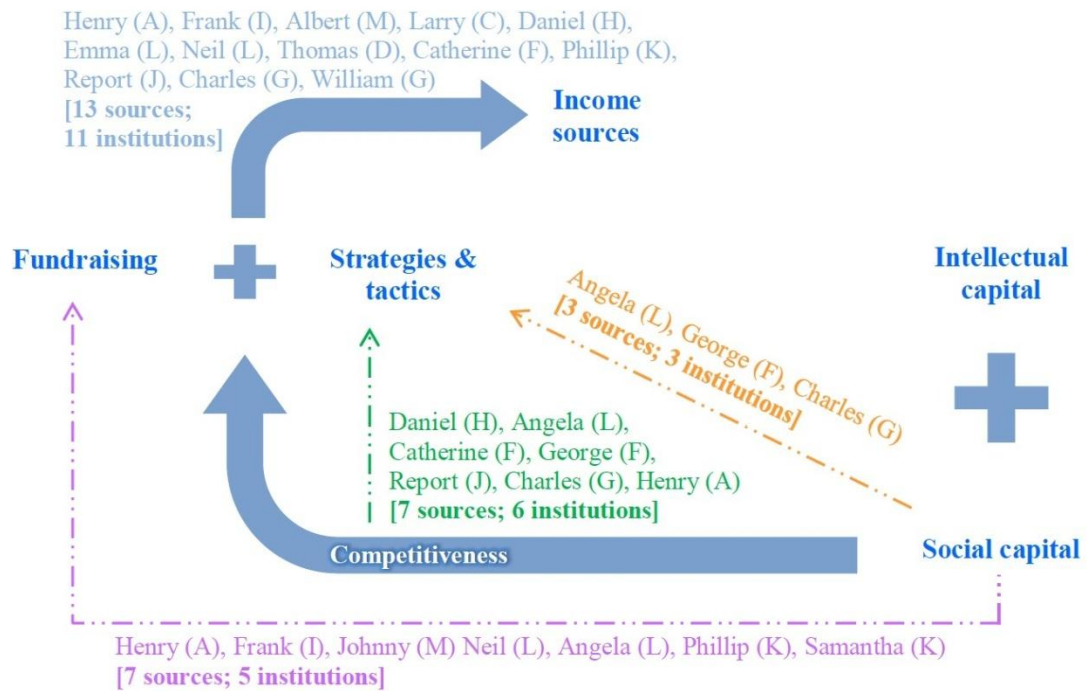


Figure 26: Sources of perceived links from Forward Unit

Regarding the strategies and tactics of UK business schools, forming partnerships with overseas institutions was a popular choice amongst the participating business schools, as evidenced in the following participants' responses. Daniel, from social-science-based Business School H acknowledged that his institution established international partnerships with leading universities in Asia and the US. Similarly, Angela from social-science-based Business School L also used this overseas partnership strategy to deliver courses to international students in their home countries. Likewise, Catherine from social-science-based Business School F recognised that international programmes, in the form of partnership or joint degrees with other institutions, accounted for a large part of her business school's growth. The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J revealed that the school had a dedicated team to work on partnership strategy, especially with overseas organisations. Charles from social-science-based Business School G revealed that his institution had similar "strategic relationships with certain universities or business schools, certain markets", because they would produce a positive impact in those markets and would "leverage the business school's reputation". Furthermore, Henry

from quasi-US Business School A reported that his institution had partnerships with overseas institutions to strengthen its products/services in particular markets.

The provision of joint degree courses overseas was perceived by Angela from Business School L and Catherine and George from Business School F, all in the social-science-based model, as a method of avoiding the difficulty that prospective students would encounter in applying for visas to study in the UK. These three participants recognised that with this method, their business schools could avoid immigration constraints that potential students would face. Angela revealed that she was highly satisfied with the result that her institution was able to provide British education to many more overseas students than it was able to do in the UK. Therefore, the answers from these six participants and a report suggest that business schools' competitiveness could enhance the effectiveness of their strategies and tactics. This perceived link and the sources are shown in Figure 26 as the green dash arrow between competitiveness and strategies and tactics.

Furthermore, it is suggested that business schools' strategies and tactics for attracting students to the UK or forming partnerships to provide UK degrees abroad could contribute to the expansion of business schools' financial resources. These participants said that their institutions concentrated on strategy to increase student numbers and depended very little on government funds. For the social-science-based business schools, the participants in this study said that their institutions mainly earned income from postgraduate tuition fees. The participants from the quasi-US business schools in this study said that their institutions made most of their profit from executive education. Similarly, the participant from the professionally-oriented business school in this study perceived that the institution mainly earned profit from providing special courses and executive education for corporate clients. By contrast, the participants from the specialised business school did not mention which teaching programmes brought them most profit.

The other component in the Forward Unit, the fundraising component, was perceived as linking to social capital (i.e. alumni and connections), which was found in

participants' interview data to benefit fundraising. The evidence from the following six participants from four institutions explains a perceived link between social capital and fundraising in their business schools.

Henry and Frank from quasi-US Business Schools A and I respectively said that their institutions concentrated on fundraising activities. Henry described that for Business School A “there [were] two kinds of people, there [was] alumni and there [were] other donors”. For alumni, Henry explained that the case was they were “very appreciative of the education” and the institution, and that it was “very important to fund funds for future generation”. By contrast, Frank said that in relation to raising funds from alumni Business School I “[didn't] have so many rich Alumni” but had been “very fortunate in having big benefactors” because of its parent university's connection. Frank's response is a good example of utilising social capital to enhance fundraising. However, the quasi-US business schools were usually in a stronger position than other types of business schools in terms of reputation, standing and connections.

Johnny from specialised Business School M revealed that although he was rarely involved in raising funds, when he did he attributed positive outcomes to “contact with influential people [which] came via membership of committees/advisory bodies”. This is also an example of exploiting social capital for opportunities to raise funds.

By contrast, some participants in the social-science-based business schools did not perceive their institutions as successful in fundraising, but said that their institutions had made initial moves on this, as evidenced in the responses of the following participants. Neil from Business School L revealed that although his institution “had negligible donations”, he “made connections with influential business people [...] by attending as many network events as [he] could”. Angela, also from Business School L, perceived that it was “still difficult to persuade businesses to cough up funds to support education”, but she considered it important for all schools to “start to engage businesses in terms of fundraising”. Furthermore, she perceived that having links and

connections through alumni facilitated fundraising, “rather than just going to a company out of the blue”, because with alumni “people [felt] they [had] got some kind of association with the school [and] it [was] a much stronger link”.

Additionally, she discussed what would make people want to donate to her institution: it was “the brand and the quality of the school” and also the school “[had] got to give businesses something in return”, i.e. PR, access to courses, research or consultancy. This response shows the link between intellectual capital, social capital and the chances of success in fundraising.

Phillip from social-science-based Business School K explained that his school “made some start” on fundraising from the alumni but “that kind of process was in its infancy”. Samantha, also from Business School K, revealed that she encouraged her colleagues to “increasingly [look] outside the research councils, to corporate relationships and [use] those to generate funding”.

These participants’ answers suggest that business schools could utilise social capital in terms of their alumni and industry linkages for fundraising. This perceived link is shown in Figure 26 as the purple dash arrow from the social capital to fundraising components.

Furthermore, business schools’ fundraising activities, as well as strategies and tactics, were perceived by participants in this study as methods to enhance income sources for UK business schools, although the funds raised in UK business schools were still small at this stage. As discussed earlier, many participants’ business schools focused their strategies on internationalisation to attract students from all over the world in order to increase their income, which all of them perceived to be mainly from tuition fees. Therefore, the link here starts from effective strategies and tactics that increased the number of international students, which could lead to increased income, while fundraising activities could also be another source of income. The evidence from the following 13 sources illustrates a perceived link between fundraising and tuition fees (the result of effective strategies and tactics) and income sources, presented as the blue bent arrow at the top of Figure 26.

Frank, from quasi-US Business School I, revealed that his institution's "main income here [came] from the MBA and from executive education". Similarly, Henry, from quasi-US Business School A, revealed that "the fee income from [...] degree students and [executive education accounted] for a very high proportion" for his school. Albert, from specialised Business School M, explained that his institution's income came "mostly from enhanced student fees [and] second source, research grants". Larry, from professionally-oriented Business School C, remarked that his school's "main funding [came] from corporate clients in delivering executive education and [its] MBA/MSc programmes".

Daniel from social-science-based Business School H suggested that the international market was the main source of his school's income: "as long as international markets remain open and expanding our income base is secure". At social-science-based Business School L, Emma and Neil revealed similar information: the institution got "most of our income from teaching, with a comparatively small amount from research" (Emma); and that "all funds [had] been in the form of income from tuition fees, research grants" (Neil). Thomas from social-science-based Business School D also revealed that his school's "main source of income [was] the tuition fees for [its] degree courses". Catherine from social-science-based Business School F explained that "the MBA programme, the international MBA programme, also the other specialists Master's programmes that [it offered] on campus [were] all sources of income" for her school. Phillip from social-science-based Business School K revealed that "a lot of the funds [were] coming from the fees" and that "another source of funds was the recruitment of students from overseas". Phillip perceived that these two sources were very important for funding, with "funding from charitable or private donations", which he perceived as "quite difficult to achieve" in the UK. The confidential report from social-science-based Business School J revealed that "students [accounted] for nearly 90% of [its] income". At social-science-based Business School G, Charles revealed that his school's main funding was "essentially the fee that [was] derived from undergraduate and postgraduate

courses”, while William remarked that the school received “the bulk of [its] money through course programmes and research grants and industry”.

As 12 participants and a report from 11 institutions revealed that their business schools’ main income came from tuition fees, this suggests that well-planned strategies and tactics, especially ones that involve building international reputation, could enhance business schools’ financial resources and income, particularly in the form of tuition fees. Furthermore, some of these participants mentioned research grants, which were a form of the fundraising component, as their schools’ secondary income. Although the financial support provided by fundraising was considered by participants in this study to be small, they still perceived it as a future source of income that could increase. Therefore, the perspectives of participants in this study were that both the fundraising and strategies and tactics components could enhance the income sources of business schools. This suggests a perceived link between these two components in the Forward Unit and the income sources component. This perceived link also represents the transition phase from the Forward Unit back to the Primary Unit, which completes the virtuous circle of financial sustainability and competitiveness that the model in Figure 20 proposes.

The Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness in Figure 20 suggests that every component in the model is interdependent with and affects the others. The model argues that business school leaders/managers could utilise these eight components, with the three skills described earlier, to promote and maintain their business schools’ competitiveness and financial sustainability. This model could be exploited by other types of UK business schools and business schools in other countries, especially in today’s globalised market. Furthermore, this model may also be applied by other professional schools with similar contexts, such as law schools, in UK higher education.

The important implication of this model is that business school leaders/managers should put these key components to use by exploiting each of them to complement the others. This also applies to other forms of capital. It is all about working

collaboratively and mobilising capital across units in order to achieve the maximum mutual benefits for business schools. Ultimately, this study argues that competitiveness and financial sustainability are not the result of one key factor; rather, the key is to combine different components that will work best for each business school. As some participants stressed, strategic leadership for business schools depends on each context, and there is no fixed solution.

Summary

As stated at the end of Literature Review in chapter two, the main research question of this study was to explore the views of leaders in top UK business schools on the effective components of strategic leadership that contributed to their schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability. The Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness in Figure 20 integrated participants' perspectives on the components of strategic leadership and showed how these components connected and were perceived as contributing to these business schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability. It is suggested that the participants viewed the components of the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness as interdependent, and that each components could enhance the effectiveness of the others. The next chapter will explain how the research findings provide answers to this study's research questions, draw conclusions from this research, make the case for its contribution and consider implications for future research.

CHAPTER VIII: CONCLUSION, CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The previous chapters discussed the background to the research, the literature, adopted methodology, analysis of data and the development of a model. This chapter completes the thesis by addressing the research questions, assessing the extent to which the study achieved its aims, drawing conclusions from the results, defining the study's contribution, addressing limitations and personal bias and suggesting directions for future research.

This study sought to investigate the views of leaders in top UK business schools on the components of strategic leadership that contributed to their schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability. In this study, competitiveness in UK business schools was defined as the ability of a business school to market itself in competition with other business schools in order to attract home/EU and overseas students and all types of partnership and benefactor to engage with the institution, assuming that the result of competitiveness would be financial sustainability for the school.

The definition of financial sustainability used in this study that was provided in the introduction to chapter six is running a business school at a profit over the long term. Furthermore, investigating the notion of financial sustainability in this study involved looking at how business schools utilised existing resources to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of other forms of capital that had potential to improve schools' performance. The performance of a business school was seen in this study as important for its competitiveness in the global market, which as was explained earlier, could bring financial benefit to the business school. Hence, the competitiveness of UK business schools was also seen as enhancing their ability to sustain themselves financially in the long term. Therefore, it is suggested that both

the competitiveness and financial sustainability of UK business schools are interrelated and should therefore be investigated together.

This study explored the literature on strategic leadership in higher education in general and the business school sector in particular. While strategic leadership and management have been widely researched for decades, most of their studies focused on military and business settings. However, more recently the focus of strategic leadership and management has shifted to educational contexts, including higher education.

While Fragueiro and Thomas (2011) researched strategic leadership in business schools, they did not address how business schools could develop financial sustainability, and they only studied three European business schools. Therefore, this study set out to explore how business schools could finance themselves and achieve competitiveness and financial sustainability by investigating business schools in the UK context.

Addressing Research Questions and Aims

This section discusses how the results of this study address its research questions and aims.

Main Question

Components of Strategic Leadership for UK Business Schools' Competitiveness and Financial Sustainability

The results showed that leaders/managers in top UK business schools identified eight components of strategic leadership that could contribute to business schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability: (1) leadership, (2) income sources, (3) human capital, (4) organisational capital, (5) intellectual capital, (6) social capital, (7) fundraising and (8) strategies and tactics. Furthermore, the research results revealed that these components were seen by participants in this study as inter-linked, and that

these linkages could help business schools achieve competitiveness and financial sustainability. Evidence of the links between the components in the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness, as perceived by the participants in this study, was provided in chapter seven.

Sub-questions

The Most Important Component of Strategic Leadership for UK Business Schools' Competitiveness and Financial sustainability

The interview data suggested that participants perceived that there was no one essential component of strategic leadership for business schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability. Instead, leadership, income sources, human capital, organisational capital and social capital were amongst the most frequently discussed and emphasised components of the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness. By contrast, strategies and tactics, intellectual capital and fundraising were less frequently discussed.

Nonetheless, it is suggested that all the components presented in the model were perceived by the participants in this study as interdependently enhancing the effectiveness of one another. Therefore, I conclude that the components of UK business schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability include leadership, income sources, human capital, organisational capital and social capital, because these first four components seemed to be important at the beginning of the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness, while social capital seemed to be important for several components of the model. Although the other three components – strategies and tactics, intellectual capital and fundraising – were discussed less frequently, they seemed to be as important as those five components because each of them had the potential to complement the others. Thus, I have argued, all components of the model are important, and UK business schools should work to integrate them in order to achieve competitiveness and financial sustainability.

How the Components Could Contribute to Competitiveness and Financial Sustainability of UK Business Schools

This interpretation of participants' perspectives suggests that the components of the model can be connected in a virtuous circle, as shown in Figure 20 in the "Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness" section of chapter seven.

The perceived links were seen to start with participants' business schools investing financial resources, earned from a range of income sources, to enhance human capital, particularly regarding the recruitment and retention of the best staff. In addition, leadership was seen as potentially enhancing human capital in these participants' institutions.

Furthermore, human capital was viewed as having the potential to enhance itself, while organisational capital was also perceived as having the potential to improve human capital in these institutions. Additionally, the combination of human capital (staff) and organisational capital (culture and environment) was also seen as having the potential to promote the development of intellectual capital (high-quality output, creativity and innovation). Furthermore, intellectual capital (research knowledge and business ideas) was perceived by some participants as having the potential to increase the external social capital of their institutions in terms of knowledge transfer schemes, customised courses, work placements, consultancy projects and other forms of partnership.

Subsequently, the combination of intellectual capital and social capital was viewed as having the potential to help participants' institutions achieve institution-specific competitiveness, which in turn was seen as a potential means to improve the effectiveness of schools' strategies and tactics. Moreover, social capital was perceived by participants as having the potential to increase success in fundraising by either being a means of raising funds (i.e. social capital in the form of contacts and networks that could facilitate fundraising activities) or as an end in itself (i.e. social

capital in the form of relationships with companies that could provide financial support for research and other projects).

Furthermore, it is suggested that components such as overall goals (part of leadership), intellectual capital and social capital were highly relevant to these institutions' positioning, which participants saw as having an impact on how their institutions set their strategies and tactics. Participants' interview data suggest that other components, such as human capital, organisational capital, income sources and shared vision (part of leadership) were indirectly relevant, as these components influenced overall goals, intellectual capital and social capital rather than directly impacting on institutions' strategies and tactics.

Finally, strategies and tactics – not only fundraising activities – were seen as enhancing the financial resources of participants' institutions, which could, in turn, feed into their income sources and complete the virtuous circle of financial sustainability and competitiveness.

Differences in Views of Individuals

There was a range of results regarding the views of individuals at different management levels both within and between institutions. Similarities and differences depended on the topic being discussed. Such topics as the “appropriate leadership” code produced two opposing views: some responded positively to the concept and others were doubtful about it. These opposing views were unrelated to their management levels or institutions.

Some codes revealed minor differences in practices, which could be attributable to business school models. Others, such as the “fundraising” code, represented the overall backdrop of the fundraising issue in top UK business schools. Furthermore, the “fundraising” code revealed similar views among participants in the same business school model, and different views among participants from different business school models.

Research Aims

In addition to the research questions discussed above, this study had research aims to be addressed, as follows.

How Leaders Perceived and Experienced Strategic Leadership

There was a range of perceptions and experiences among participants in this study on the topic of leading and managing their institutions. However, the leaders/managers' perspectives from some social-science-based business schools suggested that the consultative and inclusive form of strategic leadership was considered appropriate for leading and managing their collegial culture. While most participants recognised the concept of strategic leadership in their business schools, some rejected it as inappropriate for the culture of their institutions.

There was a range of preferences for leadership, with some implying that they would have preferred to use distributed leadership in their institutions, while others suggested a preference for transformational leadership. A preference for distributed leadership styles was unrelated to the management level.

Although there were differences in participants' perceptions, most viewed strategic leadership in terms of articulating shared vision and overall goals amongst colleagues.

How Leaders Perceived Components of Strategic Leadership and Development of Competitiveness and Financial Sustainability

The relationship between components of strategic leadership and business schools' competitiveness and financial sustainability is complex. Participants in this study identified links between components, as discussed briefly in the sub-questions section above and in detail in chapter seven, which were integrated in the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness in Figure 20. These perceived links were constructed during data analysis as part of the coding process. For instance, some participants discussed how they perceived components A and B to enhance component C, while others viewed components C as improving the

development of components D and E. This study attempted to make sense of this complexity: putting perceived links into a model to show that the components were seen as inter-related. This study therefore proposes that these components, taken together, could promote competitiveness and financial sustainability in UK business schools.

How Leaders Utilised Components of Strategic Leadership

This study revealed that these components were used by most participants in this study, which suggests that they are all potentially relevant. There were participants who suggested they employed all eight components: Henry from Business School A, Frank from Business School I, Angela from Business School L, Catherine from Business School F, Charles from Business School G and Phillip from Business School K. However, some did not seem to use them all. For instance, Larry and Edward suggested that Business School C employed all the components except fundraising and strategies and tactics. This does not mean that Business School C did not have any strategies and tactics at all, or that they did not do any fundraising. However, it was interesting that these components did not come up in their interviews.

In addition to the research questions and aims, another question emerged during the analysis, addressed in the summary section of chapter five. It sought to identify the most important form of capital for UK business schools' financial sustainability and competitiveness. The results suggest that human capital is the key component of the model, followed by organisational capital and social capital and financial capital, which is discussed in the form of income sources. Although human capital was perceived as the most important form of capital in participating schools, it is useful to analyse other factors that can enhance human capital. While it seems from the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness that human capital was seen by the participants as being enhanced by financial resources, it is also clear that other components were seen as having the potential to strengthen human capital as well. These components are therefore addressed in the next section.

Human Capital – The Core of Business Schools

Since many participants implied a preference for distributed leadership, this study argues that human capital could be the most important capital in business schools. Distributed leadership is a leadership process that involves people, hence strong human capital of a business school would be beneficial. Human capital was perceived by participants as crucial to business schools, since they suggested that having strong human capital enhanced the performance of the schools and that it grew into other forms of capital (links discussed in chapter seven).

Due to the nature of educational institutions like business schools, the challenge of attracting and retaining staff is considered important both by scholars (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011; Goodall, 2009; Ivory et al., 2006) and participants in this study. Hence, recruitment and retention were serious concerns. The following quotes illustrate participants' views on recruitment and retention of staff, as components of business schools' human capital. They suggest that, in addition to financial resources, human capital could be enhanced by human capital itself:

“Again, I think that social relationships are very important because people can go anywhere for more money and that is not often the reason why people leave, but they will stay because they have got good colleagues, so having the best human capital is the best strategy.”

Samantha, Social-Science-Based Business School K

“I think frankly my reputation internationally was a draw. Everybody knows me in this country and internationally and it is a help if you are a Dean who is known as a top scholar, but not all Deans are top scholars. That, I think, was a big help to [Business School K] in recruiting the quality of people we did recruit.”

Phillip, Social-Science-Based Business School K

“I think Faculty at the top level are attracted by the name and reputation of the School, but more important than that they are attracted by the Faculty who are already there in their subject area.”

Henry, Quasi-US Business School A

Furthermore, culture and environment, which form business schools’ organisational capital, were also seen by participants as factors in staff retention:

“Well we do pay them more money. Well we build a world class research culture and supportive environment so that they want to stay. Money is not a key driver, it can be in some areas but that is not how we do it.... We develop a culture that employees want to stay, we want to be an employer of choice.”

William, Social-Science-Based Business School G

“I think the key to recruiting and retaining good staff, over and above monetary payment and so forth, is to make sure that they have lots of scope to develop their careers, to move around the School and to do what they think is of value and to recognise the value of that activity.”

Henry, Quasi-US Business School A

Lastly, as shown in the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness, financial resources were clearly important for business schools’ human capital. The following quotes illustrate participants’ perceptions that human capital can be enhanced by financial resources:

“Well the senior faculty is quite difficult [to attract to work at this institution] and it is a combination of salary package and what else they can earn on Executive Education.”

