



Hospitality Knowledge Production in Business School: A Case of Scotland

PhD Thesis

**Department of Work, Employment and Organisation
University of Strathclyde, Glasgow**

Author:	Trang Thi Quynh Ngo
First supervisor:	Prof. Tom Baum
Second supervisor:	Dr. Pauline Anderson
Location, Date of Delivery:	Glasgow, 2024

Declaration of Authenticity and Author's Rights

This thesis is the result of the author's original research. It has been composed by the author and has not been previously submitted for examination which has led to the award of a degree.

The copyright of this thesis belongs to the author under the terms of the United Kingdom Copyright Acts as qualified by University of Strathclyde Regulation 3.50. Due acknowledgement must always be made of the use of any material contained in, or derived from this thesis.

Signed: Trang Thi Quynh Ngo 
Date: August, 2024

Acknowledgements

I am profoundly grateful to my supervisors, Professor Tom Baum and Doctor Pauline Anderson for their support and invaluable advice throughout my doctoral journey in University of Strathclyde.

I would like to thank staff and all of my colleagues in postgraduate research groups in Strathclyde Business School for administrative support to make my doctoral journey less stressful.

My heartfelt thanks go to my family for their unconditional love and continuous support for my learning journey. Their encouragement has been a cornerstone of my success.

Lastly, I acknowledge my own perseverance and dedication. I am proud of my commitment to stay on track and put in the effort to complete this PhD journey.

Abstract

Hospitality higher education (HHE) in the United Kingdom (UK) has evolved significantly, particularly with the relocation of HHE in Business School (BS) since the early 2000s. This relocation has led to hospitality management education (HME) becoming a dominant approach to teach HHE programs in BS. The shift raises important questions about the ongoing relevance and continuity of hospitality knowledge production as a vocational and specialised education within the changing landscape of higher education (HE). Specifically, it prompts inquiries about how hospitality knowledge is produced to adapt to the new context as BS. This thesis conducts exploratory research on HHE at undergraduate level in Scotland, aiming to understand hospitality knowledge production within this revised framework.

This thesis applies a novel disciplinary perspective to investigate the production of hospitality knowledge across intellectual, social, and organizational dimensions. The concept of discipline has been extensively utilised in tourism research, which is exemplified by “*Interdiscipline model*” by Jafari and Richie (1981), “*the Indiscipline of Tourism*” (Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004), and “*Tourism knowledge system*” (Tribe and Liburd, 2016). Its application to hospitality research, however, remains relatively unexplored. In hospitality education, discussions have predominantly centered on curriculum development, often debating the merits of vocational versus liberal education for HHE. This study discusses hospitality knowledge production beyond traditional disciplinary boundaries by incorporating the notion of post-disciplinarity. To further investigate institutionalised knowledge production, actor-network theory (ANT) is employed to analyse the social construction of hospitality knowledge at the levels of schools, departments, and academic communities. Using qualitative research and a case study approach, the thesis explores the lived experiences and perspectives of academic professionals engaged in teaching and researching HHE across four chosen universities in Scotland.

The findings indicates that mode 1 knowledge production remains predominant in generating interdisciplinary knowledge for hospitality subject which is seen as a sub-management subject in BS. Whereas, mode 2 knowledge production focuses on problem-based knowledge through integration with external demands (industry and student) for knowledge applied at work. At department level, hospitality academic community constitutes a minority within a predominantly business-focused

environment. Despite having significant autonomy in curriculum design and teaching pedagogies, they adapt educational content and pedagogical approaches to align with the specific needs and dynamics of the hospitality subject in BS. At BS level, there is an institutional legacy deciding what knowledge is legitimate for teaching, which is shaped largely by a management gaze, credit and quality control. In this context, hospitality academics adopts postdiscipline to have greater openness and address complexity in producing hospitality knowledge that meets the demands of industry and students for applied knowledge.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of Contents	i
List of Figures	vi
List of Tables.....	vii
List of Abbreviations.....	viii
List of Appendices	ix
Chapter 1: Introduction	2
1.1 The Research Context	2
1.2 Problem Statement	3
1.3 Research Aim and Objective.....	5
1.5 Methodological Approach.....	7
1.6 Key Contributions of the Thesis	7
1.7 The Thesis Outline	9
Chapter 2: The Context of Hospitality Higher Education in Scotland	10
2.1 Historic Development of Hospitality Higher Education in the United Kingdom	10
2.1.1 A Vocational Subject	10
2.1.2 Specialised Education	12
2.1.3 Hospitality Management Education in Business Schools.....	13
2.2 Commercial, Private and Social Dimension of Hospitality	15
2.2.1 The Commercial Dimension of Hospitality	15
2.2.2 The Private Dimension of Hospitality.....	17
2.2.3 The Social Dimension of Hospitality	18
2.2.4 Hospitality Management and Hospitality Studies.....	20
2.3 Hospitality and Tourism.....	22
2.4 Neoliberalism Impact on the Changing Ideas of University Education in the United Kingdom.....	24
2.5 University Education in Scotland.....	31
2.5. 1 University Education in Scotland versus England	31
2.5.2 University Governance and Autonomy in Scotland.....	32
2.5.3 Homogenous Delivery of University Education	33
2.5.4 A Focus on Graduate Skills and Employability	34
2.5.5 Vocational Education in Scotland	34
2.6 Chapter of Summary	35

Chapter 3: Literature Review	37
3.1 Discipline	38
3.1.1. Intellectual Characteristic.....	39
3.1.2. Social Characteristic.....	40
3.1.3 Organisational Characteristic	41
3.2 Disciplinary Approaches to Knowledge Production.....	41
3.3 Mode 1 and 2 Knowledge Production.....	46
3.4 Discipline in knowledge production in tourism studies	49
3.4.1 Interdiscipline Model by Jafari and Richie	49
3.4.2 Indiscipline Model by Tribe (1997, 2000, 2004)	52
3.4.3 Tourism Knowledge System by Tribe and Liburd (2016).....	54
3.4.3.1 The Disciplines of Tourism (circle 2)	55
3.4.3.2 Extra-disciplinary Tourism Knowledge (circle 3)	56
3.4.3.3 Knowledge Force Field	58
3.4.3.4 Knowledge Network, Academic Tribe and Territories.....	61
3.5 Rethinking about Disciplines in Tourism Research.....	62
3.5.1 Limitations of Disciplinary Thinking to Knowledge	62
3.5.2 Post-disciplinary Thinking to Knowledge	65
3.6 Knowledge Production in the Institutional Context.....	67
3.6.1 Management Gaze in Knowledge Production.....	68
3.6.2 A Linguistic Process	69
3.6.3 A Theoretical Gap in Understanding Institutionalised Knowledge Production	72
3.7 Actor-network Theory and Its Application in Analysing Knowledge Network ..	73
3.7.1 Actor-network Theory.....	73
3.7.1.1 Actors and Network	75
3.7.1.2 Translation.....	76
3.7.1.3 The Adoption of Actor-network Theory in Tourism Studies.....	77
3.7.2 The Adoption of Actor-network Theory in The Thesis	81
3.8 A Synthesis Framework to Explore Hospitality Knowledge Production in Business School.....	82
3.9 Chapter Summary.....	83
Chapter 4: Research Methodology	85
4.1 Research Philosophy	85
4.1.1 Dominant Paradigms	86
4.1.2 Social Constructionism	89

4.2 Qualitative Research Design	90
4.3 Case Study Design	92
4.4 Interviews	95
4.5 Sampling	98
4.6 Covid-19 and Its Effect on Qualitative Research.....	99
4.6.1. Covid-19 and Its Effect on Case Study Design.....	99
4.6.2 Interview questions	106
4.6.3 Using Field Notes and Diaries	109
4.7 Thematic Analysis.....	109
4.8 Issues of Credibility, Dependability, Transferability and Confirmability	117
4.9 Reflexivity.....	118
4.10 Ethics Doing the Research	123
4.11 Chapter Summary.....	124
Chapter 5: The Status of Hospitality Knowledge in Business School	125
5.1 Vocational Education	125
5.1.1 Losing the Identity of Vocational Education in Practical Training	125
5.1.2 Vocational Education at University level Does not Provide Specific Skill Training.....	127
5.1.3 Vocational Education Focuses on Management and Generic skills	129
5.2 Specialised Education	134
5.2.1 A Faculty Degree	134
5.2.2 Specialised Education in a Business and Management Degree in Hospitality	136
5.2.3 Losing Identity in Hospitality Specific Subjects.....	142
5.3 Hospitality Subject in Business School.....	143
5.3.1 Hospitality as a Management Subject.....	143
5.3.2 Toward an Academic Subject	145
5.3.3 Hospitality and Tourism.....	147
5.4 Hospitality Knowledge Domain.....	148
5.4.1 The Commercial Aspect of Hospitality.....	148
5.4.2 The Social and Domestic Aspects of Hospitality.....	151
5.5 Transition toward Hospitality Studies.....	152
5.6 Chapter of Summary	154
Chapter 6: Mode of Knowledge Production for Hospitality in Business School	156
6.2 Mode 1 Knowledge Production	156