Frank, Quasi-US Business School A

“we increased the salaries, well not as much as some places, but sufficient I think to attract the people that we did attract”

Phillip, Social-Science-Based Business School K

It is therefore argued that key components of strategic leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness in UK business schools should therefore include human capital, organisational capital and financial resources.

Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness

This section presents the conclusions of this study and the interpretation of the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness presented in chapter seven.

This thesis presents the concept of leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness with a similar stance to that of Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz's (1998) strategic financial leadership that includes non-financial aspects in the performance measurement of business schools. Therefore, it is suggested that leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness in UK business schools should involve not only financial issues but also other aspects that influence the performance of business schools.

While Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz (1998) proposed four initiatives for strategic financial leadership, this thesis argues for different initiatives of leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness. Despite the similarity to their strategic financial leadership stance, this study is different in terms of the nature of organisations as well as individuals that implement leadership. Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz (1998) argued for a model of strategic financial leadership designed for CFOs in healthcare organisations, while this study proposes a model of leadership for

financial sustainability and competitiveness designed for managers and leaders in UK business schools. It is not for people in finance departments.

Furthermore, Kleinmuntz and Kleinmuntz (1998) discussed the inadequacy of traditional financial measurement systems for assessing the whole picture of business performance and advocated the use of Kaplan and Norton's (1992) balanced scorecard measurement system. They proposed four initiatives for strategic financial leadership for healthcare CFOs: risk-measurement systems, performance of new information systems, business performance measurement processes and resource evaluation and allocation processes. By contrast, this thesis proposes that leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness in UK business schools involves three units of skills: Primary Unit, Management Unit and Forward Unit:

Primary Unit

- ability to source income and allocate the institution's financial resources;
- clear vision that could translate into the institution's performance;
- ability to determine the overall goals that are suitable for the school's context;
- thorough understanding of financial aspects and leadership in business schools; and
- ability to develop contextualised leadership that is appropriate for the organisational culture, people and circumstances

Management Unit

- ability to manage and improve the capabilities of human, organisational, intellectual and social capital;
- extensive networks;
- ability to create a culture that values good research and an environment that supports staff to develop their careers;
- ability to mobilize human capital from different units in order to promote interdisciplinary work that could lead to innovation, which is part of the intellectual capital of business schools;

- ability and connections to attract highly capable people to work at or with the school; and
- ability to delegate tasks appropriate to staff competencies

Forward Unit

- ability to respond to market demands and changes;
- ability to estimate and increase the feasibility of the institution's strategies and tactics;
- being proactive and forward-looking with fundraising, networking and strategies;
- experience of fundraising; and
- ability to form worldwide partnerships with compatible organisations

Since this study adopted a constructivist paradigm, the argument presented in this thesis was built on the analysis and interpretation of the interview data. The analysis and interpretation were constructed from information provided by the interviewees, based on their experiences, perceptions and knowledge of the phenomenon being studied. Their information was, therefore, socially constructed and represents their subjective meanings.

As a result of this study, leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness is defined in this thesis in following terms:

- It includes shared vision, as part of leadership, in terms of the business school's future position and aspiration that is shared and owned amongst staff;
- It involves setting overall goals, as part of strategic leadership, in terms of what the business school aims to achieve;
- It involves human capital in terms of the competencies, capability, expertise, knowledge and skills of the business schools' staff, recruiting and retaining high-quality staff and managing and developing this capital;

- It involves social capital in terms of external relationships, including networks with alumni and advisory boards, linkages with industry and business and reputation management of the business school via rankings and accreditations;
- It comprises organisational capital in terms of the business school's culture, involving philosophy, core values and the environment that influence and support the way the business school operates;
- It includes intellectual capital in terms of the development of creativity and innovation as well as maintaining high-quality output, in both teaching and research;
- It comprises financial resources from various income streams;
- It involves strategies and tactics that increase income and financial support; and
- It involves fundraising from donations and securing research grants from the public and private sectors.

This thesis argues that leadership for UK business schools' financial sustainability and competitiveness could be achieved through the management and development of these components. Moreover, the model in Figure 20 provides a template for leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness. This would involve leadership enhancing the effectiveness of other components in the model, which could strengthen their institutions' competitiveness and performance at the global level. When business schools perform well at the global level, it is likely that they will do well in the international market, which could generate significant income. In this way, using the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness in UK business schools has the potential to help leaders and managers achieve competitiveness and financial sustainability for their schools.

Contributions to Literature

Leadership Literature

This study was influenced by Hitt et al. (2007) from the business context and by Davies (2006) and Davies and Davies (2004, 2006) from the education context. Later, the focus narrowed down to the strategic leadership literature in the higher education context, which was influenced by Hamidi (2009), and then more specifically on strategic leadership literature in the business school context, which was heavily influenced by Fragueiro (2007) and Fragueiro and Thomas (2011). The contribution that this study makes to the works of Fragueiro and Thomas (2011), Hitt et al. (2007) and Hamidi (2009) is the integration of practices across UK business schools in a model to facilitate business school leaders, managers and researchers whose work relates to strategy, leadership and management of UK business schools.

Previously, there was limited discussion of the distributed leadership literature in the business school context, which is the underlying theory for this study. Most of the discussion of distributed leadership in higher education was set in the context of universities in general (Bargh et al., 2000; Bolden et al., 2008; Macfarlane, 2011; Middlehurst, 1993). This study of UK business schools found that the data from ten out of 19 participants discussing the leadership topic in this study suggest a preference for distributed leadership and that they may have used – or intended to use – distributed leadership in their institutions. In addition, this study shows consistency between participants' perceptions and some of Macfarlane's (2011) attributes of distributed leadership to professors: providing mentorship to less experienced colleagues and nurturing their potential, being intellectually active and acquiring resources as well as research grants. Therefore, this study adds the perspectives of UK business school leaders/managers to debates about distributed leadership in universities.

However, this thesis argues that business school leaders/managers should have their own individual style of leadership, developed from their experiences and skills,

which, in turn, shape their character and style. Additionally, this study suggests that there should be rotation of unit (department or faculty) leaders/managers in order for them to learn about the strengths and weaknesses of their business schools, from various perspectives, so as to inform their decisions about areas where they can improve.

While previous research argued that strategic leadership, and its potential to influence success from building and executing strategic agendas, this study suggests that leadership in UK business schools could benefit from the components of the model to develop leadership for financial sustainability and competitiveness. Moreover, this thesis also argues that income sources could act as the main generator that feeds energy (financial resources) for other forms of capital to grow, while other components in the model could enhance one another to facilitate financial sustainability and competitiveness in UK business schools.

This Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness is not intended as a model for other business schools to imitate. It is not claimed that this is the only way for business schools to succeed at the international level. Rather, this model suggests that the virtuous circle of financial sustainability and competitiveness could be achieved through the utilisation of these components in the model, via the links suggested by the participants. How each component is exploited will depend on the context of each school. However, the likelihood of the model promoting and maintaining competitiveness and financial sustainability in business schools is suggested by its components being identified by business school leaders/managers in this study. These are the components that they found helped them through challenging times.

Therefore, this study and the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness offer a new perspective on how business schools can survive in difficult times with a sustainable source of power – which in this study was competitiveness – that may be achieved by integrating leadership components. Most importantly, this study does not merely put all the best practices together in one

model; its main contribution is identifying links between these components. In this sense, it extends previous work on best leadership practice in UK business schools.

Academics as Leaders Literature

Goodall (2009) proposed that universities can be better led by highly-cited scholars than by business people. She argues that scholars understand the nature and culture of a university and set an example for younger academics.

However, the backgrounds of participants in this study represent a mixture of academics with business experience and those without (see Table 10). From the data, academics with business experience were likely to conceptualise management and leadership of business schools differently from those without business experience. The former were likely to see business schools as enterprises, while the latter saw academic culture as different from business. Academics with business experience were likely to have a better understanding of complex marketing problems than academics with no business experience. Participants' with business backgrounds had different perspectives from those with no business experience. This could be particularly important during an economic crisis, or when institutions face other financial challenges or in settings where there is intense competition, as has been the case for business schools for some time. Furthermore, this thesis argues that academics with business backgrounds could bring useful connections and networks in industry, which could facilitate the operations of business schools in many ways, such as fundraising, introducing benefactors to institutions and/or with appointments to business schools' advisory boards.

Moreover, academics with business experience in this study seemed to be more willing to embrace business practices in their business schools, while those without business experience might be more reluctant to experiment in business practice. For instance, Daniel, who had a business background, defined strategic leadership as partly involving distributing resources strategically to improve competences and processes in order to differentiate his institution from its competitors. This conveys a

business perspective on business school leadership and suggests a willingness to use business practice in business schools.

On the other hand, Emma, who had no business background, hesitated to accept the concept of strategic leadership in her unit, because she was not convinced by the concept and felt that it was not suitable for her style of work in her unit. This suggests that academics without business experience may be reluctant to adopt business practices in their institutions. However, this is not to claim that all academics without business experience are reluctant to use business practices. Instead, it indicates that some – not all – of these academics may stick to their conceptions of academic culture. Many more academics with no business experience may be more inclined to experiment with business practices, as was the case for Professor Howard Thomas, a highly-cited and lifetime scholar, who is very open to adopting business practices in business education.

Therefore, this thesis argues that UK business school leaders need not be highly-cited scholars but could be selected from either the body of academics with business backgrounds or those without. This study suggests that academics with business backgrounds could be as effective business school leaders as highly-cited academics, as evidenced by some participants in senior management level who had led their institutions to the top 100 of FT rankings (see Table 10). Academics with business backgrounds comprised five out of seven senior managers in this study.

Sharing Vision in Universities Literature

Participants in this study agreed on the importance of having a shared vision, and that the shared vision to be clearly articulated and made understandable to all, to ensure consistency within schools. Although the analysis of the shared vision topic in this study is consistent with literature showing that it is a crucial component of leadership in universities (Bargh et al., 2000; Hamidi, 2009; Hitt et al., 2007), the literature lacked discussion of how shared vision may be created and how colleagues may be persuaded to accept shared vision.

This thesis argues that although vision setting and articulation were perceived by participants as tasks for business school leaders, engaging people in the process could increase the likelihood of people accepting and taking that vision as their own. One participant suggested that engaging colleagues in the process of creating and executing shared vision could be valuable. This is also a further indication of a preference for distributed leadership.

Furthermore, this thesis argues that the particular culture of each business school is important in terms of how business school leaders/managers may deal with their colleagues. The study argues that the ability and experience of leaders/managers, as well as their understanding of their institutions' culture, could contribute to acceptance of an institution's shared vision.

Contribution to Practice

While D'Alessio and Avolio's (2011) argue that business school Deans need to be creative, particularly with the expansion of their institutions' operations into new markets, they do not explain how business schools could do this. By contrast, this thesis identified strategies and practices that had been employed and valued by the participants as having brought positive outcomes to their business schools, but were not previously suggested in research. This thesis therefore offers suggestions regarding these strategies and practices that participants claimed had benefited – or would benefit – their institutions.

This study explored highly-ranked UK business school leaders' perspectives on what they perceived as worthwhile and effective actions they had taken that had helped their institutions achieve what they did. This model could provide direction for new business schools. Amongst strategies that participants claimed worked for their business schools, internationalisation was seen as the most significant.

Internationalisation strategy in the participants' context seemed to involve outgoing strategy rather than the incoming one. Outgoing internationalisation strategy

describes the strategy that involves a business school's operation abroad. By contrast, incoming internationalisation strategy describes the strategy that focuses on bringing students to study at the main campus of the business school.

Participants' outgoing internationalisation strategies were largely similar, in terms of forming partnerships with overseas institutions for joint degrees or opening branch campuses. Although these methods of internationalisation were widely adopted among UK business schools, their strategic decisions on where to invest and whom to partner with were made on the basis of the strategic positioning of each school. For example, one participating business school chose to invest only in emerging and not-fully-tapped markets, while another merely followed what seemed to be a secure market. The latter could pose the problem of, as one participant put it, an "over-supplied" market, from which his business school decided to pull out.

Another widely-adopted strategy to increase the income of participants' business schools was to exchange their intellectual capital in terms of their innovative research or business ideas with industry. Most participants agreed that this strategy would yield favourable results, in terms of raising funds, grants and financial support for their schools. This strategy often took the form of knowledge transfer schemes or consultancy projects, where business schools engaged with industry to provide innovative knowledge in exchange for industry support in the form of research grants, a deal for specialised corporate courses, and/or collaboration in research.

Additionally, most participants in this study stressed the importance of knowing their institution's strategic position when setting strategy. A few participants emphasised that a good strategy needs to be specific to the institution, difficult to imitate and suited to the institution's context. Although these schools' strategies looked very similar, and in some respects were the same, there was a difference in the specifics: for example, in terms of the school's knowledge and expertise that attract students and the tactics each school used to raise funds and form partnerships, which reflected the institution's positioning.

Implications

The analysis suggested that leadership could integrate the components in the model in Figure 20 in order to achieve business schools' competitiveness and maintain their financial sustainability. As discussions of the financial aspect has been the subject of limited discussion in the literature on strategic leadership in the higher education and business school sectors, this result opens up a new prospect of building business schools' financial stability, particularly in times of funding cuts, intense competition and the challenge of differentiation.

This thesis proposes that UK business schools should establish institution-owned management companies like those of Harvard and Stanford in order to raise funds, manage donations and endowments and make sustainable investments for their institutions. In addition to institution-owned management companies, UK business schools could also establish institution-owned banks to manage student finances, provide loans and mortgages to raise revenue from interest and become a model of real-world business incorporated in business schools (in response to Bennis and O'Toole's [2005] criticism that business education professors have little real-world experience).

Moreover, this thesis proposes that UK business schools may benefit from an easily-accessible database in the form of a website or intranet to provide up-to-date information about the institutions' donations and investments to benefactors and provide a space where benefactors can enhance their networks and maintain strong relationships between benefactors and business schools.

These suggestions could be transferred to other universities or professional schools, particularly in the UK. If adapted to institutional contexts, these proposals could also be transferred to leadership and management of business schools in other countries that have encountered similar situations. Some Asian countries, like Singapore, have started hiring former Deans from European business schools to lead and manage their institutions. This suggests that there are possibilities of transferring the knowledge and experience acquired from the Western to the Eastern world, because

the market is now globalised, and some Asian business schools have flourished in the global market.

Implications for Thailand's Higher Education Institutions and Business Schools

It is increasingly the case that Asian Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are hiring academic staff from European HEIs, as in, for example, The University of Hong Kong, Singapore Management University and its Lee Kong Chian School of Business. This makes the case for the practicability and sharing knowledge between Western and Eastern contexts. Moreover, the example of Singapore Management University suggests an attempt to provide Western-quality education in the Eastern nation as the institution, which is modelled after Pennsylvania University's Wharton School of Business, recruits its faculty members from the world's top institutions and is internationally accredited (Singapore Management University, 2013). This example conveys the relevance of this UK study for other Asian business schools. As the business school sector in Thailand is at an early stage of development, this study could be useful for the future development of Thai business schools, as the Asian HE market becomes more globalised.

In Thailand's HE sector there is a mixture of public and private institutions. The Ministry of Education reported that in 2008 there were 78 public universities and 89 private HEIs in Thailand (Ministry of Education, 2008). Thailand's HE sector was, and still is, under the control of the Commission on Higher Education under the Ministry of Education. Only the public universities are discussed in this section because these universities more closely resemble those in the UK HE system.

Originally, Thai public universities were part of the Civil Service, and university staff were civil servants. Being part of the Civil Service limited academic freedom in Thai public universities, which is important for a university to function (Kirtikara, 2002). Bureaucratic control hindered Thai public universities in knowledge improvement, academic excellence and academic freedom, as well as limiting their

capacity to respond to the country's need for the social and economic development (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2008). Consequently, Thai public universities attempted to withdraw from the Civil Service, or "incorporation of public universities", as they called the process, to become "autonomous" universities (Kirtikara, 2002). This incorporation process was intended to shift control from government to each university's governing body (Institute of Public Policy Studies, 2007) in order to increase administrative flexibility and freedom from government bureaucracy (Lamubol, 2013). The incorporation process was applied to Thai public universities gradually, and the decision about whether or not to become autonomous was left to each university (Institute of Public Policy Studies, 2007).

The concept of autonomous universities stemmed from Thailand's economic crisis of 1999. In an effort to minimize public expenditure, public universities were encouraged by the government to be self-sufficient and self-administering (Institute of Public Policy Studies, 2007). The concept of autonomous universities was claimed to enable universities to be self-governing in terms of administration, bringing the management of personnel, finances, academic and other management systems under the authority of the university council (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2008).

The government's decision to "incorporate" Thai public universities as autonomous bodies provoked a series of protests from students, voicing similar concerns to UK students in 2010. The rationale for the student protests was as follows. Although the autonomous public universities would continue to receive government support, it would be in the form of annual block grants rather than the funding subsidies per student that Thai public universities usually received. This meant that the autonomous public universities would have to take more responsibility for their finances. Furthermore, at that time tuition fees in some of the public universities that had become autonomous had risen by 40% or more. These universities then began to increase student numbers and offer commercial programmes (Lamubol, 2013).

As in the UK, it was feared that raising tuition fees in Thai autonomous public universities would discourage disadvantaged students from attending university (Institute of Public Policy Studies, 2007). In an effort to increase the participation of disadvantaged students, student loans were provided by the Ministry of Finance (Thailand Higher Education Finance, 2010).

Thai autonomous public universities could learn from UK universities about how to fill the gap left by the loss of public funding. UK business schools, in particular, provided a good example of self-financing. This could be particularly significant for the Thai context because the business school sector in Thailand is still in an early stage of development. In Thailand only two business schools are accredited by international bodies. For Thai business schools to achieve their internationalisation goal, further research was needed to see if there were lessons Thai HE could learn from UK HE.

Implications for the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC)

The thesis is intended to be of interest to UK business schools preparing for the advent of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015.

The ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) consists of 10 member states: Thailand, Myanmar, Laos, Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, Cambodia and Brunei. The AEC aims for economic integration of the region in order to develop a single market and production base that will develop a competitive economic region, equal to other developed countries and fully integrated into the global economy. The AEC cooperation aims to introduce free movement of commodities, services, investments, skilled workforce and a better flow of capital for ASEAN member states (ASEAN, 2012).

The scope of AEC cooperation involves human resources development and capability building, recognition of professional qualifications, closer consultation on macroeconomic and financial policies, trade financing measures, enhanced

infrastructure and communications connectivity, development of electronic transactions through e-ASEAN, integration of industries across the region to promote regional sourcing and enhancement of private sector involvement in building the AEC (ASEAN, 2012).

The ASEAN market is larger than the European Union (EU). The ASEAN population was 600 million at the end of 2010 (ASEAN, 2011), compared with the EU population of around 501 million in the same year (Eurostat, 2012). As a result, the AEC presents potential opportunities for UK business schools to extend their business to ASEAN students who could access European-quality education in their own regions, without having to go through the trouble of applying for a UK visa, which has become increasingly difficult to obtain.

Furthermore, the free movement of skilled workers will enable the mobility of faculty members from different ASEAN countries to work in future partnerships that could develop between any UK business school and any ASEAN institution. Therefore, it could overcome the problem of setting up partnerships only in countries where citizens have a good command of English. For example, a UK business school could partner with an institution in Cambodia, which is an untapped market, without trouble finding English-language-proficient staff, because they could recruit other ASEAN nationals with a good command of English, e.g. from the Philippines or Singapore. In short, the AEC could dramatically increase opportunities for partnership and joint degree provision between UK and ASEAN institutions.

Moreover, the potential of investing in emerging markets like the AEC is recognised by the United States International Trade Commission (USITC), but less so in Europe (USITC, 2010). This has implications for UK business schools, in terms of marketing themselves both for students coming to study in the UK and students studying in their region. As the ASEAN market comprises a larger population than the EU, it presents opportunities for UK business schools for both exporting European-quality education to the region as well as attracting students to study in international-mixed environments in the UK. Unlike other Asian countries such as China and India, some

of the ASEAN member state markets are not fully tapped, providing UK business schools with plenty of opportunities, in terms of business education, both in their home countries and students studying abroad. Therefore, the earlier an institution can penetrate the market, the better its chances of establishing itself and gaining an advantage. Furthermore, in a developing region like the ASEAN, along with the developmental efforts of the AEC, it is very likely that high-quality business education would be necessary to improve the capability of the region's workforce.

In addition, it is suggested that UK business schools should not rely solely on giants like India and China, as these markets have become crowded. Rather, it would be forward-looking of UK business school leaders to seek opportunities in emerging markets like the ASEAN. Although its member states are small-scale nations, its marketing potential is significant. This is not to suggest that UK business schools should curtail their operations in those giant markets; rather, it is to suggest that the ASEAN, with the advent of AEC, could be an alternative market and a significant new income source for UK business schools.

Furthermore, UK business schools should have clear goals in this venture, in terms of how they want to position themselves or their partnerships. For example, the goal of partnership between a UK business school and an ASEAN institution could be defined as becoming a centre for executive education in the ASEAN, and the selection of collaborating partner would reflect that goal. Having a clear goal will guide how a business school identifies a target group, which will influence how they select a suitable location and partner institution, as well as how they position themselves in the market and market themselves to students. The development of the AEC presents opportunities for UK business schools in meeting the demand for trained and qualified managers to enhance the region's economic growth. Providing high-quality education in prospective students' home countries enables ASEAN managers to enrol in part-time education while working full-time, which would expand student numbers. Moreover, having a clear goal and positioning is likely to be crucial in establishing an institution's identity among students, so as to distinguish it when the marketplace becomes crowded in the future.

The Association of Asia-Pacific Business Schools (AAPBS) acts as a facilitator of networks and knowledge sharing within the Asia-Pacific region. According to the AAPBS, business education in the Asia-Pacific region faces challenges in curriculum development, shortage of qualified academics, multiple regulations across international borders and limited resources for growth (Brailsford & Yeung, 2010). Furthermore, they suggest that there are important differences between business schools in the Asia-Pacific region and those in Europe and North America: Asia-Pacific business schools are likely to coordinate more closely with their governments and engage more with their local communities. However, this study has shown that UK business schools have increased their engagement with local business, industry and communities.

Forming partnerships with the AAPBS could greatly benefit UK business schools in establishing them in the ASEAN region, through AAPBS networks, and it could help UK business schools to understand their differences in order for them to work effectively with ASEAN institutions. In addition to forming such partnerships, UK business schools could join forces with top business schools in other countries (e.g. USA, France, Switzerland, India, Spain, China) in order to increase the impact of partnerships with ASEAN institutions.

With the arrival of the AEC in 2015, it is highly likely that the ASEAN will need many highly qualified workers. This creates an important opportunity for UK business schools to make themselves visible as providers of high-quality business education for the region.

Limitations

Limitations of this research lie in the literature review and data collection and analysis. With the literature review, it appeared that the strategic leadership literature on the business school sector was relatively limited, with limited relevance to UK business schools. Therefore, it was a challenge to source leadership literature in other

fields, including business management and educational management, to develop an interdisciplinary knowledge base for this study.

With data collection, the challenge emerged from the researcher not being an insider among business school leaders/managers. This made it difficult to gain access to leaders/managers to collect information they considered commercially sensitive. An attempt to offset this difficulty was through a contact who was an insider of the UK business school sector by including the contact's endorsing statement in the introductory email sent to the potential participants. This method did succeed in facilitating access to these busy participants, but only to an extent. There were no participants at all from some of the business schools that were contacted: out of 16 business schools contacted for participation, there were four business schools where no one accepted the invitation. Furthermore, having, in some instances, only one or two participants from a business school produced limited data, which was insufficient for comparing data between Fragueiro and Thomas' (2011) business school models.

Although, it was stated in the participants' information sheet that the information they provided would be confidential, it is acknowledged that the information they provided was only what they selected to reveal on the day, and it was only from their perspectives. However, the purpose of the study was, in fact, to capture their perspectives.

When asked about commercially sensitive topics, participants avoided answering by either directing the researcher to look at information on their websites or declining to answer. This was understandable, because participants were aware that revealing commercially sensitive information could have a cost, in terms of their institutions' competitiveness. However, there were participants who did answer such questions, some with limited detail, and others who provided detailed information on parts of the strategy and management of their institutions. Therefore, the interview data provided different levels of detail. Nonetheless, the most in-depth information came from participants in senior management, who mostly opted for either face-to-face or

telephone interviews, which allowed them to discuss topics in greater depth than in an email interview.

Limited financial resources and limited time for travelling round the UK to do face-to-face interviews and for transcribing interviews meant that this study had to be conducted mainly by email, because it was low-cost and transcriptions were not required. However, email interviewing with busy people like these participants posed another challenge, as they tended to provide only brief answers in emails. Moreover, they tended to drop out after a few email exchanges, because they were too busy to do lengthy email interviews. Hence, most of the participating senior managers preferred face-to-face interviews. However, accommodating this preference was a way to ensure they would participate in this study.

Limitations in data analysis arose from the nature of data in the form of descriptions of events and experiences. Adopting the constructivist paradigm, this study explored participants' perspectives on strategic leadership in UK business schools, and so data analysis was about understanding how strategic leadership was experienced by the participants in their context. Participants' descriptions of their experiences could be problematic, in that they might only reveal information they wanted to make public. Furthermore, the constructivist paradigm could be considered problematic because the researcher analysed and interpreted the data from his perspective. However, to offset these limitations, data source triangulation was used, including other sources of information, multiple informants, reports and websites.

Personal Bias

As an international student with an Asian educational background, there was a risk of personal bias in carrying out this study, due to differences in educational structure and culture between Thailand and the UK. However, my UK Master's Degree assisted me in forming a basic understanding of the structure and culture of UK higher education. Further, my years of PhD study in the UK have extended this knowledge. A further attempt to lessen the impact of personal bias was made by

attending conferences and events on UK higher education and business school education.

Future Research

Although the contribution of this study is in the area of leadership for competitiveness and financial sustainability of UK business schools, it only looked at this from the perspectives of the leaders/managers in those UK business schools that were ranked in the top 100 of the FT Global MBA Rankings, which is a limited sample. Accordingly, the sample in this study included only some institutions for each type of institution identified by Fragueiro and Thomas (2011). Additionally, the issue of having few participants per business school, discussed in the limitation section, would need to be addressed in future research. Therefore, future research could investigate a wider sample so as to be able to compare data from different types of business school. It could also investigate whether the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness proposed in this study would produce similar or different results for other types of business school, either in the UK or elsewhere. However, for future research on business schools in countries other than the UK, it is suggested that cultural and structural differences will be important when using this model.

For the Thai HE context, this study and the model it proposes could be used to investigate Thai autonomous universities and particularly Thai business schools. Many Thai universities are now autonomous, which means that they depend less on government funds. This makes them more comparable to the UK model that was the subject of this study. In addition, it has been announced that the Thai government plans to cut higher education research funding. Hence, the application of this model could be a timely, beneficial intervention for Thai universities and business schools.

Furthermore, the future of business education in Thailand, with the impending free flow of services and skilled workers across the AEC, may make it more comparable to the EU context. This offers opportunities to use the model to research business

education in Thailand in its present developmental stage. This also provides room for new entrants in the market. Thai autonomous universities and business schools could learn from UK business schools about how to become self-financing and at the same time improve on quality in order to achieve financial sustainability and gain competitive advantage over peers in the ASEAN market. Likewise, this model could also be useful for an investigation of HEIs in other countries with similar contexts that are facing similar challenges.

In order to enhance the potential of putting this model to practical use, future research could study the example of Sasin Graduate Institute of Business Administration, a hybrid of Thai education and the international business school model. Future research could use mixed-method approaches to increase the credibility of the research. Moreover, where access to business school leaders/managers is feasible, case study research would provide more detail on the context.

Finally, the Model of Leadership for Financial Sustainability and Competitiveness may be applied to my future project in Thailand to assist Rajaprajanugroh Foundation, which has been established, with royal patronage, to provide education for disadvantaged students. The study and its model could be used in schools to improve their ability to become self-financing and achieve financial sustainability. However, more work is required to adapt the model for the context of schools for disadvantaged students, which will be the first consideration when applying the model to this project.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Invitation Email

Dear [name of potential participant],

I am writing to you in the full knowledge of and with support from Jonathan Slack, Chief Executive of the Association of Business Schools and hope that this will encourage you to consider the following request most seriously.

I would like to ask for your kind cooperation in my PhD research on Strategic Leadership in Business Schools in UK Higher Education, sponsored by the University of Strathclyde. I would like to invite you to participate in this study via email interview. Your valuable information will contribute to the pool of knowledge to improve the higher education landscape in Thailand, through the Rajaprajanugroh Foundation under the royal patronage of H.M. the King of Thailand. The Foundation has been established since 1962 from His Majesty's devotion to promote the welfare of people, with substantial efforts dedicated to provide accessible education to underprivileged children because His Majesty envisions that education will significantly improve their lives.

In efforts to providing students from disadvantaged background with higher level of education, I plan to pioneer a non-profit business school to assist the Foundation in promoting sustainable community for the poor and needy by equipping students with required knowledge to run business or work for a respectable company to earn sufficient income to support their family. The findings of this research, gained from your experiences and information, will be highly beneficial to the Foundation in improving higher education in Thailand. This research will also serve as the blueprint for this intended business school.

For more information about Rajaprajanugroh Foundation, please visit <http://www.mfa.go.th/royalweb/5-b-4-a.html>. To understand more about His Majesty's commitment in improving education for Thai children, please see visit <http://www.mfa.go.th/royalweb/5-e.html>.

I have also attached the participant information sheet and consent form for your further information about the research. I am very happy to discuss any further questions you would have. I look forward to hearing from you soon. Thank you very much.

Best regards,
Tatpol Vajarodaya

Appendix II: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

School of Education

Title of the study: Strategic Leadership in
Business Schools in UK Higher Education



Who am I and what am I doing?

My name is Tatpol Vajarodaya. I am a student from Thailand, now doing PhD research at the School of Education, University of Strathclyde in Glasgow.

My doctoral dissertation is about strategic leadership in UK business schools. I expect to develop a framework for successful strategic leadership in business schools, which I am hoping to create based on lessons learnt from successful business schools in the UK.

What is this research about?

The research examines the experiences and perception of leaders in business schools in the UK, how leaders/managers manage their institutions to meet their goals, maintain their quality and sustain their success. It will identify important components that are perceived by the leaders to have an influence on successful strategic leadership in UK business schools.

Why is this research important?

The need for this research arises from the changing context of the UK higher education. Business schools in the UK are in a very competitive market. Therefore, it is important to identify the key components of strategic leadership that could enhance success of UK business schools.

Apart from the applications to the UK higher education, the results from this research will also be adapted and applied to the context of Thailand's higher education and business schools.

Why should you take part?

The participation is entirely at your own discretion. However, your cooperation in this research can make a significant difference to higher education and business schools in the UK as well as in other countries.

What will you do in the project?

I will interview you via email correspondences. You will be asked to describe your school context, its culture and goals, your roles and responsibilities, discuss the experiences in managing the school and challenges. You will also be asked about how you manage staff and students.

Why have you been invited to take part?

You are invited to take part because you act as a strategic leader of a successful business school. You are knowledgeable about the activities in your school. Your experience will greatly contribute to the creation of a framework for strategic leadership in UK business schools, which, I hope, will add value to the field of educational leadership.

What happens to the information in the project?

Your participation in this study will be treated with highest confidentiality. To ensure anonymity, your name, the name of your institution and/or any information that can imply your identity or institution will be removed and remain undisclosed in all cases. Our email correspondences will not be accessible to anyone apart from my supervisor and me and will be destroyed once the study is completed.

What to do if you decide to participate?

If you decide to take part in this research, please reply to my email and we can start the interview. You are also asked to sign the consent form attached with this

information sheet to confirm your participation. You can withdraw participation at any time.

If you choose not to participate, I would like to thank you for your time and attention. I would also be grateful if you could recommend other participants in positions similar to yours.

What happens next?

You will receive the summary of research findings after this study is complete. The study is part of doctoral dissertation. The findings of this study will also be used for improvement of business education for students from disadvantaged background in Thailand.

Thank you for reading this information – please ask any questions if you are unsure about what is written here.

This investigation was granted ethical approval by the University of Strathclyde Ethics Committee.

If you have any questions/concerns, before, during or after the investigation, please contact myself as main researcher:

Tatpol Vajarodaya
School of Education
University of Strathclyde
E-mail: tatpol.vajarodaya@strath.ac.uk

Or my supervisor:

Dr Rowena Murray

Reader

School of Applied Social Sciences

University of Strathclyde

Telephone: +44 (0)141 950 3066 E-mail: r.e.g.murray@strath.ac.uk

Appendix III: Consent Form

Consent Form



School of Education

Title of study: Strategic Leadership in
Business Schools in UK Higher
Education

- I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above project and the researcher has answered any queries to my satisfaction.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time, without having to give a reason and without any consequences.
- I understand that I can withdraw my data from the study at any time.
- I understand that any information arisen in the investigation will remain confidential and no information that identifies me will be made publicly available.
- I consent to being a participant in the project

I (PRINT NAME)	Hereby agree to take part in the above project
Signature of Participant:	Date

Appendix IV: Acceptance Email

Business School A

1. Henry, Co-director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 23 January 2011 15:54

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

I am happy to discuss this Tatpol but am travelling quite a bit at the moment; am back from the [XXX] event in [XXX] the week of Jan 31st and we could fix a time to talk on the phone towards the end of that week.

Note: Done by telephone and then continued with face-to-face interview at later occasion

Business School B

2. James, (Unidentified)

Sent: 13 January 2011 08:54

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Tatpol

OK, so long as it does not require extensive time.

Note: Done by one reply via email interview but very short answers

Business School C

3. Edward, Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 15 January 2011 17:58

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol

Thank you for your email. I would be happy to participate in your research if the interview could be conducted via the phone, not by email.

Note: Done via telephone interview

4. Larry, Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 16 January 2011 15:48

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol

Thank you for your message, it would be helpful for me to know more details about the nature of the Email interview in terms of the kind of respondents you are looking for and the subjects covered.

From: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Sent: 18 January 2011 12:01

To: [Larry]

Dear [Larry],

I am looking for participants in the position of senior managers and middle managers in business schools in the UK. Your position seems to fit well with the criteria of my sample. The topics will cover your school's culture, your roles and responsibilities, your experience in managing the school/department and staff. You will get the summary report of the findings when the research completes, which could be useful for your school in the future.

From: [Larry]

Sent: 18 January 2011 12:33

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Hi Tatpol

That's fine, please send it through when its ready.

Note: Done by one reply via email interview but very short answers

Business School D

5. Thomas, Deputy Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 18 January 2011 08:25

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

I will be pleased to help with this if you send me your questions in writing.

Note: Email interview was almost finished with five replies but the respondent dropped out

Business School F

6. Benjamin, Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 17 January 2011 11:13

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Tatpol,

while I have no objection to participating, the person you should really be speaking to is [George] who is the Vice-Dean and Director of the International Division within the Business School - he is at a much senior level and has much experience in the area of business schools and offshore campuses.

Note: Email interview with two replies, then the respondent dropped out

7. Catherine, Dean (Senior Management Level)

Sent: 17 January 2011 12:46 (from the Dean's personal assistant)

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol

With regard to your undernoted email, [Catherine] would be free to have a brief meeting with you 3.00pm Tuesday 22nd February. I would be grateful if you could confirm this time is suitable.

Note: Done via face-to-face interview

8. George, Associate Dean and Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 18 January 2011 00:01

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

I would be happy to participate - perhaps you might interview in person [.....reason.....]. However, you might be better interviewing [Catherine] who is Dean of [Business School F].

Note: Done via face-to-face interview

Business School G

9. William, Head of Department (First-line Management Level)

Sent: 17 January 2011 15:26

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Hi -I am happy to be interviewed but "email interview" sounds too time consuming/cumbersome.

Note: Done via telephone interview

10. Charles, Dean of Graduate School (Senior Management Level)

Sent: 17 January 2011 20:29

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol (if I may)

Thank you for your email. I was the Chair of Board of Studies (Head of Department) of [Business School G] until March 2010. Can you clarify whether this excludes me from your study.

From: Tatpol Vajarodaya
Sent: 18 January 2011 18:33
To: [Charles]

Dear [Charles],
Yes, please call me Tatpol. I think you fit perfectly well with the criteria of my sample. You were a Head of Department and now you are a Dean. That's even better. You are the type of participant I am looking for. Could you please confirm that you have read the information sheet and consent to participate in my research? Thank you very much.

From: [Charles]
Sent: 18 January 2011 21:06
To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol
In some respects I prefer to be interviewed by phone or in person. I am not sure how long your email questionnaire will take. Can you send me a copy so that I can judge whether I am suitable.

Note: Done via telephone interview

Business School H

11. Daniel, Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 18 January 2011 08:27
To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Tatpol
Happy to help.

Note: Email interview with three replies, then the respondent dropped out

Business School I

12. Frank, Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 18 January 2011 10:54

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol

Thanks for this. I have a lot of commitments and am wary about agreeing to answer what sounds like a large body of questions that might require pages of detail that I do not have the time to do. I'd be happy to fill in a form if it is not too long, but I am afraid that I cannot commit to long email conversations.

From: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Sent: 18 January 2011 23:19

To: [Frank]

Dear [Frank],

I understand that you are very busy. However, I would be highly grateful if you could help me answer these six short questions, no more.

1. Could you please explain your roles and responsibilities within your department?
How could you apply your expertise to improve the Business School?
2. What would be your understanding of strategic leadership for business schools?
3. Could you please describe your experience of leadership and how do you apply it within your department and the Business School, both formally and informally?
4. Among the crises and changes facing UK higher education, how do you improve and add value to the department and the Business School?
5. How would you change the essence of the business education to respond to the global economic crisis?
6. How do you attract and retain the best scholars with strong leadership abilities to your Business School?

I would be very happy to discuss any questions you would have. Thank you very much for your time and kind cooperation.

From: [Frank]
Sent: 26 January 2011 08:49
To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol

I am sorry, but your questions are extremely open ended (and a little vague in places) and I don't have the time to write at the length sensible answers to these questions would require. But I'd be happy to give you an hour or so face-to-face if you were to come to [the city] some time, in which I could try to answer at least some of these questions. Let me know if this is of interest and, if so, when you might want to come.

From: Tatpol Vajarodaya
Sent: 21 April 2011 19:41
To: [Frank]

Dear [Frank],

I would like to confirm our interview appointment on 10 May at 12 noon. I'm going to book the ticket and the hotel soon. Please let me know if you are still available at that date and time. Could you please also confirm the place where you want me to meet you? Thank you very much.

From: [Frank]
Sent: 27 April 2011 11:23
To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Thanks Tatpol. Still fine. My room [XXX] at the Business School.

Note: Done via face-to-face interview

Business School J

13. Peter, (then) Acting Dean (Senior Management Level)

Sent: 19 January 2011 08:24

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol,

Yes, I am willing to do this.

Note: Email interview with two replies, then the respondent dropped out

Business School K

14. Phillip, (former) Dean (Senior Management Level)

Sent: 02 February 2011 11:26

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Mr Vajarodaya

I am pleased to hear from you. Your PhD is in an interesting and important area and I am very pleased to help. I will forward the consent form in another e-mail.

My preference is for a face to face interview. If you have the resources to travel down to [the city] I shall be pleased to see you there.

I attach to this e-mail a presentation I gave to the Deans and Directors of the EFMD last week which indicates a new research initiative you should know about. Perhaps you would like to get involved at the right time?

Let me know where and when you would like to interview me.

Note: Done, face-to-face

15. Samantha, Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 18 January 2011 13:36

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Happy to participate

Sent: 19 January 2011 05:33

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Tatpol

I would prefer to do these as a telephone interview. I can speak next Monday at 4pm on 01225 38 3108

Note: Done via telephone interview (on different date as stated in the above email).
The answers were short and there were many questions skipped.

Business School L

16. Sean, Head of Department (First-line Management Level)

Sent: 19 January 2011 16:33

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol

Thank you for this email. I am quite happy to participate but, as I will be out of my office for most of tomorrow and all of Friday, it will be next week before I can look at any other emails I receive from you if that is ok.

I wonder if you are aware that I am the Head of the Law School here in [University J] which is located inside the School of Management. I sit on the Senior Management Committee for the entire Faculty, but my detailed knowledge and expertise is in Law. This may be why you chose to write to me as [XXX] knows me and knows the position I hold -but if I am not what you want, please let me know!
No offence will be taken!

I look forward to hearing from you in due course

Note: Email interview with one reply, then the respondent dropped out

17. Emma, Director (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 19 January 2011 17:31

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

If I can help by being one of the participants in your study, then I would be very pleased to do so.

Note: Email interview completed

18. Angela, Dean (Senior Management Level)

Sent: 27 January 2011 09:50

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol,

I am happy to participate in your research but wonder why you have gone for the option of email correspondence rather than phone or personal interviews which I would prefer.

I attach the signed consent form

Note: Done via face-to-face interview

19. Neil, (former) Dean (Senior Management Level)

Sent: 15 February 2011 20:59

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Thank you for your enquiry. Given [XXX]'s endorsement I am more than happy to help you in your research. I look forward to hearing from you.

Note: Done via email interview

Business School M

20. Johnny, (former) Deputy Dean (Senior Management Level)

Sent: 10 February 2011 22:05

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

Dear Tatpol

I am prepared to reply to a few emails in connection with your research. But I should emphasise that I have had no managerial/leadership role in our business school since 2001, and this may weaken the representativeness of your target sample.

Note: Done via email interview

21. Albert, (former) Associate Dean (Middle Management Level)

Sent: 25 February 2011 18:07

To: Tatpol Vajarodaya

I apologise for my slow reply. As you will have seen from my out-of-office I have retired, and celebrated this with a long holiday. I would be happy to answer your questions by email, but I should warn you that, as of the beginning of January, I am no longer in a strategic leadership role in a business school.

Note: Done via one reply of email interview with short answers

Appendix V: Interview Protocol and Question Guide

Data Collection Plan

- Semi-structured interview via email, telephone or face-to-face depending on the participants' request
- On-going email interview correspondences with participants
- Make appointment for face-to-face and telephone interviews
- Face-to-face and telephone interviews were audio recorded to ensure accuracy
- Audio records were transcribed and then processed with NVivo8 software.
- The transcriptions of the interviews were sent back to participants for error checking, revision, and approval, to ensure the accurate understanding between the interviewer and interviewees.

Preparation Prior to Interviews

- Review documentations such as news articles, previous relevant studies, participants and their institution information on internet websites or publication.
- Prior to interview, a list of interview topics was provided to the interviewees.

Interview Question Guide

- Leadership
 - Participants' understanding and experience of strategic leadership
 - How participants applied leadership in their school
- Roles and responsibilities
 - Participants' roles and responsibilities, especially in relation to setting strategy, direction and goals
- Strategy
 - How participants developed different strategies for different market, whilst coherent with the overall strategies of the business school
 - How participants' institutions differentiated their brand and courses in the global market

- Past successful strategies as perceived by participants
- How participants' institutions created strategic alliances/partnership
- Research and teaching performance
 - How participants maintained the quality of teaching and research
 - How participants designed and developed new curricula and courses or improved existing programmes
 - How participants maintained or improved the position in rankings
 - The participants' perceived competitive advantages of their business school
- Resource management
 - How to manage limited resources effectively and efficiently?
 - Human capital:
 - How participants' institutions recruited/persuaded quality people to work with their business school
 - How participants retained the high-performing people, apart from monetary reward and promotion
 - How participants motivated people to be creative with their work
 - How participants enhanced their staff's performance to reach their potential
 - Organisational capital:
 - The culture of participant's business school from their perspectives
 - Effect of the culture on the style of leadership as perceived by participants
 - How participants' institutions provided supportive environment for academic staff
 - Funding / financial capital
 - Source of the main funding of participants' institutions
 - Participants' perceived effects from funding cuts and visa restriction on international students

- Participants' institutions alternative means of funding, to compensate for the abovementioned effects
 - How participants raised funds to support their business school
 - External social capital
 - How participants built and maintained productive relationships between academics, businesses and community and other key stakeholders
 - How participants built corporate connection and industry linkages with businesses
 - How participants built connection with and made the most use of the advisory boards
 - Lean management
 - Has the participants' institutions utilised Lean management?
- Innovation
 - How participants encouraged innovation in the Business School
- Strategic direction
 - How participants planned to drive the business school in a new direction?
 - The business school's direction as perceived by participants to be moving forward in the next five years
- Strategic priority
 - The business school's strategic priority as perceived by participants for the next five years

Appendix VI: Examples of Interview Transcripts

Charles, Business School G

First interview (via telephone) on 14 February at 10:30am

Length: 38:23 minutes

Word count: 4,454

Interview started with brief exchanges of greetings and agreement of interviewing time.

Tatpol: Shall we start the first question. I would like to ask you about what are the mission and values of your Business School?

Charles: Well at the moment I think some of that is up for discussion in that we have had the Business School, you have to remember Tatpol that I have not been involved in managing the Business School for nearly one year now, and so from my point of view the mission, well the overall vision was to create a Business School, the leading Business School in Europe and certainly in the Top Five of Business Schools in the UK, that was the overall, and I suspect that has not changed that significantly. It was to create a department that was on a par with many of the other departments at [University G] in terms of their standing in their subjects.