6.2.1 Knowledge from Business Studies.....	156
6.2.2 Knowledge from Social Sciences.....	158
6.2.3 Knowledge from Humanities and Arts	161
6.2.4 Knowledge Generated from Research	163
6.3 Mode 2 Knowledge Production	164
6.4 A Balance between Academic and Applied Education.....	165
6.5 Chapter of Summary	168
Chapter 7: Hospitality Knowledge Network in Business School	169
7.1 Force Field Factor to Hospitality Higher Education	169
7.1.1 Government Impact.....	169
7.1.2 Industry Impact	173
7.1.3 Student Impact	174
7.1.4 Professional Impact.....	176
7.2 The Competitive Landscape of University Education	177
7.3 The Purpose of Hospitality Higher Education	183
7.3.1 Improve Employability	183
7.3.2 Provide Specialised Knowledge for Competition	184
7.4 Hospitality Knowledge Network at Department/Academic Community Level	187
7.4.1 Actors	187
7.4.2 Non-human Actor.....	189
7.4.3 Translation.....	190
7.4.3.1 Problematisation.....	190
7.4.3.2 Interestment	193
7.4.3.3 Enrolment.....	194
7.4.3.4 Mobilisation	197
7.5 Chapter of Summary	200
Chapter 8: Theoretical Contribution to Disciplinary and Post-disciplinary Thinking to Hospitality in Business School	201
8.1 The Status of Hospitality Management Education in Business School	202
8.1.1 Knowledge Force Field for Hospitality in Business School	202
8.1.2 The Status of Hospitality Management Education in Business School	203
8.2 The Intellectual Characteristic of Hospitality Knowledge.....	206
8.2.1 Mode 1 Knowledge Production	206
8.2.2 Mode 2 Knowledge Production	209
8.2.3 A Transition to Post-disciplinary Approach	212
8.3 The Social Characteristic of Hospitality Knowledge.....	213

8.4 The Organisational Characteristic of Hospitality Knowledge	214
8.5 Chapter of Summary	218
Chapter 9: Conclusions	220
9.1 The Purpose and Summary of the Research	220
9.2 Contribution to the body of knowledge	222
9.3 Limitations of the research.....	225
9.4 Recommendations	226
9.5 Last thoughts on the PhD Journey	228
Appendices	230
Reference	255

List of Figures

Figure 1: Three-domain of Hospitality.....	18
Figure 2: Graduated progression.....	44
Figure 3: Scenarios of disciplinary to postdisciplinary transformation.....	45
Figure 4: Disciplinary inputs to the tourism.....	51
Figure 5: Jafari's interdiscipline model.....	51
Figure 6: The Creation of Tourism Knowledge	52
Figure 7: Tourism knowledge system.....	55
Figure 8: Hospitality production in Business School.....	217

List of Tables

Table 1: A summary of themes about hospitality through a social lens.....	19
Table 2: A fieldwork timetable.....	102
Table 3: Participant profiles.....	104
Table 4: Example of the emergence of themes.....	113
Table 5: Example of an overarching theme, theme and sub-themes	114
Table 6: Eight primary themes and sub themes.....	115
Table 7: Ethical steps of data gathering methods.....	123
Table 8: Differences between HHE in the literature and the research findings.....	203
Table 9: Differences between hospitality as a discipline in research and hospitality as a subject in BS.....	207
Table 10: Summarise the difference between mode 2 knowledge production in literature and from the findings.....	210

List of Abbreviations

ANT	Actor-network theory
BS	Business School
HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HHE	Higher Hospitality Education
HME	Hospitality Management Education
HRM	Human Resource Management
RO	Research objective
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
REF	Research Excellence Framework
SCQF	Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework
SQA	Scottish Qualifications Authority
UK	United Kingdom

List of Appendices

Appendix 1: The list of universities providing hospitality related programs at university level.....	230
Appendix 2: Email invitation to potential participants	231
Appendix 3: A interview guide for the first project before Covid 19.....	231
Appendix 4: List of interviews via Zoom	236
Appendix 5: CAUTHE conference, February 2021.....	237
Appendix 6: Revised interview question during Covid- 19.....	237
Appendix 7: Additional interview with participant E in university A.....	239
Appendix 8: Additional interview with participant F in university D	240
Appendix 9: Code book generated from N-VIVO.....	241
Appendix 10: An approval from the Ethics board of Work, Employment and Organisation Department, University of Strathclyde.....	253
Appendix 11: Consent form.....	253

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 The Research Context

Vocational education as hospitality has undergone historical development tailored to the context of university in the United Kingdom (UK). The changing context of university introduces uncertainty regarding the continued development of these programs, especially concerning about the knowledge production aligned with this changing context (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017). The thesis interest is the relocation of hospitality higher education (HHE) to Business School (BS) since the 2000s. This relocation represents a novel challenge that require in-depth more exploration, forming a critical aspect of the research interest in this thesis.

Scotland has witnessed significant changes in the provision of HHE, including transformation in degrees and curriculum design for hospitality programs (Baum, 2008). Choosing Scotland as the focal point for this research is strategic and holds significant merits. Unlike England and Wales, Scotland's journey into hospitality education at the degree level in higher education (HE) and universities commences relatively early. In the 1960s, University of Strathclyde began offering related courses in 1965. The historic development of hospitality education in this region reflects the traditional vocational root, with less academic aspect, especially in theoretical education. The primary aim of HHE in Scotland was to meet the needs of the local industry, which often lacked career advancement opportunities and excellent working conditions, particularly in seasonal business and small and medium size units (Fidgeon, 2010, p. 73).

Interestingly, Scotland is also home for the first university which decided to close its hotel school and move it to a faculty degree in BS despite having a long-standing history dating back to the 1960s. One concrete example of this shift is the decision made by University of Strathclyde to close Hospitality and Tourism Hotel School and move these programs to Strathclyde Business School (Baum, 2008 cited in Lugosi, Lynch and Morrison, 2009, p. 1473). The significant shift leaves academic teaching hospitality programs in universities uncertain about the future of HHE, especially when hospitality management education (HME) becomes dominant for teaching HHE in BS. This dynamic environment provides a rich context for

understanding how hospitality knowledge has been produced, particularly within the framework of hospitality programs in BS.

1.2 Problem Statement

For over the last two decades, research on knowledge development in the field of HHE in the UK has focused primarily on specific key themes. These themes include theoretical debates on the intellectual development of hospitality (Slattery, 2002; Jones, 2004; Jameson *et al.*, 2006; Lugosi, 2009; Lynch *et al.*, 2011); exploration of the landscape of HHE provision (Breakey and Craig-Smith, 2007; Jameson *et al.*, 2006; Robison, Breakey and Craig-Smith, 2010); empirical work on specific difficulties encountered by academics and institutions in offering and teaching HHE (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017); hospitality performance in Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) (Litteljohn, 2004); publication status in hospitality research (Rivera and Upchurch, 2008); the significance of vocational training (Alexander, 2007; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009); a need to move away from vocational education (Airey and Tribe, 2000; Morrison, 2002; Morrison and O'Mahony, 2002; Tribe, 2002; Jones, 2004; Alexander, 2007; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009), the development of HME in university (Fullagar and Wilson, 2012; Lashley, 2013; Lashley, 2015; Wood, 2015 b; Lugosi *et al.*, 2009), criticality for hospitality subject in HE (Zhang, 2019). These works have contributed to improve the status hospitality subject in comparison with other established subjects as business and management HE (Morrison and O'Gorman, 2008; Lashley, 2008, Lugosi *et al.*, 2009).

In hospitality research, the prevailing theoretical approach to study hospitality knowledge production centers on curriculum, primarily debating a choice between vocational or liberal education for HHE. Numerous scholars (Airey and Tribe, 2000; Morrison, 2002; Morrison and O'Mahony, 2002; Tribe, 2002; Jones, 2004; Alexander, 2007; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009) have supported a shift away from the vocational tradition, in other words, “*tyranny of relevance*” (Alexander, 2007). They all believe, hospitality curriculum should broaden its scope to impart analytical skill, critical thinking and management education. Such competencies and skills are necessary for graduates to become reflective practitioners capable of theorising, reflecting, practicing and adapting flexibly. In this vein, the teaching curriculum

should balance both practical and theoretical skills (Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009). Instead of solely focusing on practical skills, theoretical skills are considered crucial for future hospitality managers to navigate the changing hospitality industry and effectively manage business challenges (Airey and Tribe, 2000). These scholars successfully identify main competencies and skills, and a balance between vocational and liberal education for HHE.

Despite these advancements of hospitality knowledge through vocational and liberal education, the curriculum approach to generate knowledge for HHE is seen as functional, neglecting the philosophical development of hospitality knowledge (Jone, 2004, p. 41). This trend is not unique to hospitality but extends to tourism education. Tribe (1997, 2004, 2009) highlights a predominant focus on the business and management aspect of tourism education, hence, what we know about tourism knowledge is mainly instrumental, mostly focusing on marketability and efficiency (Tribe, 2004, p. 53). This leads to a “*significant knowledge gap*” in a comprehensive understanding of tourism education (Tribe, 2009, p. 3). Jafari (1990) underscores that tourism is perceived as a labour-intense industry with a view to support the development of the economy, shaping the implementation and growth of tourism programs and education at university level (Jafari, 2001, p. 32-33). Despite the substantial expansion of tourism knowledge, Tribe (2009, p. 3) identifies this knowledge as primarily “*additive knowledge*”, focusing on adapting theories and knowledge rather than engaging in profound theory scrutiny. Tribe (2009) advocates for a philosophical inquiry into knowledge production for tourism, urging reflexive and critical scrutiny beyond technical or functional interest.