Tatpol: How long do you think for your School to achieve this, within how many years?

Charles: So I think I can certainly say one of our specific aims was to become a Top 50 Business School in the Financial Times 100 MBA Rankings and we set that target probably four years ago and this year we are [number X]. So I think that the intention was to have a sort of five-year timeframe in which to achieve, at least becoming a Top 10 in the UK, and about sort of Top 50 in the Financial Times and to improve our ranking position in a range of rankings. So, for instance, in the National Student Survey in other rankings of MBA's and in rankings of undergraduate courses.

Tatpol: So can I ask you about the accreditation, which accreditation is the most trustworthy?

Charles: Which is the most important?

Tatpol: Yes and is more trustworthy than other accreditations, I mean, for example, like FT MBA Ranking that is the one you always like in the rankings, anything else for the ranking?

Charles: I think that the Financial Times ranking to some extent drives the overall reputation of the Business School, and I mean that both in terms of not simply the MBA but also other postgraduate courses. I also think it has an impact on undergraduate programmes as well, so from our point of view we always took the Financial Times ranking as perhaps the most important but we looked at all rankings and we tried to look at how we performed critically, how we performed, and what factors we had done well on and what factors we had done poorly on and where we got qualitative comments so the National Student Survey we would look at those and we would try to make changes to how we manage the School and the programmes so that we would improve. For example on the MBA, one of the changes that we made was that we developed a career and personal development programme because we felt that our students, you know we have international students on that programme and what we needed to do was to address employability issues in a range of countries and so prior to having that programme what happened was that students tended to use the service in the university or the career service in the Business School but that was very much geared to undergraduates. So we wanted to develop an aspect of the MBA and this is now moving into our other Masters programme which basically prepares people, they still have access to the other career support but this is a programme which is about developing your personal skills and getting you to think about your career and hopefully getting you into a better job and so employability was the key factor in some of the surveys and we didn't see students were ranking us low, lower than we would like anyway, so developing, and also we have internal processes where students give us feedback and using the external and internal we identified this as an issue. That is how we addressed it. In terms of rankings, we also, the Business School has AMBA, EQUIS and AACSB and I think having triple accreditation matters because very few schools have triple accreditation but also I think that those accreditations don't mean the same in every marketplace. So, from a student point of view, in America perhaps the AACSB really matters, from a student in Britain it might be AMBA and EQUIS. In Australasia it could be AACSB,

EQUIS, so having all three means that different markets use different accreditations to ascertain a quality of a Business School. So you have got to have all the necessary accreditations and you have got to be as high as you can in the tables and we struggled for a while but we basically, three years ago, we looked at our programmes and we completely changed the structure of the MBA and we changed it in a number of important respects and that has helped us improve our position. We didn't just do it because we wanted to improve the position, we felt that the programme was not fully delivering on what the students wanted and that was coming back in terms of the comments and our positioning in various rankings.

Tatpol: How would you develop appropriate strategy for different markets?

Charles: For different national markets, or different programme markets?

Tatpol: For national market or international market, you know to outperform other Business Schools, what kind of appropriate strategies?

Charles: Well I think one, well I think that there are a number of strategies that we adopted and one is the one I have just spoken about which is about trying to position yourself as a high quality Business School, in terms of what it means to be a high quality Business School in those market places. So if that means having certain accreditations then that is important. Another way we have done that is, for instance, having strategic relationships with certain universities or Business Schools, certain markets. So, for example, in China we have a strategic relationship with [XXX] and that is not in relation to MBA that is in relation to our DBA but just having that relationship and having Faculty travelling between the two institutions has had a very positive impact. We have been exploring a similar model in India, for example, so the other strategy is to use the relationships that the university has in different marketplaces, so you leverage the Business School's reputation and I think just having targeted advertising, attending recruitment fairs, building relationships with universities, all of that has helped.

Tatpol: That is great. Next question, please could you describe the scope of your roles and responsibilities?

Charles: My roles and responsibilities,

Tatpol: Yes please

Charles: Again Tatpol this would be in relation to the work that I used to do at the Business School, is that right,

Tatpol: Yes that is right,

Charles: Okay, I actually have a role description which I can pull up and talk you through, sorry I am just trying to find an email

Tatpol: Oh that is fine, because I could not hear you,

Charles: I am just trying to find an email, just bear with me. My role was called The Chair of the Board of Studies, now that is a very unusual title, but in essence that role was as Head of Department. So at [Business School G] we call our Heads of Departments, Heads of Board of Studies, and what you have to understand is that [Business School G] has a governance structure which is actually inscribed in Law, in an Act of Parliament, it is not a Law it is an Act of Parliament, so the Act of Parliament set up the university and at the same time set up how the university should be governed,

Tatpol: It is quite complicated, Professor. Can you show me the diagram of the organisational structure because I would like to catch you? Sometimes, I miss some points.

Charles: I can certainly send you an organisational structure

Tatpol: I would appreciate that very much

Charles: What I would say is that [University G] has 23 Boards of Studies, that is 23 departments, the Head of the Department, is called the Chair of Board of Studies, now I will tell you what a Chair of Board of Studies does, okay? They chair the meetings of the Board of Studies which is all the Faculty, and that meant sharing meetings of over 100 people in the Business School. They had responsibility for all matters affecting teaching and learning, they were responsible for promotion, they were responsible for staff/student consultative committees, they were responsible for collaborative relationships, they were responsible for quality assurance and quality enhancement, they were responsible for financial matters, they were responsible for the overall strategy and direction of the school. Does that answer your question?

Tatpol: Yes

Charles: So I think the Chair of Board of Studies in a Business School is not that different from a Chair of Board of Studies in the, sorry a Dean in a sense, I mean. It

is slightly more complicated at [Business School G], I mean [Business School G] is a bit like Oxford and Cambridge it probably has a governance structure that is fairly unique.

In essence I was Chair of Board of Studies, I have told you what I did, and the School basically had a senior management team, on the senior management team there were the Heads of Department, there was a Head of Economics, a Head of Finance, a Head of Management

Tatpol: 23 departments did you say?

Charles: So there is a Department of Economics, a Department of Finance, Accounting, a Department of Management, so there were Heads of those, there was myself, there was the Dean, he was not a Head of Department in essence he was responsible for resources and then there were the senior administrators, and there was also the Director of Research and I also represented Learning, so the Director of Education did not need to sit on that. Does that make sense?

Tatpol: I think it absolutely makes sense, it is very helpful for your explanation.

Charles: So we have the senior Management Team, I am Chair of Board of Studies, Heads of Departments, and then all academic decisions go through the Board of Studies. So all programme decisions, promotion decisions, research-led decisions, the RAE, everything would go through the Board of Studies, right, and then the Board of Studies reports to the University Senate, okay.

Tatpol: Thank you very much. Another question, could you describe the culture of your Business School?

Charles: I think the culture is, I think it is the sort of [University G] culture, not simply a Business School culture,

Tatpol: That is why I would like to know about the culture, it is unique.

Charles: The [University G] culture is built around the phrase “The [University G] Difference”, and the [University G] Difference is that when students join the university they join both the department and they join a college. It has colleges and departments. If you go to the website you will see that there are 16 colleges.

Tatpol: 16 colleges is for the whole university?

Charles: That is right, so then a student joins a college as well as a department, so the culture is basically a research-led culture in which everything we strive to do is of

the highest quality, whether it be research, whether it be teaching, whether it be the actual infrastructure of the university, whether it be the college experience, but at the same time it is about being personal and intimate, that is it is about not having huge numbers of students, it is about maintaining that rather traditional approach to university education, which is that the students get to know people and build relationships with departments and colleges that are very, very strong and last for many years. I think another aspect of our culture is that we are an old university and we have sort of values and an approach that is not quite, well we are just under 200 years old, and although the Business School is in a modern building much of the university is in old buildings and so there is a sort of heritage in terms of the estate, but also a heritage in terms of the fact that the university has been a seat of learning for, you know the third oldest university in England and so the way that this impacts on the students I think is that they are surrounded by a sense of history, whether you are in the Business School or whether you are in the English department, or Geography department, Physics or Chemistry or whatever it may be. So our culture is, as I say, built around being research-led, being high quality and trying to strive in whatever we do to being world class. So, we aim to attract the best students, we aim to attract the best staff and we try to position the university and departments as high up as we can in any league table or any evaluation of the quality of what we do.

Tatpol: In terms of leadership how does the culture affect your style of leadership?

Charles: Well just a couple of other aspects of the culture, which is to be very inclusive and consultative, right. The structure I have just described to you, so academics, departments make academic decisions, the Head of Department does not make those decisions, they are not executives, they are not Executive Deans or Executive Heads of Department, they basically have to consult with their department and the department can vote down if they wish, recommendation is taken at a Board of Studies. The university, it is a university that is very open to ideas, open to consultation, it is a very transparent university in the way it operates and so if you are going to be a successful Head of Department then you have to operate in a consultative, transparent way. Colleagues expect to have information on why decisions should be made in this way, why certain matters are being brought forward, why they have not been informed about something, you know, paperwork and the

insistence of a paper trail for a decision is open to anybody to read, so you have to be somebody who is willing to be open to colleagues, so have an open-door policy, anybody can talk to you at any time, be aware that people will be critical, because that is the kind of environment that we work in where people can openly raise criticisms, recognise the fact that anybody can come up with a good idea and support good ideas and understand that you ultimately are a servant of the Board of Studies, you know you are not above the decision making structures of the university. So at [Business School G] we do not have Executive Deans.

Tatpol: Is it flexible?

Charles: In other universities I think that Deans could possibly make decisions,

Tatpol: Only Dean and senior management team

Charles: But at [Business School G] that is not the case, the senior management can, well if you take something like workload planning, I introduced the workload planning model, I set up a workload planning liaison group, that had membership from all over the Business School at every level, we, as a group, put forward a workload planning model to the Board of Studies and the Board of Studies discussed it, made some amendments to it and then accepted it. Whereas in other Business Schools someone might have just issued the workload planning model.

Tatpol: Can I say like democracy?

Charles: Yes, it is like a Parliamentary system,

Tatpol: Oh right, you have influence from the Parliament, that is right?

Charles: Yes it is, so as Chair of Board of Studies I am not trying to, I am just trying to use this analogy to clarify things, it is like the House of Commons, you know, you have got your backbenchers and you have got your Executive and the Executive are accountable for the backbenchers and the backbenchers, and I should add that the Chair of Board of Studies is a position that is voted on,

Tatpol: You explain things very well, you set very good examples, I can understand easily

Charles: Well Faculty vote for the Head of Departments,

Tatpol: When you answer me the question you not only answer not just general your answers are very specific and very invaluable. I just ask you a question and you answer me like giving me the whole concept but the time is limited. How can I

interview you? Because I think you are a very valuable person but I don't know how I can finish my questions.

Charles: Well I would be very happy to talk to you on another occasion if you would like

Tatpol: Yes I would appreciate that very much because I try to ask one by one question because when you answer I cannot stop you because every word you told me is very important, I cannot skip any word.

Charles: That is very kind of you. I think that if you go to, I can send you – well there is a website on the mission, aims and values of the School, which I can send you, which talks about being research-led, obviously creating knowledge that has impact, having a collegial environment, the whole issue of being democratic and so forth, looking to recruit and develop staff of the highest quality, academic freedom, freedom of expression, all of those things I don't think will be too different from any universities, but what I was trying to get over to you what that there are some unique things at [University G] that I should just make you aware of.

Tatpol: That information is confidential?

Charles: No

Tatpol: Because if it was confidential I would not tell anybody, I would like to keep it secret.

Charles: If you go to the Business School website, if you click on the About Us, there is an About Us,

Tatpol: That information I would like to make it secondary data,

Charles: Then there is mission and aims,

Tatpol: That one is another one I would like to keep it, it is like I cannot transfer to primary research

Charles: Have you spoken to quite a few people?

Tatpol: Yes, because when I interview you, I get insights different from the website so that is why I would like to ask you. The time is almost finished. Do you want to go or you can continue?

Charles: I have got five minutes if you need to ask me anything else and then we can always arrange another time to carry on.

Tatpol: That is great, I have another question. In my study, strategic leadership is defined as leader/manager's ability to anticipate, maintain flexibility and empower staff to develop strategic change, like you said before. What would be your understanding of strategic leadership for Business Schools?

Charles: I don't think it would be hugely different from the quotation that you have just given me, what I would say is that what is absolutely critical in leading any organisation is establishing a very clear vision and mission for the organisation and so for instance understanding that what [Business School G] is about, it is about research-led and high quality, those terms provide a filter through which everything gets put, so our teaching, when we approve a programme, is that research-led? When we make an appointment, is that person research-led and of high quality? When we recruit students, will they prosper in a research-led environment and are they of high quality? So having an absolutely clear vision through which different decisions can be filtered, because that enables you to be consistent in terms of your decision making. I think being someone who clearly articulates that vision to people and also embodies that vision to some extent, I think that a critical, an area where I am very critical about leadership is that you have people who stay in their offices and they are not very visible and they don't actually articulate the vision, you end up getting strategic drift and people don't understand what the purpose of the organisation is and then you find that people are not making decisions that are consistent in terms of the vision and mission of the university and also the Business School. Then I think you used a very important work, which is "anticipate", and I absolutely felt that when I was leading the Business School part of my role was to anticipate what the market was doing, what other Business Schools were doing and what the university was doing and to make sure that the Business School was already addressing those issues before they became issues. So understanding what the future issues are going to be and aligning, or establishing, you know new programmes, new structures or new processes or just learning to address an issue before it comes up. Then I think fundamentally, why I said you need to embody and communicate the vision, because ultimately you want to get people to commit to working to that vision and enjoy working in that organisation and display that enjoyment and commitment to the

students and if you can get that then the students will have a fantastic experience and they will recommend you and they will probably do very well in their studies as well.

Tatpol: That is great. You mentioned about being research-led and high-quality, how do you ensure that the quality of teaching and research is maintained whilst being fiscally sustainable and outperform others as well? Because many Business Schools in the UK are also research-led and high teaching quality.

Charles: I think that you will find that the strategies of many top Business Schools are all different. I think what, just before I answer the other question, but I think what would differentiate [Business School G] would be that sort of historical legacy of location and sort of inter-disciplinary links, the physical environment, the sort of intimacy that I talked about, the college experience, all of those things are quite different to, say, Warwick for example, or Lancaster, or Imperial.

In terms of maintaining quality in research-led, well all programmes, we at [Business School G] have an annual review system for all of our programmes and as part of that annual review system we examine whether they are research-led, all colleagues have to provide a commentary on their teaching that reflects on how they are delivering research-led education, we also have peer review, where colleagues observe each other teaching. I get observed by other people and I observe other people and that ensures that we are delivering teaching to a high standard, we have module review panels, we have assessment application panels, we have university processes that are layered on top of our departmental processes in terms of ensuring the quality. We have all sorts of feedback from students, from surveys that are conducted by the university, from external rankings and surveys and so forth and all of this is telling us about whether or not we are achieving the quality that we wish to achieve. If we link it to the other processes which I just talked about, such as the internal review processes, then each year we have a day or two devoted, it is called Annual Review, where we, in effect, devote two days to reflecting on our teaching and developing our strategic priorities for the next year.

In terms of research it would be run through research committee, the research committee would – and the other link is the annual Staff Review, where somebody's research is reviewed and then they are given targets and the university strategy makes it absolutely clear that people have to write Three Star and Four Star articles

and so the Annual Staff Review is about which journal are you going to submit to, what books you are going to write, what research grants you are going to submit and then every year you are reviewed as to whether or not you have achieved those targets. In addition to that we have a number of processes that try to keep us on track for RAE and REF. Those are about tracking people's publications and the quality of publications and peer reading. Does that all make sense?

Tatpol: It absolutely makes sense. I'm wondering, you know, you mentioned about the module review panel research committee and annual staff review, I think this kind of criteria come from EQUIS accreditation

Charles: Well no, a lot of this comes from QAA. So we also have *enhanced-led* reviews in the university, five years *enhanced-led* reviews, we have research reviews, all our programmes, our annual review document itself gets read by the university and people ask us questions about it, so all of these processes are, in a sense, processes that we have established quite separate to the accreditation bodies. I think we are able to demonstrate to the accreditation bodies that we are a very reflective organisation.

Tatpol: It is quite a huge picture you know, it is very big. So how can I get that information like the QAA, is it confidential or?

Charles: The QAA isn't, I think the QAA and the university QAA report would be on the QAA website

Tatpol: How about EQUIS or AMBA accreditation,

Charles: Well you can have a look at their websites and they may or may not, I don't know if they make available their reports, for example.

Tatpol: I see that the website does not show the accreditation like the report of the EQUIS, how can I get this?

Charles: How can you get a copy of the EQUIS accreditation report, I don't know, obviously we have one internally but I personally do not have a copy of it but we do have one internally and you may wish to contact EQUIS and see what documentation you can get from them.

Tatpol: I get it from the website, the EQUIS website but that one is a general one, it is not specific on the Business School.

Charles: Right, well I think that you should write to EQUIS and ask if they give out their reports.

Tatpol: Oh maybe I can ask EQUIS to get some criteria like you mentioned before as well. That is great. No problem at all.

Charles: I have got to go now but if you want to talk to me again, I hope that was helpful,

The conversation continued with the topic of scheduling another appointment for the next telephone interview. The end of first telephone interview.

Second interview (via telephone) on 21 February at 9:30am

Length: 36:03 minutes

Word count: 3,890

Interview started with brief exchanges of greetings and agreement of interviewing time.

Tatpol: Shall we start and continue the questions? The question is about, how do you encourage strategic leadership in others?

Charles: Sorry, your question was how do you encourage leadership in others, is that right?

Tatpol: Yes, how do you encourage strategic leadership in others?

Charles: I mean how do I, how the Dean, how do you encourage leadership in others, is that what you are asking? Well I think one of the broad issues is that I have never viewed leadership it is a sort of held by *[unclear]* so running a Business School or running a unit department in the university, I think is very much a team effort and so the first thing is to identify who are the team and empower them and to ensure that they all understand their respective roles and that you agree to buy into the common vision of that particular organisation. So in terms of the Business School I would view people as being the *[unclear]* within the Business School, the senior academics running the department, the Programme Directors and a number of other administrators, so all of those people are part of a leadership team and I work actively to encourage them and also to empower them to take on their part of delivering the strategy.

Tatpol: Are the staff involved in setting the direction of the School as well?

Charles: So certainly the approach that I adopted was that I had a view that the School needed to go in a particular direction and I presented that to senior members of the School and we debated it and discussed it and we agreed a common spec of *principles* on that basis everybody bought into it and then we just divided up the different tasks and work plan and we had an action plan and we saw that we were moving forward as we planned. So in my post the strategy is very much to be inclusive, be consultative and to involve other people too, those who understand both the positives and the negatives that you can address people concerns. But consultation ultimately means that we have to agree.

Tatpol: Anything else? What are the qualities of strategic leadership for a premium Business School like yours, how do you manage the challenges in the competitive and changing environment?

Charles: Sorry could you repeat that, that is quite a long question, could you just say it again

Tatpol: What are the qualities of strategic leadership for a premium Business School like yours?

Charles: The qualities of

Tatpol: Yes strategic leadership

Charles: So are you asking specifically about the qualities that are in the strategy makers, is that what you are asking?

Tatpol: I mean what are the qualities of strategic leadership?

Charles: I am not sure that I understand the question I am afraid, are you asking me about the qualities of the people who are...

Tatpol: No I mean like the quality of the strategy, the leadership strategy for controlling the qualities for a premium Business School?

Charles: I take a pretty traditional approach probably which is a lot of people are motivated by a vision for the school, the quality of the strategy is to ensure the direction of the school and in the case of [Business School G], the direction of the school has to be commensurate with that of the university, and the university has an ambitious strategy so your strategy is the university's strategy.

Tatpol: You mean the Business School has to follow the university's strategy, do you have your own Business School strategy?

Charles: Certainly when I was the Chair of the Board of Studies, as I explained last time, we had a strategy yes. But I had to recognise, well I will give you an example. If you are working at [Business School G] the strategy is to make the university a Top Five university, so what that means Tatpol is that I have to lead the Business School in such a way that I contribute to that position of the university, that means if the Business School is ranked 15 on some league table that is not satisfactory. So what I am saying is that the vision and the mission have to be commensurate with the university strategy, and the university wish to position itself as being a leading *[unclear]* university, but at the same time it wishes to enhance its position significantly in the international higher education sector. So the Business School can contribute to that because it is extremely international and has more collaborative agreements than any other part of the university, and more experience of international students than any part of the university so the Business School can make a number of important contributions but at the same time the strategy has got to reflect the ambition of the university. I think in a Business School when you are offering a wide range of activities *[unclear]* business, we are what is called a full range Business School so that means that we offer undergraduate, postgraduate, that is postgraduate taught and postgraduate research, DBA and also Executive Education, you have got to make sure that there is a thread that ties all of that together because otherwise the Business School can become very unwieldy and difficult to manage because different parts of the school, say the undergraduate programme, may want to pull in a particular direction that conflicts with the full direction of the school.

Tatpol: How do you manage challenges under competitive and changing environment?

Charles: Sorry, how do I manage what?

Tatpol: Manage challenges under competitive and changing environment?

Charles: Right, what sort of challenges are you referring to there, Tatpol?

Tatpol: I mean now that they have the crisis and have changed the immigration rules for the international students. Maybe the amount of the international students is

going to decrease and according to the Browne Report as well they decrease the budget for the university and Business School, those are the challenges,

Charles: Okay, so the kind of challenges that we face as a Business School would be UK and international challenges and in the UK it would be the new fee arrangements that the Government is proposing, in terms of international matters it would obviously be accreditation, it would be the fact that every Business School I visit wants to do the same thing, which is to grow and improve and become international and of course there are issues to do with [*unclear*] and recruitment, increased competition and quite frankly I think that the way to address this is to position yourself so that you are at the upper end of, as I said when we last spoke, to position ourselves so that you are at the upper end of the Business School ranking and you perform consistently in those rankings that you project that through your reputation and that when the students come you actually deliver the high quality education and experience that the rankings suggest you have and that you are consistent about that. Ultimately what I would say Tatpol is that there are many schools that want to occupy the same competitive space and what you have got to do is understand those aspects of your school and university that make you unique, are attractive to students.

Tatpol: Please could you describe your distinctiveness of your Business School because as you said you want to be the Top Five Business School in the international Business School, can you describe about your Business School, can you describe the distinctiveness of your Business School?