The research gap in the philosophical thinking toward tourism knowledge is evident in the disproportionate emphasis on specific areas within the current literature of tourism education scholarship. Hsu’s (2015, p. 3-5) comprehensive review, based on his content analysis of 573 articles published from 2005 to 2014 in prominent hospitality and tourism research journals, highlights a predominant focus on teaching and learning approaches (accounting for 37.7% of the research, including research topics on teaching tools and new technology, pedagogical innovations, teaching effectiveness, and experiential learning), talent and skill development (constituting 12.4 % with a focus on employability and job competencies; soft skill development

for students), and curriculum development (making up 11.5% with an emphasis on curriculum space, stakeholder involvement and curriculum planning models). Tribe's analysis (2005) of 304 articles published up to 2001 in the field of tourism education indicates a predominant focus (86%) on curriculum-related issues such as enhancing students' employability, identifying competencies to meet industry's demand, and tailoring curriculum design to particular industries. In this case, Hsu (2015) advocates for an increased emphasis on philosophical inquiries about tourism education to navigate its future and direction in the dynamic HE landscape.

With a view to fulfil the research gap in philosophical thinking about tourism knowledge, Tribe (2009, p. 6) raises three questions to understand tourism knowledge production in universities as to,

- What is meant by tourism knowledge?
- What is its scope and framing and what are the consequences of such framing and what lies inside and outside of our fields of inquiry?
- How do we distinguish between the truth and lies?

Using tourism education as a parallel, the thesis emphasises the importance of exploring the production of hospitality knowledge in the changing university context as in the UK. Such exploration is needed to understand what more can be known about its knowledge production in university, where it is normally approached from a functional perspective.

1.3 Research Aim and Objective

The study focuses on HHE at undergraduate level in Scotland. This primary aim is to comprehensively understand how hospitality knowledge has been produced in BS, centering on the changing provision of hospitality degrees and related subjects along with the adaptation of a HME approach. To achieve this aim, the research uses Tribe (2009)'s questions to set the following research objectives (RO):

RO 1: To explore what hospitality knowledge is

This objective seeks to gain a comprehensive understanding of hospitality knowledge regarding its source and scope.

RO 2: To examine where hospitality knowledge comes from

This objective is intended to identify the theoretical foundation of hospitality knowledge inquiry, its mode of production and the consequence of that inquiry in terms of boundaries for hospitality knowledge.

RO3: To understand how hospitality knowledge is constructed

This seeks to understand hospitality knowledge production in institutional context as BS.

Hospitality is considered as sub-sector of broader tourism industry, encompassing businesses engaged in the offering of food, drink and accommodation services by hotels and restaurants, and contract catering establishments (Baum, 2007, p.1384; Brotherton and Wood, 2008, p.1). The thesis situates hospitality as one facet of tourism phenomenon, highlighting “*sub sectors such as hotels, restaurants, pubs and bars and contract catering*” (Lashley, 2013).

The thesis adopts Tribe’s suggestion to focus on the scope of educational programs, seeking to comprehend the dynamics of knowledge production for hospitality programs in the BS context. Tribe (1997, p. 639) highlights a need to distinguish between definitions of tourism world, tourism phenomenon and tourism education and training to ensure clarity in analysing tourism knowledge. Tourism can be seen as the phenomenon occurring in the external world in which individuals engage in when travel and visitation. In this sense, the term can be the external world of tourism or the phenomenon of tourism, or tourism for short. Meanwhile, there is another tourism world in academic communities (Becher, 1989) in which tourism is a subject for research to generate knowledge. In this perspective, tourism is seen as a field of study. Tourism programs or tourism education and training are the dimension that can be studied to gain further understanding about tourism knowledge production.

1.4 The Theoretical Lens

The research adopts discipline thinking as a theoretical lens to explore knowledge production for hospitality in BS. The use of disciplinary novel allows to analyse the intellectual, social and organisational characteristic of hospitality knowledge that is new in hospitality studies where curriculum approach becomes dominant to study knowledge. This theoretical approach is inspired by a review of how discipline is used in tourism research to generate knowledge. They include “*Interdiscipline model*” by Jafari and Richie (1981), “*the Indiscipline of Tourism*”

(Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004), and “*Tourism knowledge system*” (Tribe and Liburd, 2016). Additionally, the concept of postdiscipline is introduced as an alternative to understand how knowledge is generated beyond traditional disciplinary boundaries.

The focus then shifts to institutionalised knowledge production for knowledge, drawing from the works of Airey *et al.*, (2015); Ateljevic *et al.*, (2007); Belhassen and Caton (2009); Munar (2016); and Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2018). To further enhance the analyse, actor-network theory (ANT) is utilised to achieve a thorough comprehension of how hospitality knowledge is socially constructed within a school, department and academic community level in BS.

1.4 Methodological Approach

Exploratory research was adopted in this thesis to gain new insights and uncover previously unexplored issues, philosophically grounded in social constructionism. The thesis chose qualitative research, aiming to comprehend a research problem through participants’ lived experiences and perspectives, specifically hospitality academic tribe teaching and researching HHE in BS in Scotland. A case study design was used to facilitate a comprehensive understanding of hospitality knowledge production in BS. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the study faced travel restrictions, prompting a shift in the case study design. Data was collected from semi-structured interviews with thirteen academic staff in four institutions in Scotland via Zoom along with fieldnotes and diaries taken by the researcher. Such data was analysed via thematic analysis.

1.5 Key Contributions of the Thesis

The thesis makes a significant theoretical contribution by adopting discipline to comprehend the intellectual, social and institutional dimensions of hospitality knowledge. Intellectually, the thesis identifies mode 1 as a dominant approach to generate interdisciplinary knowledge for hospitality subject in BS. Whereas, mode 2 knowledge production focuses on problem-based knowledge through integration with broader social needs (industry and student demands), going beyond disciplinary boundaries to incorporate ideas from external stakeholders for practical application in education. Internal factors now play a larger role in shaping the quality of this knowledge, which is rigorously controlled to enhance university competitiveness.

Socially, hospitality academic staff have to fit their culture into BS context, increasingly integrating with business and management subjects while development the relevance of HHE in vocational education within BS. This shift highlights adaptability and resilience in academic settings, where academic discipline is not fixed entities. It rather is shaped by management gaze, credit system and educational model belonging to BS. Organisationally, there exists the academic legitimacy where scholarly work is increasingly influenced by corporate-like structures that emphasise annual output and performance metrics. While hospitality academic staff have autonomy over curriculum approach, they still have to follow these academic legitimacy standards.

While discipline remains important to generate hospitality knowledge. There is a transition to postdiscipline to create knowledge, allowing for openness and complexity that going beyond hospitality disciplinary boundaries. Using Darbellay (2019 a, b) perspective, a high level of disciplinarisation is prevalent in BS. This scenario reflects a rigours definition of discipline, emphasise business and management approach to determine the scope of hospitality subject. Within this framework, hospitality is seen as a sub-management subject to broaden its scope and make it different with other business and management subject. The use of industry knowledge to generate problem-based knowledge about hospitality is an example of such effort. The transition to postdiscipline, moreover, addresses complexity in production knowledge at institutional level, where knowledge is now seen as a product tailored to meet the demand of external stakeholders.

The practical implication of this research is based on a perspective of teaching HME in BS in Scotland. However, the finding is significant for hospitality academics within the UK as it provides more insights about how hospitality knowledge is produced, what forces shapes its development, and challenges related to designing curriculum and producing hospitality knowledge in institutional contexts such as school, department and academic community level. Such understandings can contribute to the advancement of HHE in wider university contexts. This in turn can help hospitality academics re-evaluate their own decisions regarding the provision of courses and knowledge production which can involve curriculum design and pedagogical choices.

1.6 The Thesis Outline

Chapter 1 sets the stage for the research by detailing on the research background, problem statement, aim and objectives, theoretical lens, methodological approach, research limitation and key contribution. Additionally, it provides the outline of the thesis.

Chapter 2 initiates with the introduction of disciplinary definition and its influence on knowledge production approaches in the educational context. It proceeds to explore the role of disciplines in tourism research, referencing “*Interdiscipline model*” by Jafari and Richie (1981), “*the Indiscipline of Tourism*” (Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004), and “*Tourism knowledge system*” (Tribe and Liburd, 2016). These models use disciplines to map out the nature of tourism knowledge, its sources, and its characteristics and define subject areas and mode of knowledge production for tourism courses. Subsequently, the chapter addresses limitations of disciplinary rethinking in creating knowledge and introduces postdiscipline as an alternative for traditional disciplinary thinking. The focus then shifts to institutionalised knowledge production for tourism, drawing from the works of Airey *et al.*, (2015); Ateljevic *et al.*, (2007); Belhassen and Caton (2009); Munar (2016); and Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2018).

A theoretical gap in understanding how hospitality knowledge network operates within university, department and academic community level is identified. It prompts the use of ANT as a methodology to gain a comprehensive understanding about how hospitality knowledge is socially constructed in an institutional context.

Chapter 2: The Context of Hospitality Higher Education in Scotland

The purpose of this chapter is to contextualise this study within the historic development of HHE in wider university education in the UK. It accomplishes this by delving into historical debates about the development of vocational education, specialised education and the dominant HME for HHE in university level. Additionally, it introduces the social, private and commercial dimension of hospitality as a comprehensive conceptual framework to study hospitality, the way hospitality is theorised and how it is different with tourism in hospitality research. The last part of this chapter delineates the backdrop of university education in the UK driven by neoliberalism. Subsequently, the focus shifts to university education in Scotland, examining its influences on knowledge production in university and the role of vocational education in Scotland.

2.1 Historic Development of Hospitality Higher Education in the United Kingdom

Historically, the traditional root of HHE in the UK lies in vocational and specialised education before the relocation in BS. This section below will focus on these major developments with a view to gain more understanding about hospitality knowledge, where it comes from and how it is constructed.

2.1.1 A Vocational Subject

In tracing the historic development of HHE in the UK, the narrative unfolds from its early stages as a relatively young academic subject compared with more established subjects such as law, medicine or management and business (Morrison and O’Gorman, 2008, p. 219). Right from the scratch, hospitality was seen as a vocational subject in HE. Its provision focused on technical and operational skill related to food and drink and culinary tradition (Evans, 1988; Gillespie and Baum, 2000; Tribe, 2005, p. 281), hotel operational subjects and practical training (i.e in-house training kitchens, bars and restaurants) (Morrison and O’Mahony, 2002) and food laboratories (Nailon, 1982 cited in Airey and Tribe, 2000, p. 277; Jones, 2004; Airey, Dredge and Gross, 2015, p. 6; Wood, 2015b, p. 328). The very first vocational courses, named Hotel and Catering Management, was offered by vocational schools and polytechnics. The provision began in University of Surrey in 1964 in England, followed by University of Strathclyde in 1965 in Scotland (Airey and Tribe, 2005, p.16), then further offered

by polytechnics from the 1970s to 1980s (Wood, 2015b, p. 136) and universities since 2000s. These vocational courses aimed to produce front line workers with practical skills tailored for specific roles such as chiefs, cooks, waiters within the hospitality industry (Airey and Tribe, 2000; Alexander, 2007; Wood, 2015 a, b). Such vocational training to meet the industry need was accepted as “*academic respectability*” (Wood, 2015 b, p. 329) for a young academic subject as hospitality (Airey and Tribe, 2000, p. 77). The practical training has long been regarded as a tradition and uniqueness of hospitality vocational subject compared with other business and management subjects in the university context. However, criticism has been levelled at this traditional practical training, particularly for its failure to adequately represent the diverse landscape of the foodservice sector (Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009). The technical training for food and beverage does not meet up with the academic education in university. Also, in today’ context, the emphasis has shifted away from technical skills to a greater demand for management and generic competencies within the industry, rendering traditional food and beverage experience less pivotal in preparing students for their career path.

From the end of 1970s to the early/mid-1990s, a shift occurred from vocational training to vocational education, emphasising a broader understanding of the hospitality industry and the development of management and generic skills. The change began with changing course titles - moving from hotel and catering to hospitality education and a shift toward operational and hospitality management subjects (i.e food, beverage and accommodation management, hospitality-specific management subjects) (Jones, 2004, p. 39). A business-oriented approach gained transaction in teaching pedagogies (Tribe, 2005, p. 281). Many authors (Morrison and O’Mahony, 2002; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009; Lashley, 2013, 2015) have seen this change as a shift from solely practical skills to a comprehensive approach that creates a balance among practical skills with leadership skills, commercial skills, and transferable skills. Consequently, students are equipped with broader spectrum of management skills to meet their future job requirements (Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009).

The shift prompts questions regarding the role of vocational education to hospitality career development, pondering whether hospitality management education

(HME) is necessary to train managers. The focus on management education for hospitality managerial positions is evident (Lashley, 2015). Hence, the prioritisation of managerial training to improve operational skills or industrial placement to gain working experience is seen as more important than technical training related to food and drink. Arguably, this shift signifies a move from food and drink scientific perspective training toward HME (Wood, 2015 a, p. 29). Since then, HME has become as a main direction for teaching HHE in university level.

2.1.2 Specialised Education

From the mid-1990s to the 2000s, a number of institutions started offering standalone hospitality degrees focusing solely on HME in hotel schools which were separated with BSs. These programs provided students with hospitality management subjects such as accounting, strategic management, human resource management (HRM) specifically related to the hospitality industry along with food and beverage management. This approach marked a departure from traditional HE models and was termed as the “*iconoclasm and isolation of HHE from the management and social science education*” (Wood, 2015 b, p. 140). This model aimed to attract industry and students by providing a practical and industry-relevant education (Baum, 2012, p. 53). Moreover, it sought to maintain the uniqueness of hospitality subject as a distinctive service-oriented field based on host-guest relation, setting it apart from other business and management disciplines (Nailon, 1982; Slattery, 2002; Jones, 2004; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009; Tews and Van Hoof, 2011, p. 122). In this way, the establishment of specialised hospitality education institutions such as hotel schools was seen as a distinct trend to improve the status of hospitality as a professional education in HE (Wood, 2015 b).

The overarching evolution of HHE initially starts from vocational training to vocational education and further to specialised hospitality education in hotel schools. It reflects a broader trend termed a “*vocational drift*” in the university sector (Teichler, 1996, p. 99), in other words, the corporation of vocational training into teaching curriculum at university level to meet the industry demand (Barnett, 1990, p.158). However, this model of separated hospitality education for professional education received criticism. It was perceived to perpetuate the notion of hospitality as a low-skill industry (Baum, 2012, p. 53), and a “*workforce training program*” (Tews and

Van Hoof, 2011, p. 122). There were concerns about the lack of high-skill training and a need for universities to offer specialised programs solely focused on one industry (Tews and Van Hoof, 2011, p. 123). Some argued hospitality education should not be isolated but integrated within broader business and management disciplines for professional education (Slattery, 2002; 2003).

2.1.3 Hospitality Management Education in Business Schools

Since 2000s, a number of universities in the region have decided to change the provision of HHE by locating these courses into BSs, driven by the changing landscape of university education (Wood, 2015a). These changes include the introduction of tuition fee, the end of binary division allowing polytechnics to become new universities, the growing importance of RAE for state funding and university ranking. As a result, universities providing HHE programs under significant pressures, particularly in striking a balance between vocational and academic education due to economic and organisational factors (Gillespie and Baum, 2000). According to Coleman *et al.*, (2003, p. 3), there was a recognised necessity to transition from solely practical skills to a blend that include leadership, commercial acumen, and transferable skills.

Several universities have faced multifaceted challenges in teaching hospitality subjects, accentuated by the pervasive influence of research metrics and an audit culture (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009, p. 198). The relentless pursuit of “*research excellence*” exerts significant pressure on HHE (Lynch *et al.*, 2011), requiring a delicatated balance between research productivity, maintaining strong industry relevance to deliver employability-focused student experiences, all within funding resource constraints (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017, p. 14). However, the historically vocational nature of HHE potentially impacts the quality of research-informed teaching these programs more profoundly than other management courses. The RAE review in 2002 points out a low research quality within the field of hospitality due to mostly conceptual work, extended literature reviews, reliance on small pilot studies and theories borrowed from management sciences. Hospitality has frequently been added in Business and Management submissions for RAE and Research Excellence Framework (REF) assessments, a classification that has not consistently benefited the

independent intellectual development of hospitality (Littlejohn, 2004). Hospitality was not recognised as an independent discipline but rather a sub-area of business and management disciplines (Wood, 2015). Before 2015, hospitality journals receive lower ranking in the Association of BS' Academics Journal Guide. While there were some improvements in 2015 edition of the Guide for hospitality journals, RAE and associated metric-driven practices have posed challenges for the field. These pressures, coupled with the escalating costs of providing HHE, have undoubtedly deterred institutional investment in teaching these courses (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017, p. 14).

Remarkably, between 2010 to 2017, a decreased government funding, a growing trend toward marketisation in HE, and heightened competition among universities for student enrolment considerably impacts the provision of HHE (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017, p. 170). Consequently, a number of UK universities decided to discontinue standalone-hospitality programs within hotel schools and offer hospitality programs as part of broader business and management degrees. These programs were housed within faculties and schools of business and law in BS. One concrete example of this shift is the decision made by University of Strathclyde to close Hospitality and Tourism Hotel School and move these programs to Strathclyde BS (Baum, 2008 cited in Lugosi, Lynch and Morrison, 2009, p. 1473). The significant shift leaves academic teaching hospitality programs in universities uncertain about the future of HHE.

In numerous UK universities, hospitality management programs have been shared in this entire school. Students would study generic business and management modules as common subjects with wider business students. These subjects are more generic and have little relevance to the specifics of the hospitality sector (Lashley, 2015, p. 365). In other words, the transition into BS involves a notable shift from standalone hospitality degrees to business or management degrees in hospitality, offering students "*combined degrees with arts, social science*" (Bird, van de Mortel, Holt and Walo, 2015, p. 20). Following to this change, students would study generic business and management modules such as marketing or HRM in wider BS alongside hospitality-related subjects taught by hospitality faculties (Tews and Van Hoof, 2011, p. 122). While this management-oriented focus for HHE helps elevate the academic

status and legitimacy of hospitality compared to other established subjects as business and management, it concurrently raises concerns. Notably, the vocational education for food and beverage or room services is cut down or stopped in some universities (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017, p. 170), which leads to uncertainty about the vocational identity of HHE (Airey, 2008, p. 28). Consequently, academic staffs tasked with teaching hospitality programs at the university level grapple with a dilemma. It revolves around whether they should find ways to maintain tradition vocational training and hospitality- related subjects as an identity for hospitality subject or make changes to fit into current context of BS which focus on general business and management subjects (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017, p. 171).