Charles: Well it is Top Five in the UK and I think the idea is to be Top 20 in Europe and aim to be Top 50 in the world so that is the thinking to be Top Five in the UK, Top 20 in Europe and Top 50 in the world and that means that we have to position our programmes and all the accreditations and all the assessments in such a way that they lead you in a consistent direction.

Tatpol: Apart from ranking and accreditation anything else you want to outperform other Business Schools?

Charles: Apart from ranking, I mean ranking is not the be all and end all, ultimately my view is that if you can have Alumni to feel that they have had a tremendous and *encapsulated* educational experience, something that has led to a real change in them, and improvements in both their personal development and their career

development, then we will have done our job. I think an area that is increasingly important Tatpol is employability skills, and you asked earlier about the challenges we faced, well I think one of the challenges that the Business School faces and that the university will also face more generally is that there will be greater emphasis on employability skills, we have established programmes, well employability and crew development programmes within our individual programmes so that our students will hopefully get what they want.

Tatpol: I am interested in the employability skills because the next question is about employability. How does your school respond to students and their future employers' needs to attract students to your school?

Charles: Well firstly we have various forums in which we talk to employers about employability and what they want and that does not simply include UK employers that is also international employers, we are constantly trying to ascertain what employers want and what sort of skills they want and at the same time we are projecting our programmes and our students to key employers and invite any employers to the school, some will visit the school and students, we also attend many recruitment fairs and speak to employers that way, we have employers that we strategically identified employers and then get a representative to come and give a talk, to staff and students so that we can build up a relationship with them and at the same time we have a very comprehensive programme, on the *Business School Leading Edge programme*, which is similar to the MA and MSc where we are developing the employability skills of the students recognising that half our students are international students, therefore we have to prepare them for careers in their own country and being able to operate internationally.

Tatpol: Are you involved with the corporate and enterprise to help your students, for example to give the job for the student or to share the experience with your students?

Charles: Yes of course, we invite companies to come and give talks, it is a *part of* our teaching, there are representatives from companies giving talks on modules and some of our collaborative relationships mean that specific employers are linked to specific courses and contribute both to the development of those courses, both to the delivery of those courses and also to their evaluation.

Tatpol: That is great. Apart from the intangible assets, how about the corporate can help in the funding, they give the funding for Business Schools because maybe you have some of your students as Alumni, they are finished already and then they want to give the funding to [Business School G], do they offer funding?

Charles: Attracting corporate funding,

Tatpol: That is right, they offer corporate funding to help Business School or not?

Charles: Well the only corporate funding that we are successful at attracting are when companies pay for their students to come and do our courses, we don't have a huge amount of corporate funding in terms of supporting the Business School more generally.

Tatpol: Where does the main funding of your school come from?

Charles: Teaching fees

Tatpol: Teaching fees, particularly which course?

Charles: We have around, from memory, 2,800 students and they are split sort of, I cannot remember the precise figures but let's say just over 1,000 undergraduates and the rest are postgraduates so it is essentially the fee that is derived from undergraduate and postgraduate courses.

Tatpol: With the worst budget cuts being imposed in 2012 and Immigration Law on limiting the number of overseas students, do you have alternative means of funding in the future and what might that be?

Charles: Well the fact is, and the Government has yet to be clear about all these Immigration proposals, but if the Government were to, worst case scenario, limit the number of student visas quite dramatically in the UK it would affect not simply us but the whole of UK higher education. I think we are going to beat it in two ways. With the increase in undergraduate fees may result in students, in what are called *Home [unclear]* students not wishing to undertake postgraduate studies because they will leave with a large debt. At the same time our reliance upon overseas students means that we will have less of those because of visa cuts. So you are asking me if we have alternative strategy, well the fact is that we are capped in terms of our undergraduate numbers and at the moment it does not allow us to recruit more than a certain number, that's for *[unclear]*, it is the number of undergraduate students that the university gets and then the university divides those up across departments, so

fundamentally I have to say Tatpol I think those two affects if they are severe will have quite an impact on all Business School finances.

Tatpol: Can I ask you about the strategic priorities? What are the strategic priorities for your school in the next five years?

Charles: What are the strategic priorities, well I am not currently the leader of the Business School so I am waiting for the Dean of the School [*unclear*] his particular priorities.

Tatpol: Are you involved with the Lean management? Has your school utilised Lean management?

Charles: Sorry, say that again

Tatpol: I mean has your school utilised Lean management?

Charles: Well certainly in administration we have a role in Lean management programmes,

Tatpol: How do you reduce waste in your Business School?

Charles: Well we looked at every programme offered and asked ourselves the question, why was it structured in this way, was it structured in the best way to deliver the best student experience, were there ways of creating efficiencies across the offices, people work in a different way, right from how they communicated with students, staff to running programmes so that is how we sought to reduce, as you call it, waste. I would say that we try to operate in a more efficient, cleaner way and that cut out quite a bit of cost actually. So the financial position of the Business School improved quite significantly, we did not need the same administrative base, therefore the same cost we once carried.

Tatpol: As a Dean how do you build and maintain productive relationship between academics, businesses and community and other key stakeholders?

Charles: Well one way is that we have an Advisory Board and all those stakeholders are involved in that, I have in the past attended a great many events with those stakeholders, we invite them in, we go and visit them, we have a constant two-way communication and traffic between all of those routes.

Tatpol: What direction will your school move forward in, in the next five years?

Charles: Well I think it is going back to what I was saying earlier Tatpol, it is to sort of be Top Five and...

Tatpol: Okay. How do you drive your Business School in a new direction?

Charles: I think fundamentally it is about establishing and evaluating what you have done, critically reflecting on what you have done and recognising where you have weaknesses or perhaps have failed to deliver what you have promised and trying to understand why that was the case and then out of that developing a stronger analysis and a stronger structure that people buy into.

Tatpol: Would you mind specifying strategy you use, for example, what kind of strategy you apply to your school, do you have any specifics?

Charles: Well I will give you an example and you tell me if I understand you correctly.

our undergraduate programmes at both [XXX and YYY campuses], okay. We have an issue as to how we position our programme to separate campuses and that one campus is very mature, that is the one in [XXX], and one campus is developing and as a consequence there are not the range of facilities on the newer campus that there are at the older campus, although this is changing. We had to look at our programmes down at [YYY] and ask ourselves, were they of the same quality of the programmes at [XXX], if not, how could we make those programmes as high quality so that the students got a similar experience as possible, thus maintaining the academic integrity and quality of those programmes. So we did an analysis and we did some comparison analysis and we did competitor analysis and we did all of this and we concluded that the best thing to do for our programme down at [YYY] was to develop *four* year integrated Masters programmes, so we felt that the best, we ended up positioning our programmes at [YYY] slightly differently to our programmes in [XXX]. The first thing is to understand that you have a problem and the problem was that the students in [YYY] *were not* as happy as the students in [XXX], the second thing is to conduct an analysis to try to understand what the issues are and then to recognise that actually you cannot run identical programmes across the two campuses. So we made adjustments and so the programmes in [YYY] will be distinctive and as a consequence the experience will be different and we are not trying to replicate the [XXX] experience in [YYY], we will make that absolutely clear to the students.

Tatpol: I would like to mention about postgraduate, how about the campus in other countries, like in different market because you have the campus in the UK but do you want to launch the new campus in another country, do you have a new market?

Charles: [University G] will never launch a campus in another country,

Tatpol: Why will [University G] not do this?

Charles: Because [University G] does not see itself, [University G] is a very small university and that would stretch it beyond the resources that it has got. [University G] has only got 15,000 students in full, so the way that we would approach international matters is perhaps collaborative relationships and perhaps new facilities at campuses that are already built but we would not build our own campus.

Tatpol: How do you manage limited resources effectively and efficiently?

Charles: Well it is a pressure, it is a constant pressure and the university wants to use the resources in a sense but still the same, so it still wants efficiency, I think the key issue is to really focus down on what is important and don't do certain tasks that are viewed as less important. Identifying what is really, really critical and perhaps not doing things which are nice but not necessarily essential. To give you an example there are certain tasks that we might do in relation to managing students that are nice to do but have a marginal difference to their experience so we would cut back on that, but on employability we would probably put more resource in, so it is about choosing where to put the focus of your resources I think.

Tatpol: What activities has your school arranged with the staff, external organisations, alumni and other key stakeholders to build and maintain relationship with them?

Charles: Well we have an Alumni society and we have an Alumni team in the Business School and the university has an Alumni team, there is quite a bit of resource that goes into that.

Tatpol: The last question, do you think imagination is important for leading Business School?

Charles: Imagination

Tatpol: Yes

Charles: I think, thinking creatively and imaginatively is absolutely critical, absolutely. I think many people think in a very traditional, focused way and I am

very much taken by the resource-based strategy from the point of view of market positioning, my feeling is that ultimately you have got to understand the assets that you have that make a real difference and you have got to develop those and then you have got think about how you can leverage those assets or create new assets that will be of benefit to you.

Tatpol: How much does intellectual capital...

Charles: Being creative and innovative is very important and that is why going back to an earlier question you asked me about how you involve other people, I don't think this – the great ideas don't necessarily come from the Head of the Business School, I think the more inclusive you are and the more consultative you are, the more likely you are to come up with a great idea. Someone will suggest something that no-one else has thought about and you will think, yes, that is a really good idea, lets go with that.

Tatpol: How do you pull up that talent because they have the talent and they hide it, how can you see it and pull their talent to work with you, you know, it is very difficult to pull the talent?

Charles: I used to spend a lot of time just talking to people and walking around the Business School and finding out how they were and what they were thinking and did they have any ideas or comments on this or that matter and I used to chair meetings and then have formal discussions with people before and afterwards and most people in meetings come up with great ideas, I think it is a matter of being accessible and making sure that the people understand that if they come up with an idea that they can approach you with it.

Tatpol: And how much does intellectual capital influence success of strategic leadership?

Charles: I think ultimately, just going back to my strategic leadership which is very much team-based activity, it is the most inspiring aspect of the job and I felt that you had to keep meeting lots and lots of people and you had to keep the communication lines open throughout the school and be available and so I think that is the most critical for me, it is not creating a sense that you are the leader and everybody else is secondary, it is trying to create a much more participative form of leadership that

“leaders” and “followers” work together to move the school forward. Working in an atmosphere where people professionally want to be consulted.

Tatpol: Interesting, Professor. You have the valuable knowledge, incalculable, you give me a lot of ideas and you give me a lot of insight and the time is limited. If I have more time and have a chance to visit your Business School, I’m willing to do.

Charles: If you want to come and visit [this city] you would be very welcome, it was nice to talk to you again. If you have any follow up questions by email just contact me and I am more than happy to help.

End of telephone interview.

Henry, Business School A

First interview (via telephone) on 24 February 2011 at 11:00am

Length: 26:01 minutes

Word count: 2,688 (Total 8,491 words for one telephone and one face-to-face interview)

Interview started with brief exchanges of greetings and self-introduction.

Tatpol: Shall we start for the first question?

Henry: Yes, sure.

Tatpol: My scope is the strategy, direction and objective. First question, as your Business School is research-led, teaching and learning, how do you make sure that your school performs well, to keep number [X] in the world, in the REF?

Henry: How we make sure we perform on...

Tatpol: On the REF

Henry: On teaching and learning or teaching and research?

Tatpol: On both. Research, learning and teaching.

Henry: Right. Well the faculty at the [Business School A], I think there are 96, so just under 100, their performance is judged against a number of criteria, one of those is teaching, another is research and another is what is called group citizenship and the other is external visibility.

So on teaching, if you are a faculty member, the way that you are teaching is evaluated, the students evaluate every course that you teach, secondly, there is less

quantifiable but attention given to the degree to which you innovate teaching, develop new courses and so forth.

On research the key measure is the extent to which you are publishing in the top tier journals, and the School have its own list of top, what it calls, A Journals and the policy journal articles in the top tier A List journals in your area.

Tatpol: Right.

Henry: Group citizenship is being around, being part of a community, doing a list of jobs and so forth.

External visibility is doing corporate speaking, broader impact, acting as external examiner, that kind of thing.

Now you are not expected to perform outstandingly well at every four dimensions but you have to perform very well on teaching and research.

Tatpol: Yes, that's right. As you have been appointed Deputy Dean, Associate Dean, Dean of Executive Education, how do you decide and deal with new curricula and courses or improve existing programmes to attract students and gain competitive edge over your peers?

Henry: I have two or three comments. The first is there is a broad distinction between Degree and non-Degree courses, so if we just focus on Degree courses

Tatpol: Oh yes, Degree courses please

Henry: MBA and so forth. These courses are reviewed with a major programme review, typically on a five year basis, so to give you an example, right now there is a major review coming towards conclusion, it started in September/October of the full time MBA. This is about five years after the last review. So, as part of the strength of that, there is a Review Committee set up, internally, the Review Committee reviews every aspect of the programme, content, curricular design, feedback from students and those alumni and then there are external assessors, of whom there are three, and they come and spend two days at the School with the Review Committee and going through the recommendations and the debating and discussing the recommendations. That is the first thing.

Second thing is that, the School is also subject to the Qualifications Agency, I cannot remember the name of the exact Agency, and so that is also course development in the review.

And onto the third, for non Degree programmes, those programmes and the strategy for Executive Education is reviewed pretty much continuously so rather than on a five-yearly basis, the programme is reviewed, the portfolio is reviewed, quarterly started or discontinued, subject to market and so forth.

So the short answer to your question is that there are formal review mechanisms in place for the Degree programmes and fairly continuous review for Exec Ed.

Tatpol: Right. I learned that [Business School A] earns a lot of money from MBA and in the international MBA courses, what would you do about funding cut and new Immigration Law on limiting numbers of overseas students

Henry: Two comments. The first is the economic model of the School is very unusual compared to other Top 10 Schools in that the School has a very small endowment, at the moment, and therefore the fee income from degree-paying students, Degree students and Exec Ed accounts for a very high proportion. I think the grant from [XXX] is only worth about 5% of the total revenue. So it is an entity sustained by fee income for Degree students and Exec Ed.

The second thing is a not very helpful answer but the implications of the change in Immigration, both in terms of student placement, students staying in [this city] to, all over the UK, to work after they graduate, are sadly hiring, are still being worked through, so I cannot give you a definitive answer because it is still very much a work in progress. But it is clearly an issue of interest to the School because if Immigration is changed in the way that it has been proposed it has implications for the ease which graduating students can stay in the UK, and Faculty hiring from people outside the EU. If it is inside the EU it is not a problem. I learned that the Faculty Office is still working through the exact implications of Immigration and I suspect that Jonathan Slack has a thing he needs to do for add staff to Business Schools generally.

Tatpol: All right then. Next question, how would you raise funds to support the Business School? Do you plan to do like the US Business Schools, because you mention about the endowment?

Henry: Sorry would you mind repeating the question?

Tatpol: Oh sorry, okay. How would you raise funds to support the Business School?

Henry: How would I what to support the Business School?

Tatpol: Raise funding

Henry: Ah fundraising. It is increasingly important and the School has made a big investment in building a fundraising team, which is now called [XXX], so it is similar to US technology. They have invested very heavily in development of a case for support, what is called [XXX], and a range of things that people can support. So, there is a huge effort underway to significantly improve fundraising to raise more money, both to fund existing things, to fund new things and to create an endowment. If you take some US schools, I don't have the exact figure in front of me but a School like Stanford, let's say their revenue is £100 annually, you will find that 35-40% of the 100 comes from endowment, that is not true of [Business School A]. Over time the aim is to change the model slowly so we can have more income coming from endowment and fund raising and achieve a different kind of ballot.

Tatpol: How would you make people want to give their money to support education for the next generation?

Henry: I think there are two kinds of people, there are alumni and there are other donors. And I think the case for alumni is you have been very appreciative of the education, you have been very appreciative of [Business School A], it is very important to fund funds for future generation, so alumni donations are a very important part of the scheme, or US fundraising, and the School is developing a very clear case as to why it should support business education generally and [Business School A] in particular. But I have not been involved very recently in developing that case, I cannot show you the case it is of. The thing to bear in mind though is any case has to then be adapted and tailored to the needs and interests of a particular donor.

Tatpol: So you mean that the main source of research income and grants in Business School comes from endowment and fundraising, is that correct?

Henry: If you take the Top 10 Schools in the world, and you look at their accounts, you will see that particularly in the US the other top schools have most of their income, not most, a significant proportion of their income 25-40% I would say from endowment and fundraising. And that is not true of [Business School A].

Tatpol: I would like to ask about the... Apart from maintaining high academic standards and favourable academy culture across the school, what are your roles and responsibilities, especially in relation to setting strategy, direction and goals?

Henry: I think you are asking a question relating to the job that I was doing when I was the Deputy Dean, which I am not now doing, but I think the management structure of the school has not changed and historically the Deputy Dean was very much involved with the Dean in setting strategy for the school and direction, but the kind of structure in which the Dean, Sir Graham (pseudonym) has an Executive Committee and I think in broad terms the strategic direction of the school is determined initially by the Executive Committee and has to be endorsed by what is called the Management Board, the hierarchy is of the supreme decision making authority in the [Business School A], is called the Management Board, and that is made up of the Heads of each of the academic departments, and then the Heads of Executive and other major functions like finance, as the governing body. I think the role of the governing body is to challenge and to engage in the strategic direction of the school and not to substantiate it.

Tatpol: What part of your role do you find the most challenging?

Henry: I think again this goes back to the job that I was doing when I was the Deputy Dean, I think the real challenge was two things, one was to make sure that the School continued to generate a sufficient financial surplus from its operations to support its development, so looking after the financial health of the school was a key challenge. The second is in any Business School is to ensure that the Faculty and the staff, i.e. the non-Faculty staff, understand each other and work well together.

Getting value from the Faculty – staff and vice-versa I think was absolutely critical. So it is a partnership between Faculty and staff rather than simply led by the Faculty.

Tatpol: Right, okay. In your opinion what is the most interesting aspect of your role?

Henry: I think the most interesting one when I was doing the job was very much around setting the strategic direction of the School and working with the Dean in doing that.

Tatpol: Can you explain about setting the strategic direction for your Business School, could you give me an example?

Henry: I think the best example is we engage in an exercise which is really designed to answer the question, what could be the future, shape and size of the school. So, for example, what would be the range of programmes, the mix of programmes, how big would the programmes be, how many Faculty we would need, and as part of that to

work so that the school would be active outside the UK? For example, in [a UAE state] we would be in partnership with [a US Business School], in partnership with [an Asian Business School], so I think those would be the kind of, you know the most interesting I would say.

Tatpol: So you mean your Business School is a leader in opening offshore campuses, in partnership with the other Business Schools in the world?

Henry: I think it is quite careful, it does not do too many things, but I think it certainly used to have a lot of approaches to form partnerships but it had a very limited number of partnerships, starting with the one with [the US Business School] and doing the Global EMBA programme, that was extended to include [the Asian Business School]. So you form partnerships between [Business School A], [the US Business School] and [the Asian Business School]. Secondly, opening a programme in [the UAE state] which the school has done by itself rather than in partnership with any other institution. The [UAE state] Initiative is both Degree Executive and non-Degree out there. There is the Executive MBA and then some Exec Ed but that is a freestanding operation, just [Business School A].

Tatpol: Do you have any plans for new innovations in the near future?

Henry: Emm... I think there is but because I am not so involved I am not well positioned to answer that question because I am not doing the Deputy Dean job,

Tatpol: Oh right, okay then, I will have to ask you about the strategy. What the most ideal strategies to lead the Business School of the future would be like?

Henry: I am sorry, would you mind repeating the question?

Tatpol: Okay, no problem. What the most ideal strategies to lead the Business Schools of the future would be like?

Henry: The ideal strategies? Yeah, I think my answer to the question is that it is very important to have a strategy that is well adapted to the position of the School and not to try to imitate other schools. Strathclyde is going to have a particular positioning and not to simply try to copycat other schools and say we must be like so and so and so and so. I think the answer is a strategy and position that is authentic and specific to one's own situation.

Tatpol: How do you develop different strategies for different market, whilst at the same time coherent with the overall strategies of the Business School?

Henry: I think the overall strategy of the School sets the framework and parameters of what you are doing in each individual market or with each programme. So the test is what we are trying to do in a particular market consisted with and is complementary to the overall strategic framework.

Tatpol: How would you differentiate your Business School brand in the global market?

Henry: I think the key point of difference is [Business School A] is unique in that it has a very wide international mix of both students and Faculty. Secondly, it has the unique advantage of being in [this city], which is a truly global City, and thirdly, I think, it has a strong commitment to outstanding research but also to research that makes a difference in policy and practice. So I think the student mix and Faculty mix being very international, [the city] as a location and the commitment to academic research but also research that makes a difference, so those would be the three points of differentiation I would say.

Tatpol: Right, please give me the correct... Now most top Business School provide Executive Education programmes to generate income, build relationships and connections with businesses, how would you differentiate...

Henry: Would you mind repeating that question?

Tatpol: Please give me the correct one, now most top Business Schools provide Executive Education programmes to generate income, build relationship and connections with businesses, how would you differentiate the programme offered by your Business School from the others?

Henry: On Executive Education,

Tatpol: Yes, Executive Education Programmes.

Henry: I would say that primarily in terms of the quality of Faculty teaching. So you find in top Schools you find programmes that look sort of similar?

Tatpol: Yes definitely,

Henry: There are Senior Management Programmes, General Management Programmes, Middle Management or whatever, and I would say it is entirely on the quality of the Faculty.

Tatpol: All right, okay then. Erm...

Henry: Just can I interrupt, how are we doing in terms of your questions, because you may want to schedule a time to continue this conversation?

Tatpol: Yes, sir. Would you mind if maybe I could see you face to face, do you want me to make an appointment? Because I have other questions, but I try to select the best ones,

Henry: Exactly, I understand, but you are based in Glasgow, right,

Tatpol: Yes, I'm based in Glasgow

Henry: Are you coming to [the city] in the next few weeks?

Tatpol: I have to go back to my home country for next month and I will come back on the 15 April, so I can travel in to see you at [Business School A].

The conversation continued with the topic of scheduling another appointment for the next (face-to-face) interview. End of the first (telephone) interview.

Second interview (face-to-face) on 12 May at 2:00pm at Business School A

Length: 47:12 minutes

Word count: 5,803

Interview started with brief exchanges of greetings and trivial conversations.

Tatpol: First of all I would like to ask you about the leadership style?

Henry: Can you just give me a flavour about the Agenda and the questions, what are we going to talk about, leadership style?

Tatpol: Yes, leadership style. In your opinion what would be?

Henry: What are the other questions and other areas?

Tatpol: I think leadership is the first area and another one is strategy and direction. Another one, roles and responsibilities and research strategy and capital management, those are the four topics I would like to interview you today.

Henry: So on the leadership style, if I talk about [Business School A], rather than my own style, I think the style of leadership at [Business School A] is one which is best understood as being, in a sense, quite consultative so the Dean would consult with Faculty, based with the aim of building consensus and it is a style that has evolved over time and proven to be very successful and recognises the fact that in an academic institution like [Business School A] the key thing is to bring people along

with you and to win their support, and by people I mean both Faculty and staff, and therefore it is not appropriate to have a kind of rather top down, autocratic style, it is much consensus orientated and consultative. Therefore, on some areas it obviously takes time to build that consensus on major strategic decisions and choices.

Tatpol: Have you come across the problem when you deal with the researchers or academic people, because they have their own style? Is it difficult to...?

Henry: I think it is difficult for an outsider to come in and to do that, particularly an outsider who has not worked in a Business School context. So, there was a Dean here for a short period of time by the name of Luke (pseudonym), he had been the Managing Partner of [XXX firm], he did not stay here very long, the Dean who has just stepped down at INSEAD, Carter (pseudonym), came from PWC, and the Dean at IMD, I think he has left recently, he was a non-tenured Faculty member, I think at Harvard, I am not quite sure but you can check the detail. So to answer your question, it is hard for an outsider to come in, particularly from an unrelated background or quasi related professional services organisation and to understand what makes the organisation tick and to work effectively with the Faculty.

Tatpol: You said it was very difficult for the outsider,

Henry: It is more difficult.

Tatpol: All right okay, and how do you invite and persuade experts and top scholars, especially from abroad, to work with your Business School?

Henry: I think Faculty at the top level, attracted by the name and reputation of the School, but more important than that they are attracted by the Faculty who are already there in their subject area. So, for example, if you are a Finance Professor or a [unclear] Professor or whatever, coming to [Business School A] is really a function of your assessment about what is the quality of Faculty like who are already there. You may know them directly, you may know them by reputation, you may have some collaboration with them. The pool in which a Business School recruits at that level is quite small and therefore a lot will depend on the reputation (a) of the School and (b) of the Faculty in the particular area.

The second thing is I think you need to have critical mass because if you are trying to recruit a full time permanent member of Faculty, they want to come to an institution

where there are a number of other people in their discipline, rather than be one of three or four people in their discipline. So I think critical mass is very important.

Tatpol: Okay. Another one, could you please describe your experience of strategic leadership, how do you apply leadership when developing strategies and managing resources efficiently to achieve effective operation of your Business School, please could you give me some examples?

Henry: An example would be the decision to launch a new programme, a new Degree programme, it could be the one year Masters in Management Programme, it could be to do a Degree programme in [a UAE state], in particular an MBA programme, it could be to do a joint Executive MBA with [a US Business School] and these are all good examples of major, new strategic initiative taken in the last two years. I think in all cases the key again was to get Faculty to understand why we were doing it, how it made sense, not necessarily everyone says, yes this is a fantastic idea, but they need to understand why it is being done, what the drivers were, and why it made sense in terms of the School's overall development and it did not take the School off track into a different direction.

Tatpol: How do you build fruitful interaction between academia, business and society?

Henry: How do you do that?

Tatpol: Yes, how do you do that?

Henry: The School's statement of its overall purpose was and has been for the last few years, To be the Premier Global Business School, it has now evolved, it has not yet been announced, but it is going to be much more around the theme of having a profound impact on the way that business is done. That implies building a good link with both businesses and more generally the social context. The way in which the link with business is built is by..., we are very lucky being in [this city] so we have a number of large businesses on our doorstep, is by ensuring that the connections between individual Faculty members and business remains strong, that people who lead businesses are invited in to talk to the students. And at the programme level, one of the innovations that is being introduced is to expose MBA students to businesses in [this city], and that is going to happen in a more systematic way and it is going to happen next year. I think the change of the statement of purpose or mission from the

School places a premium on building these [*unclear*] links, there is no magic wand, it revolves around a number of different elements to do with Faculty linkages, guest speakers, governing body representation, students going out and meeting business leaders and seeing businesses in action.

Tatpol: Could you describe the organisation culture of your Business School, how does the culture affect your style of leadership?

Henry: I think it would be hard to say that [Business School A] has a single culture, because there are different cultures in different parts of the School, there is probably a culture around the Finance Group, the Economic Group, so there is a different kind of ethos, there may be a different ethos amongst staff to the extent there is a commonality across subject areas or disciplines and staff, I think it would be the culture that has a commitment to being excellent in everything we do, to providing a very good service, to doing great research, so I think the guiding principle would be that of excellence in all the School does. That would be the over-arching kind of cultural imperative. Secondly, the School has recently engaged in a project to do more work on its core values and this has been a workshop that has been running, instead of initiatives for the last 12 to 15 months, and the result of that workshop is now just being promulgated amongst staff, technical staff and Faculty and I've got over there... There is the Workshop Guide

Tatpol: May I see?

Henry: Yes, you can have a look. So a number of people have been involved, both Faculty, staff and, I don't know to what extent students have, with outside support and it is an attempt to define a set of core values, which are to do, as the radical theme implies, to do with greater collaboration, co-ordination, partnership across the School between Faculty and staff.

Tatpol: So I cannot see this information on the internet,

Henry: No, it is internal, and it has only just been, a lot of work has been done on development but it is now being rolled out.

Tatpol: How can I bring some of the knowledge, how can I analyse from something like this,

Henry: That I cannot give you a copy of, it is at a very early stage,

Tatpol: It is fine, I don't want to take it anyway, how can I build up the information, it is difficult, I can interview you instead,

Henry: I have not been involved in this project, I have not been involved in leading it but other people have.

Have you come across something similar at other Schools?

Tatpol: No, but it is very interesting. It looks like, I think it's EQUIS accreditation, some kind of thing or AMBA, it has some criteria matching with that criteria, but this is more profoundly.

Henry: The material in here is how you would run a workshop,

Tatpol: Oh the detail

Henry: So if you were running a workshop, this is how you would run a workshop.

Tatpol: Very interesting

Henry: And as you can see, these are the people involved, organisational behaviour, Personal Exec Ed, HR director, Degree programmes, so there are a number of people

Tatpol: Like inter-disciplines

Henry: Yeah, across the school

Tatpol: Interesting. You can have the brainstorming across the Faculty, and build some new idea from this workshop... Thank you

Henry: Not at all

Tatpol: The next one I am talking about, what are the qualities of the strategic leadership for a top Business School like yours?

Henry: I think the qualities you are looking for is a clarity of vision, clear sense of direction, which implies also being very clear about what the School is not going to be doing, a School like [Business School A] is in the lucky position and fortunate position of having lots of opportunities, so it is having a clear framework to say yes to some things and no to others, and a willingness to marry being decisive with being attentive to reservations and what people say, so listening carefully but also being quite decisive and quite clear about the direction in which we are going, having taken sounding and having got views from other people.

Tatpol: How do you manage the challenges under the competitive and changing environment?

Henry: I think the way you manage the challenges is by not for a second compromising on standards in terms of student intake, Faculty improvement, the demands placed on staff for their performance, and as I say the commitment to being excellent, at all time and in everything you do. Service provision, Faculty teaching, Faculty research, I think the way in which the school has historically managed to address challenges and also you made reference to the competitive challenging and that is where we competitively challenge if it is strongly felt.

Tatpol: How can you deal with the double hurdle, hurdle embedded in your *primus inter pares*, your status, your responsibility to exercise leadership where necessary?

Henry: What do you mean by double hurdle?

Tatpol: I mean hurdle is like more problems when something is a general problem and at the same time there is another problem coming again. It is very hard to deal with that and do you have any...

Henry: Well I think the way in which you deal with that, there is no formal way of dealing with that, I think the answer is just to keep very clear about what is important as a thing from what is urgent, because often what is urgent is not necessarily very important. Try to keep in sight at all times that clarity of vision and direction and not get swamped by things that come across one's table or arrive, they may be urgent but not important. Because a double hurdle often comes along when there is just an abundance of things, but they can too easily put you off track, send you off track.

Tatpol: Could you tell me something about why the Business School is [in this top position], right now?

Henry: I think the answer is two or three things. It did not happen overnight, it took a long time; there is a clear commitment to try to position the school as a top Business School; and thirdly the recognition that it had to be preeminent in every single aspect in terms of students, teaching, career services, how programmes are run, the Faculty, [*unclear*] research, how they are judged, how they are assessed, what their performance criteria are. So it is a combination of recognising that it is a long game and that all of the pieces of the jigsaw connect and you cannot be weak in any one particular area. So that is I think the answer.

Tatpol: What kind of accreditation you trust, apart from FT Ranking or anything else?

Henry: The EQUIS Accreditation is important, the Association of American Business Schools is important, AMBA is important,

Tatpol: What is the No 1 ranking or accreditation you have apart from, AMBA, EQUIS

Henry: The No 1 ranking is probably the Financial Times

Tatpol: The Financial Times is trusted for the Business School

Henry: And the way in which it is put together, the kind of rigour of it so I would say the FT ranking. On the MBA, the Executive MBA and on Exec Ed, the Exec Ed one has just come out, the Executive Education one, it was just published last week. The Financial Times one for Executive Education, have you read that?

Tatpol: No

Henry: You should read it,

Tatpol: Accreditation, right.

Henry: No, ranking.

Tatpol: Oh, okay. FT ranking and another one is – that

Henry: No the Financial Times ranks the MBA programme, the Executive Education programmes, Masters and Management programmes and Exec Ed, they publish different rankings. I think that would be the one that the School pays the most attention to.

Tatpol: All right, thank you. Could you please give me an example of the risks that your Business School would take, that other Business Schools would not

Henry: Risk?

Tatpol: Yes, risk. Because you are [at the top] right now and you have to set your standard, equally three years later. How can you be [at the top] all the time?

Henry: Well I think that is hard because everyone else is trying to move in that position, I think the great challenge the School faces relative to other people in the Top 10 ranking of the Financial Times will be finance, the School does not have a large Endowment and most of the competitors with whom it is compared have a very large endowment, which makes a significant contribution to operating expenditure. The School is now in the early stage of a fund raising campaign, a capital campaign, to raise money but that is going to take time. So I think that is probably the greatest challenge that the School faces are generating enough money.

Tatpol: Yes, I think that is very important as well. How would you raise funds to support the Business School?

Henry: I think you raise funds by having a very clear case as to why the Business School should be supported. Having a clear shopping list of things or menu of things that you are trying to raise money for, buildings, capital expansion, research centres, research institutes, faculty chairs and demonstrating to a potential donor or actual donor that the money is going to be well used, well looked after and consistently spent in a way that is consistent with their objectives, rather than just kind of squandered or wasted.

Tatpol: For that reason many people want to give their money to support education in [Business School A], do you have another criteria, another choice for how would you make the people want to give their money, apart from Alumni or stakeholders?

Henry: I think by demonstrating quite clearly the contribution that [Business School A] makes to the broader society and the role of a Business School in general and [Business School A] in particular and that is the key to making the case in terms of individual donors and corporate donors.

Tatpol: All right. How do you manage limited resources effectively and efficiently?

Henry: I think the way in which limited resources are managed is by being very careful that the School does not proliferate in terms of activities, that there are strong financial controls, there is a recognition that resources are restricted and not limitless and to instil in each individual a sense of responsibility for how the money is spent and how resources are used. So you have to be very careful.

Tatpol: Do you have some kind of Lean management or any tools?

Henry: Not formally, no

Tatpol: What about informally?

Henry: No we don't use informally. So formally it turns to your question about culture, just instilling a culture of individual personal responsibility and accountability

Tatpol: Depending on the Faculty

Henry: And themselves

Tatpol: Who is the centre of them, who is the leader, like the top hierarchy?

Henry: Of the faculty or school?

Tatpol: Yes, because everybody has a different style, a different culture, who can know every culture

Henry: Well I think the answer is ultimately the Dean,

Tatpol: So the Dean knows everything,

Henry: Basically the Chief Executive, yes,

Tatpol: How about you? You also know because you had experience to deal with several Deans, before come to the present Dean. What kind of experience?

Henry: I think a Dean who has had a good team around that person, a good team both in terms of Faculty, senior Faculty, good advice and people in senior staff positions, head of fund raising or [XXX], head of finance, head of estates, they are competent and a governing body that is fully aware of the challenge that the school faces and does a good job in supporting the Dean and at the same time challenging the Dean.

Tatpol: It is difficult to control, to find out, to recruit them to come to work with your business school

Henry: The School is not very large, it only has 96-98 Faculty, I cannot remember the current staff number but it is not a huge operation.

Tatpol: Every staff, or every academic staff is an expert, you are the one that build up the Business School like today. How can they recruit people like you, people who come here, apart from the high salaries, or...?

Henry: Well there are no high salaries because I think it is people having a shared view of what the School is about, because the Dean cannot handle all the recruitment, you have to trust senior people to get on and make good hiring decisions.

Tatpol: Reputation and connection is also important, anything else?

Henry: Reputation is important, connection and being seen as a very good place to work, well regarded by staff, well regarded by Faculty, creating a good atmosphere for productive work for both staff and Faculty.

Tatpol: What would you recommend if I would like to open a new Business School, no reputation, no connection, no anything, is it possible to build up the Business School like that?

Henry: Well a good example would be the Indian School of Business in Hyderabad, The China-Europe International Business School in Shanghai, they are good examples. I think the reason that they have been successful is a combination of clearly good timing, in the case of the Indian School of Business they did a very good job of drawing effectively on the Indian *JASPER* Of Business School academics around the world in Europe and the US and elsewhere. I think in the case of CEIBS in Shanghai they took time, 15 years or so since they were started, and recognising that they were going to be playing a long game and they need to be quite focussed in what they were going to be doing. The Indian School of Business was quite clear in its strategic positioning within India and not being, as it were, sent off track, not being buffeted around.

Tatpol: Interesting. I would like to do a case study for them because I read from your article,

Henry: The Business School's new sense of purpose, yes, I think if you are going to do some case studies the ones to look at would be The Indian School of Business in Hyderabad, the China-Europe International Business School in Shanghai and they also have an activity in Ghana, you might want to look at a different model which is the School in Moscow, and the SMT in Berlin. The School in Moscow is funded by corporations and I think it is having a tougher time because it is not quite clear what its positioning is and I do not know to what extent it has been successfully recruiting Faculty, I don't know about that.

Tatpol: How do you make the most use of the various advisory boards?

Henry: There are two principal sources of advice, there is the Governing Body, the Governing Body has clearly a role to ensure that the School is properly governed and it in turn has sub-committees, you know finance, audit committees and so forth, and the previous Dean but two, David (pseudonym), Head of Regional Advisory Boards and they have now been consolidated into a Global Advisory Board, a single Advisory Board and that meets in the summer and in between times the Dean and other members of the School can draw on members of that Board for advice and that is an international Board with people from all over the world, it gives perspective of what is happening in their country or their region. So again it is a combination of

semi-formal mechanisms, like the Advisory Boards, and informal contacts and talking to people who are members of those Boards.

Tatpol: On to the next question, how do you build the connection with them?

Henry: I think that you build the connection over time, some who are Alumni clearly already have a connection and the key is that the people who you are trying to build a connection with, by definition, have lots of other opportunities, and you just have to ensure that you create real value for them and do something that they appreciate, so you don't waste their time, you take their advice, you listen to their advice, you ask them good questions and you manage their time very effectively,

Tatpol: Interdependent

Henry: Yes, and keep them well apprised of what the School is doing but in the right level of detail.

Tatpol: Just for confirmation, we were talking about how to recruit the people and I would like to focus on apart from monetary rewards, supportive environment, excellent facilities and freedom, what else do you use to retain the best people like you?

Henry: I think that the key to retaining the best Faculty is the quality of the research environment and the teaching environment, the quality of the students that they teach, but crucially the quality of the research that they feel they can be doing, both on their own and with other people here, and with other people elsewhere. I think the key to recruiting and retaining good staff, over and above monetary payment and so forth, is to make sure that they have lots of scope to develop their careers, to move around the School and to do what they think is a value and to recognise the value of that activity.

Tatpol: How do you ensure that the quality of teaching and research is maintained while being fiscally sustainable?

Henry: I think you maintain the quality of teaching by recognising that teaching matters and it makes a difference, by having very, very good people in the staff support, in the programme in the Degree programme obviously. By mentoring younger Faculty, by ensuring that in the first phase of their time at [Business School A], younger Faculty do not have to do too many different preparations for different courses and they can get confidence in teaching, they can teach the same course over

a number of period of years. I think on research you maintain quality by not, as I said earlier, by not compromising at all on standards, by maintaining very high standards and making it clear that those are the standards the School aspires to, and being very consistent in your application of those standards.

Tatpol: I would like to talk about strategy and direction. How do you design and develop new curricula and courses or improve existing programmes to attract students and gain competitive edge over the peers?

Henry: I think there are two parts to that question, on the existing courses what we do is we have regular four or five year programme reviews, that is a complete review of the MBA programme, the Executive MBA programme and so forth, these tend to be very thorough reviews involving Faculty and staff and students. I think in terms of new programmes, so a good example would be the one year Masters in Management programme, being clear about how that fits the School's overall position, the strategic positioning and making sure you don't compromise on the quality.

How long will you be?

Tatpol: I will finish in half an hour

Henry: Half an hour may be too long as something has come up that I need to deal with. Do you think we can just focus on two or three of your final key questions?

Tatpol: Yes, sure. What are the strategies that make your Business School reach this competitive position?

Henry: Well I think you have asked that question before in terms of being consistent about what we are trying to do, recognising that every single piece has to connect together and then we had to be excellent on all dimensions on programme design, programme delivery, career services, how the School is run and crucially the Faculty quality and teaching research.

Tatpol: How do you develop different strategy for different market while at the same time coherent with the overall strategy of all Business Schools?

Henry: I think the strategy for different markets implies regional markets, different geographical markets and different segments in those markets. I think the School recognises that there are differences in different geographic markets but what is common to all of them is the commitment to and a desire for quality education. So I

don't think there is a huge variation in quality but the key to developing strategies for different markets is to listen carefully to what the market is telling you, to take good advice and to be very attentive to local market conditions, local market needs and not try to impose upon a particular market. You know if there is only one way to do things, that is the way to disaster.

Tatpol: How do you differentiate your Business School brand in global market, what makes your Business School in this top position?

Henry: I think the key part of differentiation, apart from quality which I have talked about a lot, is that the School is unique, not unique but it is very unusual in it being genuinely global in terms of global mix of Faculty, from all over the world, students from all over the world, case material, teaching material, research projects, they are genuinely global in their reach and outlook. I would say that is one of the defining distinguishing features of [Business School A] is global reach and orientation and that of course is in part a reflection of being based in [this city] too.

Tatpol: Very good strategy and location as well

Henry: Yes, the combination of being in [this city] which is a very global City and being strongly committed in all we do to having global dimension.

Tatpol: Now other top Business Schools also provide Executive Education Programme, how do you differentiate your Executive Education Programme from the others, not only Executive Education Programmes but others as well? I think that the Executive Education Programme is more benefit than other programmes

Henry: I think the way in which Executive Education Programmes, particularly open programmes, are distinguished from other Schools is that they are taught by core Faculty, they are targeting as is the MBA and other Degree programmes, top quality, top level individuals and the School is not in the Exec Ed in the market of huge volumes of mass market commodity programmes, so it is where the School can add real and distinctive value to its programme by virtue of the fact that we are teaching the programme.

Tatpol: What are the short term strategies and long term strategies of your Business School?

Henry: I think the short term strategy is to continue to perform well, to maintain its reputation and ranking and the long term strategy is to make the reality of the

positioning in terms of having a profound impact on the way that business is done. I don't think it is to proliferate activities or to proliferate partnerships, it is to remain very focused on the question of how do we have a profound impact.

I am going to break off shortly, so you are going to have to forgive me. One possibility is that I can continue at some date we can fix by telephone if there are other questions you want to talk about later, because as I say someone has just telephoned and I have got to deal with this, this has cropped up. So do you mind if we make a break there, would that be okay?

Tatpol: I think I have just another two or three questions then finished and if I have some more I can call you.

Henry: As I say if you do have some more you can telephone me

Tatpol: Thank you very much. How do you drive your Business School in a new direction?

Henry: I don't think that the Business School is going in a new direction,

Tatpol: Right now – no

Henry: I don't think so, I don't think we are in a position to comment sensibly on that question because we are not going in a new direction, either geographic direction, and by geographic direction, expansion in some area which we have at present, but we are not re-inventing the Business School and changing direction.

Tatpol: What is the strategic priority for your School in the next five years, what aspect of the School do you think will be different in five-year time?

Henry: I think as I said earlier a key strategic priority is to ensure that the School has the financial base that can enable it to basically maintain its position and do what it wants to do in terms of the future development, so if you had to say what is a key priority, that is the key priority. It is to strengthen the financial base of the School.

Tatpol: In your opinion what have the private sector businesses expected from business education from past to present?

Henry: Can you repeat the question?

Tatpol: In your opinion what have the private section businesses expected from business education from past to present?

Henry: I don't know if it is changed but I think what the private sector wants is they want skilled, knowledgeable, high quality individuals that are employable and that

make a real contribution to their organisation and they want Exec Ed that produces a tangible return on their investment, improves the way in which their businesses are run and their performance, so I don't think, they may have become more demanding but I don't think they have become, they have radically changed their demands.

Tatpol: Do you think imagination is important for leading Business School? How much does intellectual capital influence success of strategic leadership?

Henry: I think that the intellectual capital in [Business School A] is very, very important, as represented by both the Faculty and the staff, Faculty in terms of their knowledge and research and so forth. I think imagination is important because [Business School A] has historically been quite an entrepreneurial organisation and you don't want to stifle that entrepreneurial flame, and therefore I think maintaining a kind of openness to option and possibilities is very, very important and having the imagination to assess where they do or do not fit, what do you want to do for the School.

Tatpol: How do you encourage innovation within your Business School?

Henry: I think you encourage innovation in the Business School by supporting people who have come up with new ideas for doing things, particularly amongst the staff, by making it clear that the School is not cast on concrete but it has a clear strategic direction and clarity of purpose and within that framework the key to delivering that is going to be by encouraging people to be innovative and imaginative.

Can we make this the last question?

Tatpol: Yes, sure. Can you please give me... What is your role and responsibility?

Henry: Well my own role has changed because I am not the Deputy Dean now, I am Chairman of the Strategy and Entrepreneurship Group and also leading the Group of Faculty that are trying to make a reality of our Institute for Innovation and Entrepreneurship, so I don't have a role on the operational side of the School, it is more around building the Strategy and Entrepreneurship Group and making a success of the Institute for Innovation and Entrepreneurship.