To this point, hospitality as an academic subject in HE, faces challenges in establishing itself as a respected field due to its vocational origin to meet the industry's demand for skilled workers. The dominant HME leads to a narrow focus on commercial aspect of hospitality, business and management thinking to generate hospitality knowledge for hospitality subject at HE (Tribe, 2003; Morrison and O' Gorman, 2008). The emphasis on management sides of hospitality, which is defined as providing food, accommodation and entertainment for profit, has shaped the trajectory of hospitality curriculum for teaching. Many scholars (Airey and Tribe, 2000; Lugosi *et al.*, 2009; Lashley, 2013) have agreed that hospitality programs should not only provide practical skills and competences but also call for comprehensive understanding of hospitality which promote critical, reflective, and creative thinking. It means, hospitality education should go beyond its relevance in terms of preparing workforce for the industry. More importantly, this approach aligns with the broader purpose of HE, which, as articulated by Giroux (2009, p. 674), does not merely impart knowledge and new perspectives to students but also plays a pivotal role in building "*their identities, values, and sense of what it means to become citizens of the world*". This perspective raises a need to explore more about hospitality knowledge production in HE as to what kind of hospitality knowledge should be produced.

2.2 Commercial, Private and Social Dimension of Hospitality

2.2.1 The Commercial Dimension of Hospitality

Since the 1980s, the term "*hospitality management*" has been used widely, replacing earlier labels such as "*hotel and catering management*" in reference to HHE

(Wood, 2015b, p. 328-329). However, the use of “*hospitality management*” functions more like a broader descriptor, carrying forward the diverse meanings associated with its predecessors. The prevailing understanding, as indicated by statements from education bodies like a Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE, 1998, p. 2), often emphasises the management of food, beverages and/or accommodation within a service-oriented environment. Hence, HHE encompasses a range of programs, from “*hospitality management, hotel management, restaurant management, catering management, culinary arts, events and conferencing management, cruise management and gaming management*” (Rees, Forbes and Kubler, 2006). The curriculum of such programs focuses on equipping students with relevant skills and knowledge to effectively management food, beverage and accommodation services in the industry.

Nailon (1982, p. 135) points out a limitation on conceptual understanding of hospitality knowledge and the meaning of “*hospitality management*”. In his view, hospitality is unique and different with other disciplines, hence it is necessary to establish an own field to study hospitality and its implication on other fields. Wood (2015a, p. 328) supports this view, expressing concern that the term “*hospitality management*” fails to adequately clarify the nature and scope of the subject area in terms of an academic field. This dominance limits the exploration of broader social, cultural, and ethical dimensions of hospitality. It can narrow the understanding of hospitality graduates, perpetuating the notion that the industry solely exists to serve customers and/or provide future job opportunities (Pritchard and Morgan, 2007, pp. 12–28). Additionally, hospitality management, as conceptualised by Brotherton and Wood (2000), is described as the application of one set of intellectual constructs and practices (management) to another (hospitality), within the context being specific to the hospitality industry. Namely, the commercial hospitality encompasses a range of activities that centre around host-guest relationship when services (i.e meals, beverage, lodging, and entertainment) are provided to guests.

However, the commercial domain of hospitality has predominantly focussed on operational roots and managerial perspectives, overlooking broader aspects. This narrow focus limits the field’s potential for intellectual growth and academic distinction for hospitality. This can lead to the subordination of hospitality within

broader BS model (Lehto *et al.*, 2024). For example, the commercial hospitality forms the foundations for legitimising hospitality as an academic field, its early focus on practical and vocational aspects hindered its evolution as a respectable academic subject (Tribe, 2003; Morrison and O' Gorman, 2008). In this case, scholars as Lugosi (2008) and Lugosi *et al.*, (2009) acknowledge that the needs to juxtapose the commercial and utilitarian conception of hospitality with its social, cultural, and emotional dimensions to expand hospitality knowledge.

2.2.2 The Private Dimension of Hospitality

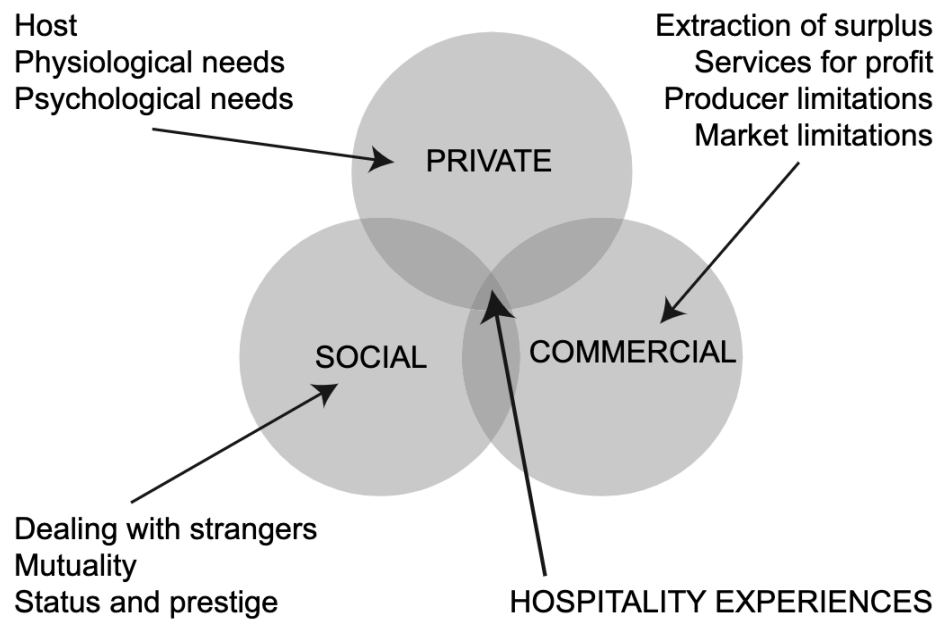
The previous section describes the commercial hospitality that pertains to the production and consumption of hospitality and related services for profit enhancement. It encompasses the offering of overnight accommodation (Jones, 1996), food and drink services (Brotherton and Wood, 2000). This domain is inherently driven by profit motives, which involves a wide array of services provided by business in the hospitality industry, such as hotels, restaurants and catering establishments.

Since the 2000s, a growing body of scholars (Brotherton, 1999; Brotherton and Wood, 2008) have advocated for a more expansive understanding hospitality beyond its commercial dimension. This perspective has led to a significant broadening of hospitality knowledge, embracing a more comprehensive engagement with social disciplines. Notably, a group of fourteen outstanding scholars in the field (Lashley and Morrison, 2002; Morrison and O'Gorman, 2008; Lugosi, Lynch and Morrison, 2009) have collectively introduced a conceptual framework to understand the multifaceted nature of hospitality world. This framework includes three distinct domains of hospitality, namely, social, private/domestic and commercial dimensions (figure 1), which is published in the book "*In search of Hospitality: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates*" (Lashley and Morrison, 2000).

The private domain of hospitality acknowledges it is an intimate and personal activity. Within this sphere, it is enriched with symbols, rituals, duties, privileges and cultural values. Private hospitality is exemplified by the sharing of food, a significant catalyst in relationship development. Friendship, sharing, and reciprocity emerge as central elements within the host-guest relationship, particularly among friends or family (O'Mahony, 2015, p. 30). Understand in this way, the private aspect of

hospitality refers to physiological and psychological needs of guests and hosts are expected to deliver. In recent years, there has been considerable interest in studying the private domain of hospitality. At one level, the domestic environment is recognised as a vital space for understanding the roles of hosts and the obligations involved in hosting guests (Kunwar, 2017). Alternatively, experiences with food, drink and hosting provide valuable inspiration for individuals entering restaurants business (Lashley, Lynch and Morrison, 2007).

Figure 1: Three-domain of Hospitality



Source: Adapted from O'Mahony (2015, p. 33).

2.2.3 The Social Dimension of Hospitality

Meanwhile, social hospitality explores the social contexts where hospitality is both created and enjoyed under the influence of social forces and cultural norms (Lashley and Morrison, 2000; Lashley, Lynch and Morrison, 2007). This perspective extends the definitions of hospitality to encompass the values and norms of hospitality provision, emphasising the protection of guests and mutual well-being of hosts and guests, the status and prestige. It revives the idea that in ancient subsistence cultures, beliefs about hospitality and obligations to others are deeply interconnected with perspective about society and order of things (Thio, 2005). Social hospitality is

observed within a wider social context, encompassing the cultivation, creation, distribution, preparation, and consumption of foods and beverage, influenced by culturally shaped food habits. The majority of social hospitality occurs on an occasional basis, often on a small scale, and is typically provided by host or hostess themselves, often in their own home. Each social hospitality experience is unique and personalised for each guest. It is different with commercial hospitality operations which are largely demand-led, with customers having greater control over their hospitality experiences.

Lashley, Lynch and Morrison (2007) advocate to view hospitality as a social phenomenon wherein the host-guest relationship lies at its core, with the meaning of this relationship dependent on social-cultural contexts. This social lens offers insights into societal relationship, considering hospitality as a mirror reflecting social norms, values, beliefs and ideologies. They suggest nine themes of hospitality (see table 1) with hospitality as a human phenomenon being the dominant one, followed by domestic discourse, commercial inclusion and exclusion, legal aspects, performance, spatial politics, types and locations, and social and cultural dimensions. Together, these themes constitute a conceptual framework for understanding hospitality.

Table 1: A summary of themes about hospitality through a social lens

Host/Guest interaction	In some cases, hosts accept the role of authority, while in others, they do not.
Inclusion/ Exclusion	Some strangers are welcomed and transformed into guests, while others are not.
Laws	Norms, standards, principles and obligations are defined within the social and cultural contexts
Performance	The symbolism of authentic meaning and staged authenticity is illustrated through the host guest interaction.
Domestic discourse	Domestic settings, gender dynamics and practices are observed in the host-guest interaction.
Spatial politics	Boundaries that delineate inclusion and exclusion, encompassing domestic and commercial discourses.

Types and sites	The various forms and locations play a central role in shaping the host/ guest interaction as the core of the hospitality.
Commerce	Commercial hospitality is just one aspect among several social dimensions of host/guest interaction
Social-cultural dimension	Specific norms emerge from the interactions between hosts and guests within their social cultural contexts.

Source: Adopted from Causevic, and Lynch (2009, p. 126).

The three-domain model plays a significant role in delineating the uniqueness of the hospitality world in broader social sciences, transcending the limitations of a purely business-oriented domain (Brotherton, 2003; Lashley, 2008; O' Gorman, 2007). Lashley and Morrison (2000) underscore the importance of exploring hospitality not only in the commercial setting, but also social and private aspects related to human interaction and culture. Hospitality is acknowledged as a major contributor to the service economy, holding significance in the global economy and standing as one of the largest employers worldwide, secondly only to armed forces (Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa, 2009, p. 269). The sector's impact extends beyond its commercial aspects, incorporating social and private interactions between hosts and guests in various context. In this way, hospitality programs in HE should provide students with expanded knowledge which is not limited to the functional conception of commercial hospitality (Lashley, Lynch and Morrison, 2007; Lugosi, 2008, 2009).

2.2.4 Hospitality Management and Hospitality Studies

The narrow on business and management thinking to generate hospitality knowledge is common not only in hospitality education but research also for several decades (Brotherton and Wood, 2000, p. 145; Kunwar, 2017, p. 85). A majority of hospitality research has been published in management and business journals and centred around commercial interests (i.e consumer demand, staff motivation, service quality to improve efficiency) (Brotherton and Wood, 2000, p. 144; Tribe, 2003, p. 143), and the application of management and business theories (i.e marketing,

management, finance) to interpret the hospitality phenomenon (Nailon, 1982; Jone, 2004, p. 38; Wood, 2004). Many authors have seen opportunities in using social sciences or arts to expand hospitality knowledge toward social, cultural, political and ethical perspectives (Morrison and O’Gorman, 2008; Lugosi *et al.*, 2009). It can help generate interdisciplinary hospitality knowledge and hospitality theory (Lugosi, 2009; Lashley, 2015).

In hospitality research, a dominant way to theorise hospitality is through hospitality management which primarily concentrates on hospitality as industry, commercial enterprise, and associated business and management aspects (Morrison and Lynch, 2007). This approach assumes that managing hospitality involves the management of commercial organisations providing key services like food, drink, and accommodation. Hence, hospitality management mainly involves the adoption of management theories and knowledge borrowed from finance, HRM, marketing discipline (O’Mahony, 2015, p. 29) to understand the management aspect of hospitality (Brotherton and Wood, 2000, p. 145) such as hospitality marketing and consumptions (Jones, 2004).

The three-domain framework to conceptualise hospitality prompts a shift in theorising hospitality within the contemporary hospitality academic community. Hospitality studies emerges as an alternative way for hospitality management in generating hospitality knowledge (Lynch *et al.*, 2011). Social sciences and related disciplines are applied to analyse hospitality as both a business and cultural phenomenon (Lashley, Lynch and Morrison 2007). In this way, hospitality is seen as a social lens that encompasses social relations, spatial configurations and power structures (Lynch *et al.*, 2011, p. 14-15). It does not assume a particular context (i.e homes or hotels), objects (i.e foods and beverage) or actors (i.e hosts and guests) as in the management sciences. Hospitality studies embrace an interdisciplinary perspective, utilising disciplines such as history, gender studies, philosophy to understand hospitality.

Morrison and O’Gorman (2008, p. 216) provide examples of social sciences in the study of hospitality. Anthropology observes hospitality practices in specific cultural contexts; archaeology studies historical hospitality structures; and gender studies delves into the role of sociability and physical attractiveness in the hospitality

industry. Additionally, philosophy endeavours to uncover the reality and principles that underlie hospitality as a phenomenon while social history investigates the social role of hospitality, particularly community formation.

While the commercial aspect is crucial, there is a growing acknowledgement of the need for a combined approach that encompass both management and studies, recognising hospitality's unique position that starts with guest-host relationship management (Lehto *et al.*, 2022). The combination can help develop the intellectual independence of hospitality as a discipline in research (Lashley, 2008; Lashley and Morrison, 2000; Lugosi, 2009).

2.3 Hospitality and Tourism

The use of the terms hospitality and tourism can be used differently, which stems from a complex interplay of perspectives, contexts, and academic traditions (Lehto *et al.*, 2024). In tourism and hospitality education studies, these terms can be sometime used interchangeably. Dale and Robinson (2001, p.31) point out the “*interchangeable*” use of the terminologies of “*tourism, leisure and hospitality to describe industries, academic departments and degree programmes*”. Scholars such as Brotherton and Wood (2000), and Lashley (2008) have acknowledged the confusion around the definitions of hospitality in research while others (e.g. Jones, 1996, p. 6-7; Brotherton, 1999) call for a clear framework to differentiate between studies focusing solely on tourism and those centred on hospitality.

Other scholars (i.e Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa, 2009; Kunwar, 2017) have distinguished hospitality from tourism. Kunwar (2017) presents two perspectives, indicating that the connection between tourism and hospitality can vary depending on perspectives. From a social standpoint, tourism encompasses the commercial aspect of hospitality, focusing on the guest-host relationship. From a commercial perspective, tourism refers to destinations, whereas hospitality represents the operational aspect of commercial units. The author contends that hospitality and tourism are inseparable from the visitor's viewpoint, integral to their consumption experiences. Added to this, Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa (2009, p. 265) distinguish hospitality as a field focusing on operations while tourism is defined as the practice of travelling for pleasure and business. They emphasise the broader practical relevance of hospitality, providing products and service primarily for the local

community and travellers, highlighting the importance of place in understanding the dynamic between hospitality and tourism.

As a vocational subject, both tourism and hospitality face challenges in fitting into the changing university context. This challenge requires further attention amidst serious financial pressures and competitions universities face in attracting student enrolment and improving ranking (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009; Dredge *et al.*, 2013). Airey's (2016) delineation of four stages in the historic development of tourism education in HE highlights a contemporary struggle. Initially, tourism education focused on vocational training for practical skills with strong business orientation during the industrial stage (1960s-1970s), followed by an undefined curriculum content expansion during 1980s-1990s, an agreement on a broader curriculum encompassing interdisciplinary perspectives and more philosophical approach emerged in the 2000s. However, the challenges arise in the current era starting from 2010 onward, where tourism education seems mature with knowledge production toward social science and pedagogy issues. Despite these stages, debates persist on curriculum approaches, with a central challenge being the need to preserve its vocational identity and nurture distinct aspects of tourism knowledge within a metric-driven and market-oriented world (Airey, 2015; 2016, p. 12). This task is particularly challenging as tourism is often viewed as a young and in need of asserting its academic status in HE (Airey, 2015, p. 13). Airey *et al.*, (2015) come to a conclusion that,

"In dealing with a current world issue that provide a vehicle for exploring so many different aspects of challenges facing modern societies- economic, social, environment, philosophical and without being bound to particular approaches, tourism is extraordinary well place to provide education and research suited the needs of stewardship of a complex world". (p. 148)

This task is not an easy in this present time when Covid-19 pandemic has further highlighted the need to reassess the value and future of higher tourism education as a "serious" academic subject to compete with other established subjects in universities (Edelheim, 2020, p. 549).

To this point, vocational education as hospitality has undergone historical development tailored to the context of university. However, the changing context of university introduces uncertainty regarding the continued development of these programs, especially concerning about the knowledge production aligned with this changing context. As a result, the relocation of HHE into BS represents a novel challenge that require in-depth more exploration, forming a critical aspect of the research interest in this thesis.

2.4 Neoliberalism Impact on the Changing Ideas of University Education in the United Kingdom

The preceding discussion (section 2.2 and 2.3) highlights the inquiry into a holistic understanding of hospitality knowledge production within the specific context of BS. This question gains paramount importance for further exploration in the changing landscape of university education in the UK driven by neoliberalism.

Neoliberalism, a modern iteration of liberalism, emerges as a predominant influencer on current thinking of university education in the UK (Apple, 2001; Harvey, 2005, 2006) since the 1980s, championed by influential figures like Margaret Thatcher in the UK (Davies, 2014). It represents a revival of classical liberal principles, particularly those rooted in classical economic liberalism, which encompass several key tenets (Olssen and Peters, 2005, pp. 314-315). It promotes the idea of individual as self-interested economic actors, advocating for free market economics as the most efficient way to allocate resources and opportunities. It also emphasises laissez-faire principles, contending that free market can self-regulate more efficiently than external forces or government intervention. Finally, neoliberalism prioritises free trade, calling for the elimination of tariffs, subsidies and any state-imposed protections or support.