Tatpol: Do you think that is the most challenging right now?

Henry: No that is what I am doing, that is how I am spending my time,

Tatpol: So you have the most challenging in your roles, what part?

Henry: I think making a success of the Institute for Innovation and Entrepreneurship and maintaining the Faculty improvement momentum.

Tatpol: All right, okay. Thank you very much indeed.

Henry: Pleasure. I hope that has been helpful.

Tatpol: Absolutely, more than helpful

Henry: Sorry to have to go

Tatpol: No you have given me a lot of time,

Henry: May I suggest if there are things that come to your mind afterwards you could send me an email and you could pick a time to talk through things.

Tatpol: So, do you prefer email interview or telephone interview?

Henry: Telephone interview not email. You can email me to fix a time.

Tatpol: Thank you very much.

End of interview.

Catherine, Business School F

Face-to-face interview on 22 February 2011 at 4:00pm at Business School F

Length: 44:59 minutes

Word count: 6,654

Interview started with brief exchanges of greetings and agreement of interviewing time.

Tatpol: May I start the first question? It talks about research strategy. As your Business School is research-led, how do you make sure that your school performs well in the REF?

Catherine: I think the key to having a good REF score is to pay attention to who you recruit to the staff. So your staff recruitment is important and making sure that people who are engaged at [Business School F] have a good research training, so they either have or they are completing a PhD, from a good school as well. When people come here they need to be properly supported so we have to give some probation requirements for young lecturers or new lecturers to allow them some time because the preparation of new classes is time consuming, developing the skills for the Higher Education Academy, which is a teaching qualification that new lecturers

have to complete, all of this is time consuming so you cannot give them too much teaching in the first three years because you need to create some space. You also need to make sure that the staff are well mentored by experienced researchers and you need to have a very clear communication of what the expectations are and I think those are the things that we need to do. So we need to:

- Recruit the best
- Support the best in time
- Support the best in terms of guidance with clear indications of what is expected.

Tatpol: Apart from the recruit and support, how do you motivate people to be creative with their research?

Catherine: How do we motivate them to be creative? Well, I think people are very clear that when you are working in a Business School like [Business School F] that we are looking for the students to have the best experience they can have from a teaching perspective. From what they are learning being at the cutting edge and we find that the requirement for that is motivating. To do that you have to do good research and good research is original research, it is bringing new perspectives, so I don't feel that there is a huge task in trying to motivate people to be creative, if people are coming to a school like [Business School F] they understand, and we make very clear to them, that the expectation is that they will do research and the best research that needs to be done, or can be done, is original research bringing new perspectives. So that is necessarily creative, so I don't find there are barriers to creativity in the new staff that we have or staff that have joined in the last five or ten years. There are some issues with legacy staff who were perhaps recruited in a previous timeframe when the need to be research active was not as important as it has become. Then you have to motivate staff and the way that you motivate staff is to work with them on seeing what the benefits are of contributing to an academic community, of publishing their work, of being cited, of being able to exchange ideas internationally with people in their own area. Those are the kind of incentivisations and motivations that we would use.

Tatpol: Do you have plans for selling research like Harvard Business Review?

Catherine: For selling the research?

Tatpol: Yes

Catherine: No, we don't have plans for that. I think not right now. I think as time goes on we need to have more of a presence on the internet about the knowledge that we produce but I don't think that we will sell the knowledge in terms of journal articles or paper download. On the other hand, academics are engaged in writing books, they are engaged in writing articles, there are always royalties and copyright issues to do with that, which brings in money for the individual academic as well, and also in a sense the knowledge that we build up we do sell in the form of programmes, Executive Education programmes, Masters programmes, MBA, so there is, if you like, a transition of the selling, but it is not a direct sell of a piece of writing that is commoditised in that way.

Tatpol: I tried to link another question with the programme to selling the programme because I learned that the most of funding is from [local] Funding Council

Catherine: Not for [Business School F].

Tatpol: And a lot of money comes from the MBA, the international MBA programme, is that right?

Catherine: Yes. So the MBA programme, the international MBA programme, also the other specialists Masters Programmes that we offer on campus are all sources of income to the school. The [local] Funding Council is not a major proportion of the income for this school.

Tatpol: What would you do about the funding cuts and the new Immigration Law on limiting student numbers, overseas students, what would be the next sustainable source of income for your Business School?

Catherine: Teaching offshore

Tatpol: Teaching, only teaching

Catherine: No offshore teaching

Tatpol: Oh offshore, sorry

Catherine: So we've just... This weekend we were opening our Indian operations and launching our Indian operations in [XXX], we also have nine other international centres.

Tatpol: Yes. How do you create strategic alliances with major European Business School, Indian Business School and also Business School in other countries?

Catherine: Okay. In European Business Schools we network, we go to conferences that are run by the European Foundation for Management Development, in the US we go to conferences run by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, which is also known as AACSB. I go to these, my Vice Deans go, Heads of Departments go to different meetings and we make connections with the schools that we want to connect with. So when we are trying to negotiate new partnerships we know in advance, we have looked at the criteria, how they are performing in different rankings, the level of accreditations that the other schools have, and we talk to them about joint programmes and working with them to provide our students with an international experience through exchanges or double Degrees, that is how we do that.

Tatpol: Your Business School is a leader in opening offshore campuses, is that right?

Catherine: Well there are other, I am not saying we are a leader. I mean other Business Schools also have offshore campuses, if you look at Heriot Watt it has a big offshore campus in Dubai, Nottingham University has offshore campuses in Malaysia and China and others again have them in Singapore, so if you look at *ESSEC* in France, they have a Singaporean branch as well, so we are amongst the leaders in that regard. Although we open small branches we have a small branch in [a UAE state] and in [another UAE state] and we also work in [another Middle East country], although obviously there are difficulties there are at the minute, it is not a full branch campus, we have a small administrative organisation in those countries but we teach out there, we send, we fly Faculty out to teach there. The same is the case, we partner with institutions in Singapore and Hong Kong and KL to work with them but the first fully fledged branch campus that we are opening is the Indian one.

Tatpol: How about China and other countries?

Catherine: No, in China we don't have a branch campus, we did have some operations in China but we pulled out of China because we did not have a partner of significance there and it was operationally very difficult so we took the strategic decision that we wanted to concentrate on the growth economy of India because we can also service India from the United Arab Emirates as well, and we thought that would be easier.

Tatpol: Right. And do you have any plan of new innovation in the near future?

Catherine: We innovate all the time, I mean in terms of how we present material to students, at the moment we are running a test between, we used to give our students different books and journals, so we are running a test on preference between hard copy or loading all the material on to a Kindle, or loading material on to an iPad, so we are looking at that. We are looking at how we can develop apps for iPhone and iPad and indeed for other smart phones that will allow them to access information. So we are innovating on the teaching technology all the time, our Management Development Programme, on the undergraduate programme, is one where the students are gaining skills experience in addition to the knowledge that they get in the various subjects of business where they focus on problem solving with real organisations throughout the 1st, 2nd and 3rd year, so whether a student is a student of Marketing or Management or HRM or Economics or Accounting Finance or Entrepreneurship, they come together through the Management Development Programme in a cross-functional way to learn about numeracy skills, presentation skills, team working skills, persuasion/negotiation, all of these business skills they learn in multi-disciplinary groups working with industry.

Tatpol: How about the talent skills, talent management, because some students and staff are hiding their talent, how can you pull their talent out?

Catherine: Well we talk about personal development, we talk about, in the Management Development Programme, how to be reflective, how to be an aware manager, aware of yourself, your good points, where you need to improve and that develops confidence and talent over three years in the undergraduate programme. And we have similar skills, focuses and individualised training for the Masters programmes as well.

Tatpol: Does your Business School adopt any new technology for communication between staff? Because you were talking about the students. And how about the staff members and senior managers?

Catherine: New technology, what do you have in mind?

Tatpol: Because it is like you use the Kindle, how do you communicate with the...

Catherine: Well, I communicate in three basic ways: face-to-face; on the telephone; and email

Tatpol: That's it? That is more efficient. No more?

Catherine: Yes, that is it and I try not to communicate through email I try to see people or talk to people

Tatpol: Seeing people that is the best

Catherine: But that is challenging with time management

Tatpol: Okay. How do you design and develop new curricular and courses or improve existing programmes to attract students?

Catherine: Well we have a devolved system at [Business School F] so a lot of the year on year course improvement is a small, incremental improvement and it happens at department level. So all departments have to take on board the views of students, the views of industry and they have to respond to criticisms in their incremental and continuous review programmes. So that is one set of cycles. In addition to that we are constantly reviewing the breadth of our offering and also the way in which we want to be positioned as a top Business School and that causes us then to review whole programmes, so we have just, for example, completed a massive review of all of our postgraduate taught programmes and we have benchmarked our programmes against four or five leading international Business Schools so that we know what they are doing, how it is different from what we are doing, where we think we can improve, where we think we are ahead of the game and that feeds into more course redevelopment and design as well. I also have two Advisory Boards, I have a Junior Advisory Board, which is made up of school kids and they give us their views on new technology and what they are looking for, what they think a Business School is about and what they would like a Business School to be about and we also have an Advisory Board of business people and people from the world of Policy Development, the [local] economy, the [local] enterprise and they also will give us information and they challenge us, I encourage them to challenge us, openly about the direction that we are going in.

Tatpol: How do you build connection with them?

Catherine: With whom? With the...

Tatpol: With the Advisory Board

Catherine: Well I have three Advisory Board meetings a year, and I keep them involved with information all the time so when we have a new ranking that has come

out I write to them and explain to them why we have done well, or if we have not done so well what has gone wrong. I also engage them on strategic questions at every Board Meeting so they were fully apprised of the development of the launch of the India programme, they were fully involved in all of that and I also feel quite free to pick up the phone, in their areas of expertise, and say, I have a problem with this would you give me some time thinking about it, and they do. They are very, very helpful.

Tatpol: As you are the intermediary between the University and the Business School, how do you make a smooth transition from the University goal to the Business School goal?

Catherine: That is straightforward; the University Strategic Plan is very similar to our own Strategic Plan. The University Strategic Plan was only launched last week and all the consultations that went on to bring the plan to fruition, at every stage in that it was very clear that the key priorities for the University are the same priorities for us, so there is not a need to bridge a gap because there really is not a gap. We have structured our plan slightly different so, for example, the University does not have as one of its primary goals, attention to reputation management, whereas I do in the Business School because Business Schools do have to manage their reputations very pro-actively so that is a primary area of activity for me. But that is just a question of emphasis; it is not a question of substance. So, in issues to do with research enhancement and excellence to do with knowledge exchange, the whole question of how we move forward in terms of teaching and learning, all of the University goals are in the same direction as our goals. So there is not a big need for translation.

Tatpol: I see for the strategic plan you dedicate to the creation of new knowledge, that is right, and to be a technological university. What would be your inspiration for your Business School to do that, could you please give me some examples?

Catherine: Okay, well one of the examples that we would have is that the University is obviously refocusing as being a technological university but it does define in the strategic plans not a technology but it talks about technologies in the plural so technologies are about hard technologies, it is about computing, it is about software, it is about power engineering, it is about all of these things but it is also about

mechanisms for managing, the technologies of managing, the technologies of strategising and thinking about how you take organisations forward. There is also the other sorts of technologies that are required in order to bring technical technologies to fruition, launching new products, so there are lots of ways in which the Business School can engage with the mission of an international technological university so, for example, we have an active cluster of researchers looking at innovation and technology management, we have another cluster of researchers who are looking at food and whilst food and drink is being driven in a technological sense by advancements and innovation in food and technology, we are looking at food and drink from a number of perspectives. One is the development of new products, there is also the management of the supply chain from a farmer through to a supermarket, and there are also the social consequences of consumption of different kinds of food and technologically processed food that we can be critical of. There is also from an HR perspective, Human Resources perspective, there is what in the food and drink industries, what are the best practices. I mean we can engage with these things easily. We also have researchers who are looking at health from a point of view of the health and safety and the health in terms of working conditions. Our HRM department would be interested in that perspective on health. People who are researching strategy and leadership can feed into the health agenda on strategy and leadership in the Health Services, other people, for example, that can have a view of health, we can look at the role of marketing in society and how the role of marketing may or may not encourage a healthy lifestyle to be adopted. So there is always a particular perspective on the big themes of the international technological university that we can work with, and we do. Energy is another one for example, the economics of energy and renewables. Okay?

Tatpol: I am very interested in the food and drink because my country has a lot of food and the university for doing the research of the food, would you mind linking your knowledge to my country, for my university to use the knowledge, to try to develop?

Catherine: So what kind of food research is carried out in the university?

Tatpol: Yes carried out in the university because it is the main strategy, the top strategy for the Thai food and the traditional authentic food as well

Catherine: So what are you asking me, sorry

Tatpol: We can exchange knowledge in the future, if you don't mind. You have strong point about food management.

Catherine: Sure

Tatpol: All right. Thank you. And how do you develop different strategy for different market whilst at the same time coherent with the overall strategy of the Business School?

Catherine: We are very clear now, we want to grow the quality of our programmes in the postgraduate arena, in the undergraduate arena we cannot grow any further apart from with international students but we cannot grow home students, we are not allowed to, okay, by the Government. So that is one thing.

Most of our growth comes from international programmes and what we are doing is we are working very closely with other Faculties, for example, Engineering, because they have links with Business Schools where students are coming from a school, say China, studying for two years in China and coming to the UK for two years to finish their Engineering Degree, and they get an Engineering Degree from [University F]. Sometimes, those universities also want to have that provision for Economics, Finance or Management, so we will partner with them as well and that is one strategy.

Another strategy in terms of postgraduate taught programmes is for us, we always look at a market for a particular Degree, we evaluate the market size for the particular Degree, we will try a new market and a new product in a new market but if it does not survive, if it does not succeed, we will take it out, we will come out of that because we cannot afford to run programmes in countries on particular topics that don't make a surplus, because we do not have lots and lots of resources to throw after things. So we do market research, we position the products as best we can, we will launch but we will quickly exit if it does not become a success fairly quickly.

Tatpol: Right. And how would you differentiate your Business School brand in the global market?

Catherine: Right. We tend not to go to... That is why we came out of China because it was very difficult to be differentiated and have a strong voice, there was so much activity there. So what we do is we go to places where others aren't and we get

embedded in there. So, for example, in [XXX] we are the only European Business School to have a licence to fully operate. This means that we don't have to go to the knowledge parks and compete with everybody. We are differentiated; we can set up wherever we want. With the choice of going to India we have actually partnered with a commercial organisation in India with a very distinctive proposition, we are not working with another Business School we are [Business School F] in [XXX], which is just outside [XXX]. So we position ourselves geographically in areas where the competition has not yet become very heavily established.

Tatpol: Very good sign. [XXX] trusts [your Business School]. It's interdependent. How do you select countries to go in, for example the [XXX] or [XXX]?

Catherine: Well we are looking at growth countries; we are looking at growth countries. I mean [XXX] was clearly a country whose economic growth was phenomenal. [XXX], in particular, 10 years ago, we have been there since 1995

Tatpol: You are the one, you can see the opportunity. How can you do that? Others can't see. It's only you.

Catherine: I don't think it is only us. It is because we are looking for opportunities to supplement Government funding. So we are looking for places where there is fast growth. I mean in India it is estimated that 30% of the population is a rising middle class and that there is a complete under-provision for students in India plus we can actually service India from the UAE, so it is not so far, and even if we only got 10% of the market, it is a massive market, so if you have everything right it will be difficult to fail in India. It is possible to fail, the partnership may not work out right so I think it is looking for opportunities and growth. Where is there economic growth and where is there a need for education.

Tatpol: From my interviews with your colleagues I know that your Business School is trying to be distinctive in the European context, to be a top flight European Business School, what is your plan and strategy to achieve that goal?

Catherine: Okay, that is a good question. Our strategy to achieve that goal is we want to maintain excellence and research and we continuously improve our educational offering but the two big areas we are developing are internationalisation, so links with other top quality Business Schools in Europe and in North America;

and the other one is a much greater presence in Executive Education, those are the two areas that will take us forward so it is:

- Internationalisation, and
- Greater Levels of Executive Education

Building the reputation in those fields and making sure that we are well known as an international school, the more you play in the international markets with other Business Schools the more you buzz marketing, have you heard of buzz marketing, so we will get more of a buzz out there in that we will be linked to other schools and our name gets known around more distinctively and myself and my senior colleagues are very well networked into the other Business Schools as well, and that is how we will do it.

Tatpol: For example George (pseudonym) or...

Catherine: George, Nathan, William (who has just left), Walter (pseudonyms) who is currently at [XXX] (another triple accredited Business School), all the Heads of Departments, them and their staff are all well linked as well so we need to bring all these in.

Tatpol: All right. Now most top schools provide Executive Education programmes to generate income, build relationship and connection with business, how would you differentiate the programme offered by your Business School from others?

Catherine: Okay. That is a good question as well and we are very clear on that. We only go for high value, high quality partners for whom we develop bespoke products, we are not going to do Executive Education by designing a programme and putting it on a website and selling it. We talk to the HR Managers, we talk about what they are looking for, we develop it for their needs, that is what we sell, we are selling our knowledge, our individualisation, our customisation to their requirements. We are also selling the idea that we want to be able to work with them on tracking the impact that the educational experience is having on their business, and that is how we are doing it.

Tatpol: You are also an expert in Marketing,

Catherine: Yes. Well I used to be

Tatpol: Perfect always

Catherine: It does not take long to lose reasoncy in your knowledge.

Tatpol: Competitive and success, marketing, performance, management and CRM, how do you apply your expertise within your Business School?

Catherine: Ah... that's a good question as well. What I try to do, I have a Marketing Manager so I don't try to do that person's job, but I do try to make sure that there is a focus on a number of things. One are the key messages, getting a few strong key messages out; second is about a cohesion of presentational formats, making sure that everything is presented in the same way to reinforce the message. When there is a lot of noise out there, if you change every message all the time it does not get heard. You need a strong, consistent message presented in a consistent form. The third strand is that we need to be able to enhance our relationship capability, so we don't have as a school, we are not good at developing relationship capability and we are now improving on that, so making sure that all the contacts that we have collectively – we harness, bring in and make use of those connections that are local, national and global, so those are the three areas –

1. Message
2. Form of presentation
3. Relational capacity

Tatpol: I found in an ABS (Association of Business Schools) report that the number of female Business School Deans has increased around 15%, as you are one of them, what are the strengths that have brought you to this position? It is a tough question but you are the one I have to ask

Catherine: I think I know the business, I have knowledge of the business and I have knowledge of Business Schools as a first point. I think all Deans have to be, or have to have been credible in research, and I think my research in the past has been credible. I think also being a Dean, not everybody wants to be a Dean, because you have to accept that your research will suffer, so it is actually wanting to achieve something, wanting to make a difference to the school and to make a difference for my colleagues. Being able to drive that in such a way as to get them to buy into that I think is important. Wanting to drive that kind of agenda is important as well. I do passionately believe that because 70% of our undergraduates come from the [local] area, that they need to have more exposure to international issues and that is what we

are really focusing on in the school. I think those sorts of qualities are what has led me to this position.

Tatpo: Could you please describe your experience of leadership, how do you apply leadership when developing strategies and managing resources efficiently?

Catherine: For me one of the key things is you have to be clear on what you are trying to achieve. For me, I think if you went round the Heads of Departments they would know that we want to be improving on research, improving on learning and teaching, improving on knowledge exchange, but with two over-arching big pushes on internationalisation and corporate connections, Executive Education, those are the two areas where we have to make a bigger than normal impact and improvement. So you have to be clear to be a good leader. You have to involve people in the process, but you have to be not scared to say, NO, you have to be not scared to say, I have involved you, thank you for your input but I am going to do something else, and you have to be honest with people, you have to be transparent with people, and I think those are the three things you need to have:

1. A clarity of focus
2. You need to involve people in that
3. You need to be transparent, and the fourth thing, actually there is a fourth thing
4. You need to trust your colleagues, you need to trust them, you need to say, okay we have agreed we are going to do this, I am not doing it all, let's divide up the tasks and then you give people a task to do, you agree it with them and then you leave them, you allow

I think there are different styles of leadership but for me you need to give people their own heads, and allow them to find satisfaction and maybe even pleasure out of their being able to pursue things for themselves.

Tatpol: In your opinion, what type of leadership do you adopt right now, in your definition?

Catherine: Well what typology, do you have a typology in mind?

Tatpol: No, I cannot tell you, sorry. I would like to know from you what kind of leadership you...

Catherine: I see. It is not transactional, it is transformational.

Tatpol: Transformational, right, only one. What about another one?

Catherine: I think that is the main one, you are trying to work with people in having a team approach to solving, to setting objectives and then letting people get on with the setting of objectives and supporting them where you can. You need to be supportive of your key managers, the Heads of Departments around the school have important jobs and they are difficult jobs, they need to know that they have my support and I think that is important. I think in terms of the big dichotomy in between transactional leadership and transformational leadership I would like to think of myself in the category of being a transformational leader

Tatpol: You have the new type in your opinion, do you think you have the new leadership or not, like create the new type of leadership?

Catherine: What do you mean?

Tatpol: I mean because transformational is the method the leaders always use. Do you have another dimension of the leadership? Okay, that's fine. Let's skip. Because you mention about the trust as the fourth method you use, how can you identify who to trust with the important strategic projects, for example, how do you choose people to lead offshore campus and make sure they can make important decisions that align with the strategic plan and goal of the Business School?

Catherine: Well basically what I do is I always invite people to be involved, to express an interest in being involved and then I spend lots of time with them

Tatpol: By interviewing them

Catherine: Well not just by interviewing them but by talking to them and letting them understand the nature of the problem, the nature of the opportunity, telling them what the pros are and what the cons are and asking them to go away to reflect, coming back and asking questions. I mean I basically talk to people to try to get a sense of whether or not they can do a job.

Tatpol: Oh I have so many questions to ask but cannot ask you because of the limited time

Catherine: You are nearly there

Tatpol: But now I am beginning to struggle. I try to choose study from the accreditation that you have like EQUIS, AMBA, that is what I learn from the criteria,

the Business School has triple accreditation but one of my questions I learned from the criteria as well, it is a lot of the criteria how can I achieve that procedure?

Catherine: What is it that you want to know?

Tatpol: Because I know from the strategic priorities, strategic positioning, and another one is around the current strategic position and strategic direction and objectives, internationalisation and the strategic planning, strategic management, corporate connections, that is one topic covered on the interview, but I try to concise my questions to ask you directly, I do a lot of homework to do that but it still does not cover because of the limited time, so what should I do?