In this neoliberal framework, the role of the state is redefined as one that fosters an institutional environment conducive to individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills, marked by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trades (Harvey, 2006, p. 145). This shift extends beyond the private sector, encompassing the public sector such as education (Apple, 2001). Neoliberalism has had a profound impact on HE, an area heavily reliant on government funding in many countries (Tight, 2019, p. 274). In the UK, the transformation of HE, marked by multiple crises, can be traced attributed to the ascent of neoliberalism starting in the mid-1970s (Radice, 2013, p.

407- 408). Neoliberalism in HE is underpinned by four interrelated processes: privatisation, deregulation, financialisation and globalisation (ibid.).

Historically, education including HE, has not been strongly associated with markets. However, neoliberalism has permeated education, emphasising achievement and measurable outcomes (Tight, 2019, p. 274). The neoliberalism agenda aims to transform all aspects of life into productive endeavors, marketizing social interactions and extracting value. Education occupies a pivotal position in this agenda by mitigating the decline in profit rates and facilitating accumulation. Neoliberalism has spurred the marketisation of social life, impacting formal and informal educational institutions and spaces such as universities and massive open online courses. Learning analytics, big data, mobility and flexible delivery methods are utilised to redefine and shape the roles of staff and students as entrepreneurial subjects (ibid.).

This contemporary backdrop, shaped by neoliberalism, sets the current landscape of knowledge production within the UK university education. Its core objectives prioritise international competitiveness, profit, and discipline within the educational landscape (Apple, 2001). It promotes entrepreneurial freedom within a framework characterised by private property rights, individual liberty, free markets and free trade (Harvey, 2006). In England, since the 2000s, neoliberalism has introduced elements of “*competition, markets, performativity and quality assurance*” as central purposes of governmental educational policies (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009, p. 191). This impact has triggered significant transformations in the landscape of university education, including a focus on the economic function of education, intensified competitions among institutions, and managerialism practices in HE including universities.

The focus on economic needs and the emergence of entrepreneurial universities

The impact of neoliberalism on HE is discernible through the emergence of a novel consensus that highlights the intricate interplay between HE and the economy (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009, p. 198). This phenomenon encompasses two fundamental discursive strategies, referred to as legitimisation and implementation (Apple, 2001). The legitimisation strategy is intricately tied to the unprecedented necessity for HE to establish its role in economic advancement and wealth generation, often shadowing other previously associated values. Neoliberalism’s ideologies essence

arises from its resolute focus on the individual choice or the market model, which tends to marginalise competing and alternative perspectives. This strategy of legitimisation finds expression through incessant policy mandates that consistently delineate featuring objectives and principles of HE, featuring the dynamics of inclusion and exclusion (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009, p. 198).

The impact of neoliberalism has redefined the purpose of HE in the UK, leading to a shift where universities are increasingly viewed as institutions designed to address the economic needs of the society by producing job-ready graduates (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009). This transformation took place during the 1980s, marked by education policies such as White Papers, “*Learning to Succeed: A New Framework for Post-16 Learning*” (DfEE, 1999) issued by the Labour government, which emphasised the instrumental role of HE, including university education, to support the national economy (DES, 1987). The focus shifted toward preparing competent workers with relevant skills for employments. This shift emphasised on the needs of employers rather than the broader societal benefits of education as producing fully developed citizens with civil knowledge to contribute to their local and global societies (Giroux, 2007 cited in Caton, 2014, p. 27).

In this context, the idea of university education in the UK has changed comprehensively, which have been documented by Barnett for several decades (1990, 1992, 1994, 2000, 2005, 2011, 2013, 2016, 2018). As followed, the purpose of university education has shifted from meeting the social needs (public needs) to addressing the (immediate) employment and operational requirements of students and industry (private needs) (Barnett, 2005; Giroux, 2014). Education consequently is viewed as private rather than public goods (Belhassen and Calton, 2011). Wang, Ayres and Huyton (2009, p. 69) echo this sentiment, stating that contemporary education, particularly in political discourse since the 1990s, is centred on preparing individuals for the workforce. The rationale behind this perspective is that HE must align closely with the needs of employers to remain relevant because,

“If education cannot supply job-ready people, then why governments fund it and why would students choose it? Knowledge for knowledge’s sake is an

idealistic unaffordable luxury, and higher education must be relevant to the needs of employers”. (Wang, Ayres and Huyton, 2009, p. 69)

Policy makers have responded by placing a premium on aligning education with workforce demands, placing greater emphasis on practical utility and employability (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009). This shift has driven universities to adopt market-oriented practices, seeking to cater to employers’ needs and generate revenue from students’ fees. The influence of neoliberalism has given rise to a new breed of universities- the entrepreneurial universities- which aims to generate profit and reduce dependence on state funding. Barnet’s categorisation of universities into the ivory tower aiming at providing pure knowledge, the professionalised university or disciplined university focusing on discipline-based knowledge activities and advancement of own self-interests, and the entrepreneurial university driven by the profit-making target (Barnet, 2011, p. 32). Different with the two previous types, the entrepreneurial university is characterised by knowledge production largely held apart from the world but also applied and sold to the world. The entrepreneurial university model emphasises applied and contextualised knowledge production, allowing students to engage in learning beyond traditional classrooms.

Intensified competition, pursuit of excellence and changing functions of universities

Neoliberal policies have fostered competitions among universities for attracting students, state funding, and top-qualified professors, which leads to a need for universities to distinguish themselves and demonstrate excellence (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009, p. 198; Delanty, 2001). This shift is discernible in universities’ mission statements and program brochures, which highlight their strengths in terms of renowned faculty, expansive research, state-of-art facilities, industry affiliations, accreditations and graduate employability. This competitive landscape is further reflected in structured such as RAE, now the REF which serves as a pivotal example of managerialism’s influence on HE (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017). These RAEs, through peer reviews, evaluate the quality of research and allocate funding accordingly, aligning research more closely with commercial and political interests.

The pursuit of excellence has transformed universities into internal market, where relative value-for-money become a primary question. This often results in a focus on immediate results and practical utility rather than the traditional mission of advancing knowledge. Consequently, tensions have arisen regarding the traditional purposes of university education, which historically revolved around research and professional training. These tensions challenge the core function of knowledge transmission within universities. Traditionally, universities were seen as knowledge producers and custodians of culture with a spiritual mission (Delanty, 2001). This transformation raises the crucial question of whether the university, stripped of its broader knowledge mission, can avoid becoming merely a bureaucratic arm of the capitalism system. In the quest for excellence and economic viability, universities risk losing their essence as institutions that foster critical thinking, understanding and the critique of ideas. The pressure to perform and conform to market-driven measures can undermine the very foundations of HE and its role in shaping informed and engaged citizens.

Moreover, the intensification of accountability and performance evaluation has fostered an “*audit culture*” in public organisations including universities, accentuating an emphasis on measurable outcomes and market-applicable skills and competencies (Caton, 2014, p. 27). The shift has downgraded the traditional role of universities as defender of culture and raised concerns about the university system becoming too oriented toward practical utility rather than the pursuit of pure knowledge. As HE institutions adapt to economic constraints, user-pays principles, and research tied to business needs, academics have internalised profit-oriented values (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997). This transformation is underpinned by an ideology steeped in economic principles, reshaping universities into procedures of commodities driven by consumer preferences and perceived brand image (Deem, Hillyard and Reed, 2007). Within this framework, academics are required to align their work with performance management objectives, providing regular evidence of their contribution to research targets and customer satisfaction (Harley, 2005). The pervasive ideology of market-oriented rationality leads many academics to view deviations from this norm as impractical or disconnected from the competitive financial realities facing universities.

Furthermore, universities have undergone a significant transformation in their perception of knowledge, now viewing knowledge as raw commodity that can be produced, safeguarded and traded in markets (Kauppinen, 2013). This shift has seen universities evolve from mere knowledge suppliers to active participants in the marketplace, even engaging in the sale of assets such as intellectual property rights and educational products, namely degrees. This transformation highlights the intricate nature of knowledge production within university and reflects the trends toward heightened commercialisation and market-oriented practices. In this context, academics find themselves navigating complex tensions between their traditional roles as knowledge generators, public intellectuals and pressures to meet metrics-driven performance evaluation for knowledge production. Although academic knowledge shares characteristics with public goods, such as being non-rivalrous and non-excludable, "*tacit knowledge such as expertise*", which is not universally accessible (ibid, p. 403).

However, as universities adapt to changing societal demands, tensions have emerged. The multifunctionality of universities has made it challenging to define an overarching mission, and debates ensued about the balance between research and professional training (Delanty, 2001). The perceived divergence between research and training has posed a threat to the core function of knowledge transmission within universities, as knowledge became increasingly associated with practical utility. Driven by the neoliberalism impact, these tensions have questioned the university's relevance and cultural function. Some argue that the founding cognitive ideas of universities such as the university of knowledge and the quest for truth, are becoming irrelevant in the face of neoliberal instrumentalisation. From this perspective, universities risk being perceived as ruined institutions that have lost its historical purpose and succumbed to corporate bureaucratisation (Readings, 1997).

Managerialism and complexity in knowledge production

The impact of neoliberalism on university has led to the rise of managerialism, reinforcing business-like practices within academia. Managerialism, a facet of neoliberalism, entails the adoption of a management-oriented approach in the public sector to achieve efficiency and better performance (Marginson and Considine, 2000).