Catherine: With CRM I had a project with a bank looking at how they could effectively cleanse their database in order to better target. I have done work, and my colleagues have done work, for example, with the Health Service and kidney donors, finding out about what is the best way to advertise so that people will carry an Organ Donor Card, so that is another way of raising research money, because that was a research project. There have been research projects done on behalf of [the local] Government or The Trade Union Congress on looking at ways of working and how to improve the conditions for workers and that has been research funds that have been provided by industry. So Charities, Research Councils and Industry funding are the major sources. Industries and then Policy Government Bodies are the main sources of funding of research.

Tatpol: How do you retain excellent staff apart from monetary reward and promotion?

Catherine: You have to give them..., they have to feel that they are appreciated. They have to know that their contributions are heard. They have to have an opportunity where they want to be involved in the school and in the running of the school and have their say. They need to have adequate time and space to carry out their research, those are the main things about motivation I think.

Tatpol: Apart from maintaining high academic standard and favourable academic culture across the school, what are your roles and responsibilities especially in relation to setting strategy direction and goals?

Catherine: Okay. Well my role is very much as taking an overview, a leadership role in the direction of the school, the very clear articulation of our desire to be a Top

10 European Business School and working out in the various areas of our operation, whether it is learning and teaching or research or knowledge exchange, as to what we need to achieve in these areas to fulfil the overall goal. So my role is one of setting a direction and working with senior colleagues on how we actually achieve the goals that we have and I do that by consultation and through an intuitive process of back and forward and checking on that.

Tatpol: I have three last short questions. So I combine them together.

1. What does it take to be a successful Dean?
2. What part of your role do you find the most challenging?
3. In your opinion what is the most interesting aspect of your role?

Catherine: The most interesting aspect is working with interesting people. In my job you come across lots of interesting and talented people. My Heads of Department are talented, the Vice-Dean complement that I have are talented, they are engaged and they are interesting. Outside the school in the wider university, and also in the wider community of Business Schools globally, you know you have an amazing opportunity to meet and discuss and exchange ideas about the nature of business in the world with very interesting people. That is what is good about the role.

The more challenging aspects of the role are always to do with people management when you have to deal with non-performance or problems, whether it is non-performance of students or non-performance of staff, that can become quite difficult at times and that is problematic as well,

And what was the first question?

Tatpol: What does it take to be a successful Dean?

Catherine: Well what does it take, I don't know, I don't know what it takes to be a successful Dean because I don't know whether I have been a successful Dean or not, you know, I think that you need some time after having been in the post to reflect on what you did that was good and what you did that was less than good and what you did that was awful. So I don't really know what it takes to be a successful Dean.

Tatpol: You are an excellent Dean I've ever met.

Catherine: You are very kind

Tatpol: What the most ideal dean to lead the Business School of the future would be like, instead of the first question I asked

Catherine: I think in leading any organisation you need to be able to encourage people to use their talents. That is what you need. You need to be able to set other people, I was going to set them free, I don't mean that they are not free before, but you need to be able to allow people to reach their potential, that is what leadership is about. Leadership is about helping others to, and encouraging others who might now want to, to get the most out of their work and to contribute the most they can in their work.

Tatpol: Apart from face-to-face and talking, how can you see people inside?

Catherine: I don't need to see inside, why would I need to see inside people,

Tatpol: Because talent is hidden, you know I cannot who show...

Catherine: Well you don't. You cannot see, I cannot second guess if somebody is talented or not, I can put forward opportunities for them and support them to develop the talent and if they take that opportunity then it will come and if they don't take that opportunity then it will not come, but what I will not do is waste my time thinking that person has not shown any talent, do I need to do more. I will not give lots and lots of opportunity because there are people who will come out and do it, but I do believe you need to not assume that somebody does not want to do more or does not want to be pushed in another direction so you just ask them. People will say no and then if they say no, okay that is fine, you ask somebody else. Okay?

Tatpol: It is kind of you, thank you very much indeed.

The interview concluded with Catherine's recommendation of other contacts that could be useful to the study. End of interview.

Emma, Business School L

Email interview between on 20 January 2011 to 30 January 2011

Length: 4 replies

Word count: 2,685

First email correspondence on 20 January 2011

Dear Professor [Emma],

Thank you very much for your kind participation. This will be a semi-structured interview. I will send you a few questions at a time. You can answer me whenever you are free. Shall I start with the first set of questions?

Q1: What would be your understanding of strategic leadership for business schools? Could you please describe your experience of leadership and how you apply it with in your department and the business school, both formally and informally?

A: To understand my answers, you have to place them within the context of my own research and theorising. I believe there is no such thing as leadership, that it is a construct developed largely by business school researchers and imported into businesses, which then send staff to be taught leadership by us, and whose organisations we then research, so we construct this category 'leadership'. I loathe it, because it then creates a category, 'followers', who are inferior in some way. I still believe that academia is a place where colleagues, who are all equals, work together. Therefore strategic leadership for me would involve a dean or head of school who is first among equals. In that way, all the (hopefully) great minds employed in business schools can be brought together to develop strategy.

My experience of leadership - none! I try to work collegially, using my particular talents in the best way I can. I'm good at motivating people and at engendering a happy working and studying culture, and I try to fight to ensure that every member of staff has a chance to develop their career in the way they want. Therefore, I am responsible for organising some departmental seminars and I try to find themes that will help colleagues who want to develop their research expertise, while at the same time ensuring that colleagues from all the different subject groups can get together to discuss a common interest. I try to ensure that younger/less experienced colleagues have a time and place in which to develop their research (they tend to be overburdened by teaching), and arrange ad hoc discussion groups on areas of interest to people who might otherwise be isolated. My major administrative responsibility is as director of studies for the DBA, and I see my role there as ensuring our DBA is one

of the best in the world, so enhancing the reputation of the School. This means I focus not only on the students, but on encouraging colleagues to teach on the modules and to meet the students, who are from organisations colleagues may want access to. So I see the DBA as a way of enhancing our research, as well as the development of senior managers through their studies on the DBA.

Q2: What are the competitive advantages that your business school has over the peers? How does your school respond to students and their future employers' needs to attract students to your school?

A: Again, I am unhappy with the term 'competitive advantage'. Rather, all universities in the UK are contributing to the wealth of the nation and the globe. By 'wealth' I mean not just money, but the treasure of thinking, thoughtful people who contribute to society as well as to the economy. I work for one university which pays my salary and provides me with office space, facilities and students to teach and supervise. However, I work for all universities generally, as what I do contributes to knowledge across the university sector.

My School may narrow its focus into certain areas. Here the aim is to be a 'full-service business school', offering teaching from UG to doctoral level; undertaking research, and providing research-informed consultancy services. The University as a whole prides itself in being an 'ecoversity', and in leading the way in environmental issues. I do not necessarily agree with what it is doing, but I do not disagree either.

Response to students and future employers' needs? My own experience of being a mature student informs this. I arrived at university when I was 27, and within the first three months realised a whole world existed that I knew nothing about. There were so many IDEAS to be discussed, so many ways of thinking, so many books to read and discussions to have. So my own experience is that we cannot know what is possible if we dictate in advance what it is we want to know. Rather, we should allow those with expertise in an area to educate us, and in that process of education we can critique their position, etc., but we cannot dictate what it is we want. Therefore, when I teach current or future managers, I introduce them to theories they

will never have heard of, and show them how it is possible to think differently about their jobs and get them to explore how these theories can help them analyse their work and their organisations. I could never 'sell' this to employers and wouldn't want to, but although some students hate the ideas, many more find it extremely useful, as well as being informative and interesting.

Basically, as you might see, I'm in love with the idea of education, or bringing out the best in people, and I find that a narrowly-focused, business school approach provides facts but not education. I notice that the new dean of Harvard Business School is saying something similar.

I hope that gives you sufficient information in answer to your first two questions.

Second email correspondence on 21 January 2011

Dear Professor [Emma],

First of all, please accept my apologies for the delayed reply. I was finishing an assignment to be submitted on time. I hope you will forgive me.

Thank you very much for your detailed answers. You are very kind and helpful.

Q3: So, can I say you are a strong believer in collegial culture? I think your skill in motivating people and your love to make work place a supportive environment for your colleagues are, in a way, a kind of leadership. I know you don't like the idea of leading, but what do you think about transformational leadership? I think you are a transformational leader because you are interested in your colleagues' motives, you try to engage them, built relationship between them and raise their motivation to a whole new level. What do you think about this type of leader?

A: Yes, a strong believer in collegial culture. However, what I say I do and the effect on others may be two very different things. I think a lot of people claim to do things, indeed hope to do them, but their staff think very differently. My colleague, [XXX], whose work you may know, found this out in her own fieldwork a few years ago.

People at one level thought they were great leaders, but their staff at the next level down thought their bosses were terrible leaders, and they themselves were good leaders but guess what their staff thought?

Transformational leadership is HORRIBLE. It presumes the people labelled as 'followers' are dupes who just fall into line behind this supposedly wise and insightful person. I dislike leadership theory because of the way it demeans so-called 'followers'. My left-wing roots are showing through here. Leadership theory seems completely unaware of what people are really like - it just has this weird sort of model of what staff are like, a one-dimensional man or woman that bears no relationship to any living, breathing human being. This is implicit - never overtly stated, but even stronger for that.

The other side of all this is that engaging people, etc., is done for instrumental reasons - to make them work harder. My philosophy is more concerned with how work should be life-enhancing, joyful, developmental, with the effect on the bottom line only a minor consideration.

Q4: May I ask about how you enhance your colleagues' performance to reach their full potential? Or how do you deal with them if they underperform?

A: I don't - we have an annual performance review process for all academic staff, where once a year we meet with a senior colleague to discuss our performance. Some of us enjoy what we do, feel it to be very important, and work hard because we want to work hard. Motivation comes from inside, not outside.

Q5: You said your role is to ensure your DBA is one of the best in the world. What are the strategies that would help you achieve that?

A: Excellent teaching of research methods, involvement of as many colleagues as possible in the teaching; a strong research culture; careful selection of students; excellent pastoral as well as academic support, motivated and enthusiastic academic, administrative and library staff, and a sense of working with great people to share

ideas, generate new ones, and have fun and intellectual frissons along the way. There is a lot of laughter in the DBA modules, as well as a lot of serious discussion.

Q6: I also notice that [Business School L] is a dark horse. It has become increasingly famous and outstanding in the FT world MBA ranking over the past few years. How does it become so successful in a short period of time, while many others took so many years to achieve?

A: Actually, [Business School L] is one of the oldest in the UK. Three were established in the post-war era, and were so successful that another three were established almost immediately, and [Business School L] was amongst this second group. It was a major School of Management until [XXX] established a business school and head-hunted a lot of [Business School L's] best staff, but over the years [Business School L] has rebuilt and has regained its former status. Means by which it did this: a good workload model so all research-active staff have time to do research, a policy of expanding the numbers of staff, investment in an excellent new campus, etc., etc.

I hope that answers your questions, and look forward to the next tranche.

Third email correspondence on 27 January 2011

Dear Professor [Emma],

Q7: Wow, your answer about leadership is impressive and so inspiring. So, do you think leadership theory is something like political tool?

A: It's partly a political tool, or can be used politically, but working from a poststructuralist perspective leadership is also about identity. As with many identities, leadership relies on an unacknowledged, subordinated other for its existence, and this is that of 'the follower'. I loathe what leadership theory presumes about this amorphous group/type of person.

Q8: However, even though in the most intensive collegial culture like Oxbridge, they still have deans as their leaders. You also mentioned in the first email that strategic

leadership should involve deans or heads of school. So I assume that every organisation needs at least one leader. May I ask if you can't escape the situation where you must have a leader, then what kind of leader would be ideal to lead a business school like yours (and fit your collegial culture)?

A: From my perspective, we must explore the phrase 'still have deans as their leaders'. Before the dominance of managerialism in the public sector, we would have said 'business schools still have deans'. We would not have added 'as their leaders'. By adding those three words you bring about a whole new social world, and one that is not perhaps necessary. Are deans 'leaders', or are they administrators with large and complex jobs? Can we have deans who are just deans, without any further, seemingly compulsory, descriptor. In other words, the three words 'as their leaders' would not have been attached to the title of 'deans' until the last few years.

Why should we assume that every organisation needs at least one leader? What do you mean by 'needs'. There are many cooperative organisations that function without anyone specifically titled 'leader' - there may be a person who acts as a focal point to whom callers may be referred, but they need not carry all the baggage that goes with the title of 'leader'. So I would say we can very much escape the situation where there must be a leader, so long as we are aware of very recent history when there was no such thing as a leader in the ways the term is now used. There may have been academic leaders, who were looked up to because of their wisdom and intellect, but that is something very different from the managerialist meaning of 'leader', i.e. someone who has followers who must be persuaded to follow that leader's whims, and who are presumed to lack something, or to lack many things, so that they are rather sub-human entities that have to be lifted up if they are to be human.

By the way, one of my doctoral students from Indonesia found that concepts of leadership in Indonesia had some similarities with Western concepts, but also some very different aspects. Before I supervised his thesis I was very critical of the ethnocentric bias by which the West exports its ideas, as if they will be beneficial to every country in the world (which hides the wish that every country in the world becomes like the West, with its faults as well as its admirable qualities). I am even

more critical now, as I understand something of why some of these theories we are discussing just will not work.

Q9: Being a leading business school needs a lot of money. What does the main funding of your school come from? If that amount decreases, what would be the alternative means of funding in the future?

A: Funding - our new dean is working on this issue at the moment. We get most of our income from teaching, with a comparatively small amount from research, but also income from knowledge transfer, or consultancy work. The plan is to increase our income from all of these areas - whether it works or not is another issue.

I hope that rant contributes to your research! My colleague, [XXX], said she is also included in your study. She is much more expert than me on anything to do with leadership!

Forth email correspondence on 30 January 2011

Dear Professor [Emma],

Please do not apologise. It was no problem at all. I totally understand that you are very busy. I think I will be able to conclude our email interview soon as we've covered almost all topics needed. So please bear with me for a little longer.

Q10: So the culture in your department can be said to be collegial, then?

A: Yes - very much so.

Q11: May I start on new topics? Apart from ensuring that your DBA is one of the best in the world, are there any other goals you set for your department? Are these goals aligned with the whole business school's goals?

A: I can't say that I set goals for my department or even for my group (the School is the equivalent of a department, and is divided into five academic sub-groups). I have my own personal goals which I hope contribute to the collegial culture and standing

of the School, but as they are traditional academic values I do not care whether or not they are aligned with wider School/university goals.

Q12: How do you effectively manage the resources, i.e. human capital, financial capital, social capital and organisational capital?

A: I do not do anything so gross as 'effectively manage' anything. I think that conflating human beings with products or objects is epistemologically violent. I'm not in charge of any budgets - I just pootle along and get told if I'm overspending on the DBA, which is my major area of responsibility in the School.

Q13: Have you ever utilised lean management in your department? If yes, please describe how.

A: No, I've never seen that applied in a university. Do you read the Times Higher Education Supplement - it's the academics' weekly 'newspaper', in which we represented ourselves to ourselves. You will see in those pages, if you read sufficient of them, that there is something of a battle going on between managerialist presumptions and anti-management sympathies. There is a discussion of leadership in a recent edition which I thoroughly disagree with, for reasons I've included in these emails.

End of email interview.

Johnny, Business School M

Email interview between on 23 February 2011 to 31 March 2011

Length: 3 replies

Word count: 1,176

First email correspondence on 23 February 2011

Dear Professor [Johnny],

Thank you very much for your kindness. You said you have had no leadership role since 2001, therefore I would like to learn about your experience of leadership you had had until 2001.

Q1: Can you please describe your understanding of strategic leadership for business schools?

A: Strategic leadership in BS (Business School) is concerned with determining/enabling the main pathways through which the S can achieve its mission/objectives.

Q2: Can you tell me about your experience of strategic leadership you had had in the past? How did you apply it within your business school when you were in post?

A: It was the executive committee rather than the dean who developed the S's (School's) strategy. This was reviewed ever so often. Implicitly or explicitly this was based on a SWOT analysis. As a member of the executive committee (particularly during the 1990s) I was as involved in this process as anyone else.

Q3: Did you have any role or experience in setting direction and strategies for your business school?

A: As a member of a team 'yes', but no one can say that a chosen direction was their decision (even an authoritarian dean would have difficulty in claiming this!).

Q4: How did you decide which strategies would work for the business school? Can you please give me some examples?

A: Strategy really developed/emerged over time rather than being the result of a single meeting. Once we had decided that it was our location from which we could gain a competitive advantage, it was pretty well determined what our main pathway should be - primary focus on the City and the financial industry. Also once the decision had been made that we wanted to be in the 'top' category of BS nationally and internationally, this meant that our research performance was critical.

In turn this meant that recruiting research achievers, and structuring rewards (e.g. promotion) appropriately followed. Examples of this strategy could be seen in the re-structuring of the S with a separate Finance faculty; establishing several research centres focusing on finance and financial institutions; etc., see publications, brochures and internet for details. Our international orientation became more and more important as reflected in Exec MBA programmes based abroad, international faculty, alumni structure and events abroad, etc.

Q5: How did you raise fund to support your business school? How did you keep connection with influential people, like Deans from other business schools and businessmen?

A: Raising funds was mainly undertaken by deans and V-Cs (Vice Chancellors). When appropriate I was involved - usually after the initial contact had been made. On the rare occasion a contact I made at one of the formal dinners of the university/BS led to a positive outcome. The main funds I collected were for the research centre which I directed - the two to six staff depended on me to bring in enough money so that the university was prepared to renew their contracts. Contact with influential people came via: membership of committees/advisory bodies (usually academically related, including representing the BS on ABS executive); founder member of a [XXX] Company.

I hope you will find these comments helpful.

Second email correspondence on 8 March 2011

Dear Professor [Johnny],

Thank you very much for your answers. They are very helpful. Here are some more questions.

Q6: Could you please tell me more about executive committee function? What were their responsibilities and how did they work?

A: The EC exists to advise the dean. It consists of those with major responsibilities in the school - heads of departments in my time but heads of the three faculties now to reduce numbers plus heads of main managerial/academic functions (eg head of MBA programmes).

Q7: Since you had been engaged in strategic leadership for many years, what type of leadership did you adopt and what type do (did) you think is (was) ideal?

A: My own preference is for a participative rather than an authoritarian style. This is more appropriate when dealing with semi-autonomous academics. But where there is a conflict of interest, and there is a need to make a quick decision, then the formal leader has to take the initiative and persuade others why the decision he/she is making is appropriate.

Q8: You mention about recruiting research achiever. How did you persuade those top researchers to join your business school? How did you motivate people to be creative with their research? How did you maintain high-quality research?

A: The post must be made sufficiently attractive: a teaching load that leaves sufficient time for research; money available for attending conferences when a paper is being given; competitive salary compared to other top schools in the UK and abroad; demonstrate that the School has established a research culture (encouraged through appraisal scheme, rewards, research 'events'). If all these conditions are right then creative research is likely to follow.

Q9: What part of your roles did you find the most challenging?

A: Getting top researchers to accept that their post is not a full-time research one, and that they are expected to undertake a fair amount of teaching/tutoring.

I hope this is helpful

Third email correspondence on 31 March 2011

Dear Professor [Johnny],

Thank you very much for your detailed reply. I would like to ask you some more questions.

Q10: How did you encourage leadership in your colleagues?

A: Delegating tasks to expand their experience. Encouraging them to attend short courses run by the university which are designed to help them learn more about leadership.

Q11: How did you manage limited resources effectively and efficiently? Had your business school ever utilised lean management?

A: Not really in a position to answer this. But as far as I can tell it is by ensuring that the right structure and systems are in place. For instance academics are not the best administrators, and so we created the post of chief operations officer to oversee the use of resources etc. 'Lean management' this really needs defining as it can be used in different ways. But as far as I know we never formally introduced 'lean management'.

Q12: How did you build and maintain productive relationship between academia, businesses, communities and other key stakeholders?

A: The most effective means of doing this is through the building of networks, publishing brochures disseminating the achievements of the school, organising 'events' for different groups (e.g. alumni, business, researchers), and generally having a professional and active marketing department.

Q13: In your opinion, what do you think the most ideal business school deans would be like?

A: There is no 'ideal'. Requirements will depend on the needs of the school given its mission and the context in which it has to operate.

Q14: Do you think imagination is important in leading business schools? How much does intellectual capital (i.e. knowledge management and innovation) influence success of strategic leadership?

A: One of the functions of a dean is to ensure that there is a shared vision - imagination and appropriate knowledge is clearly useful. But other members of the team can contribute to this; an important part of the dean's responsibilities is to ensure there is a vision and that appropriate steps are taken to facilitate implementation of the vision.

I hope this is the last lot of questions!

End of email interview.

Appendix VII: Main Study Interview Sessions

Participants	Start Date	Duration	End Date
Email Interviewing			
James	18/01/2011	1 reply	18/01/2011
Thomas	18/01/2011	5 replies	24/01/2011
Daniel	18/01/2011	3 replies	20/01/2011
Neil	19/01/2011	2 replies	25/02/2011
Larry	20/01/2011	1 reply	20/01/2011
Emma	20/01/2011	4 replies	30/01/2011
Benjamin	24/01/2011	2 replies	12/02/2011
Sean	25/01/2011	1 reply	25/01/2011
Peter	26/01/2011	2 replies	02/03/2011
Johnny	23/02/2011	3 replies	31/03/2011
Albert	30/03/2011	1 reply	30/03/2011
Telephone Interviewing			
Samantha	24/01/2011	N/A	
William	04/02/2011		
Charles (1 st time)	14/02/2011		
Edward	18/02/2011		
Charles (2 nd time)	21/02/2011		
Henry (1 st time)	24/02/2011		
Face-to-face Interviewing			
George	25/01/2011	N/A	
Catherine	22/02/2011		
Angela	28/02/2011		
Phillip	09/05/2011		
Frank	10/05/2011		
Henry (2 nd time)	12/05/2011		

Appendix VIII: Main Study Interview Timeline

	15/01/2011	31/01/2011	15/02/2011	28/02/2011	15/03/2011	31/03/2011	15/04/2011	30/04/2011	15/05/2011
Email Interviewing									
James	█								
Thomas	█	█							
Daniel	█	█							
Neil	█	█							
Larry	█	█							
Emma	█	█	█						
Benjamin		█	█	█					
Sean		█	█						
Peter		█	█	█	█				
Johnny			█	█	█	█			
Albert								█	
Telephone Interviewing									
Samantha		█							
William			█						
Charles (1 st)				█					
Edward					█				
Charles (2 nd)						█			
Henry (1 st)							█		
Face-to-face Interviewing									
George		█							
Catherine				█					
Angela					█				
Phillip								█	
Frank								█	
Henry (2 nd)									█