This shift transforms universities into entities that resemble business, engaging in competitions for students, funding and recognition. Newson (1994, p. 152) characterises this shift in HE as a transformation from “*collegial self-governance*” to a mode of institutional decision-making dominated by managerialism. This new approach links institutional activities more directly with “*external constituencies like governments, the business community, funding agencies*”, reorienting universities toward the production and dissemination of market knowledge, rather than the traditional “*creation, preservation and dissemination of social knowledge to the production, and distribution of market knowledge*” (ibid).

As stated by Barnett (2000, 2005), managerialism, enterprise, market, standards represent rival ideologies that shape each university’s character, creating complexity for knowledge production in universities. Nowadays, universities operate within multi-dimensional markets (including national and international student recruitment, research, enterprise) while simultaneously needing to ensure financial stability and adhere to regulatory standards. They are tasked with producing high-quality research, meeting students’ expectation, and enhancing graduate employability. This complexity has led to debates about the university’s education role in serving society’s human and cultural capital needs and its research role in creating relevant knowledge (Delanty, 2001). In the twentieth century, universities evolve to serve the economic needs of society by producing technological expertise and training professional elites. Kerr’s classic study (2001) introduced the concept of the “*multiversity*”, acknowledging the university’s multiple roles, including research, professional training, general education and cultural development. Despite the diversification of roles, the university’s autonomy to define its knowledge based remain intact. At the heart of academic position lies the question of knowledge production in the modern university, Barnett (2005, p. 788) highlights the tension between universities’ claim to universalism and society’s critique of their perceived epistemological narrowness. While universities emphasise inclusivity in knowledge production, the widening of disciplines and the expansion of knowledge have attracted criticism from the broader society. To this point, undoubtedly, the changing landscape of university education in the UK, specifically the impact of neoliberalism sets the

complex context for knowledge production in university. Such context needs further exploration in this thesis.

2.5 University Education in Scotland

As the scope of this thesis is hospitality knowledge production in BS in Scotland, it is worth to exploring university education and vocational education in Scotland, to understand how it is similar and different with that in the UK. Such exploration enhances the contextual picture for the research aim and objectives.

2.5.1 University Education in Scotland versus England

Although Scotland shares many similarities with education in the UK as a whole, significant divergences have emerged since devolution in the late 1990s (Macpherson, 2015). In England, students typically choose their specialisation for university education at an early stage, often during their time in secondary schools. This specialisation allows them to study a narrow curriculum with specialised subjects based on their choice. Meanwhile, in Scotland, students follow a broad approach which allows them to take several different subjects during their first two years before choosing their specialisation. It means, Scottish students take general education before specializing the choice of subjects (Malamud, 2010, p. 360).

An undergraduate degree in Scotland generally lasts for four years for most subjects, which allows students to obtain an honour's undergraduate degree. The four-year degrees are relatively unique in the UK context. It allows students to have flexibility in studying and gaining a broader knowledge by taking a number of subjects. The first two years can be completed before specialising a major in the last two years. Changes can be made with no lost time. This flexibility is beneficial for students' learning as they can have greater opportunities for studying abroad, non-traditional entry qualifications or engage in research during the third or fourth year. On the other hand, international students can go for three-year undergraduate programmes to reduce the cost of tuition fees and others. In some cases, undergraduate degrees in Scotland are called "*Master's*" degrees as students can obtain a "*general degree*" for three years (Kemp and Lawton, 2021, p. 15). This historic development and unique characteristics of university education in Scotland can provide a necessary

foundation for understanding the context in which HHE has evolved within the Scottish HE system.

2.5.2 University Governance and Autonomy in Scotland

The education system in Scotland operates with a level of autonomy separate from the rest of the UK. Following the UK devolution settlement in 1999, the Scottish Parliament has gained full autonomy in managing its education system (Kemp and Lawton, 2021, p. 16). Scottish higher education institutions (HEIs) are considered independent public service sectors with a certain degree of management autonomy. According to Von Prondzynski (2012, p. 5),

“Higher education institutions ... enjoy (and should enjoy) a high level of institutional autonomy, but they are not private bodies with a primary responsibility to maximise shareholder value; their responsibility stretches to students, staff and the wider community”.

That means, HEIs are not solely profit driven business but rather have responsibilities toward stakeholders. HEIs require autonomy to positively *“influence and guide the lives of citizens”* (Farooq, 2018, p. 237). Since 2003, universities in Scotland have had their autonomy in decision-making and self-managing as public units. Following the Universities (Scotland) Act of 1966, each university has established its own autonomy relevant to its own history and visions (Field, 2013). Acting as an independent corporate unit, each university has its own charitable status and a management board who is responsible for strategic development and management of the university (Kerevan, 2013).

If HE in England focuses on *“management, regulation, differentiation and competition”*, the concentration in Scotland is on *“professional autonomy, consensus, egalitarianism and policy learning”* (Keating, 2005, p. 430). HEIs in England are *“politically driven”*, whereas in Scotland, they have *“emerged from professional networks, in collaboration with government”* (ibid). In Scotland, university education is seen as a driver of economic growth, and further education section is administered under the Scottish Executive Enterprise and Lifelong Learning Committee. There is a shift away from market competition toward a systemic approach that includes *“target*

setting and audit as a means of achieving policy objectives” (Morgan-Klein 2003, p. 342). The Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC) and the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC) have increased cooperation to create *“seamless post-compulsory education and training structures that allow for progression and articulation between the sectors”* (ibid.).

2.5.3 Homogenous Delivery of University Education

University education in Scotland is subject to standardisation and follows the Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework (SCQF) to facilitate articulation from colleges, and *“accelerated degrees”* allowing direct entry to the second year of study (Ferne et al., 2013, p. 235). The SCQF assigns credit points based on the average 10 hours of learning time per credit, with credit point increasing at higher program level from level 1 to doctoral studies level 12 (Field, 2013, p. 749). Not awarding degrees, the Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA) provides guidance to design qualifications to integrate with the university system, that is to shape learning and teaching at universities. The SQA took over the responsibilities of the Scottish Examination Board and the Scottish Vocational Educational Council in 1997 (Bryce and Humes, 2013). However, it is important to note that marketisation and managerialism have become increasingly influential in the Scottish HE system. HEIs are now subject to competition, evaluated through metrics such as the National Student Survey (NSS), REF and league tables (Edwards and Roy, 2017).

At an institutional level, universities have their autonomy to make academic decisions, including curriculum, academic standards, awarding degrees and developing new programmes (Field, 2013, p. 747). Departments and faculties manage and deliver teaching and research activities. Academics can be seen as tribal groups having shared commitments to their disciplines. Academics have their freedom to decide curriculum topics and teaching pedagogy styles. Yet, the influence of disciplines has waned in recent years due to fragmentation, the rise of new fields, heightened external and managerial control along with the rapid growth of the sector. Industry demand significantly influences how universities design curriculum and provide programs especially for vocational education.

2.5.4 A Focus on Graduate Skills and Employability

Employability has been integral to Scottish education since the 19th Century, encompassing not only universities and colleges but schools. The SQA, established under the Education (Scotland) Act 1996, has significant impacts in curricula development and accreditation process (Paterson, 2003, p.84). Work-based learning has become an important part in teaching curriculum at university level in wider UK, especially after the Dearing Report (1997), which emphasised the need for universities to support apprenticeship development and enhance employability (Foster and Stephenson, 1998). As followed, Scottish universities have responded to this agenda by incorporating work placements, internships, industry-led projects and start-ups to provide students with practical skills and promote their employability. Consequently, approximately 95 per cent of Scottish students secure employment or training within six months of graduation (Kemp and Lawton, 2021, p. 9).

This historic emphasis on employability in Scottish education can be traced back to the early 1900s. At this time, there were widespread doubts that the curriculum, primarily designed to educate ministers of religion and schoolteachers, was not adequately preparing students for entrepreneurial roles or providing the specialised technical training require by modern industry (Sanderson, 1972, p.157 in Paterson, 2003, p.84). This recognition of the need for practical skills and technical training reflects the utilitarian focus of Scottish education, which has continued to evolve over the years.

2.5.5 Vocational Education in Scotland

Historically, vocation education in Scotland has long been focuses on providing students with immediate employability skills. The first vocation school established was the School of Arts in Edinburgh in 1821, aiming to prepare “*workmen*” for employability. Later on, the Mechanics Institution was established in Glasgow in 1823 with the same purpose (Hunter, 2013). After 1992, these two vocational schools turn into Strathclyde University and Heriot-Watt University. The differentiation between vocational education and traditional HE became clear at the beginning of the 1900s. This division between academic and vocational qualifications was seen as insufficient to address the demand of a swiftly evolving society and changing labour market. The demand for new skills and unified qualifications framework lead to the

recognition of the importance of vocational education (Bryce and Humes, 2013, p. 681). Following the Code of Regulations for Continuation Classes in Scotland issued by the Education Department in 1901, post-school education can be divided into four types. They include classes for elementary education, technical subjects at elementary level, three-year or longer technical education courses, and non-vocational classes. Vocational education was permitted to evolve independently, with exempted institutions, referred to as central institutions, given freedom to develop according to their own guidelines (Hunter, 1972, p.14).

Following the 1992 Further and Higher Education (Scotland) Act, vocational schools or polytechnics turned into new universities called post-1992 universities (Kerevan, 2013, p.762). These institutions, often meeting the demand of local labour markets, had the flexibility to tailor degree courses to meet the specific needs of the industries in their regions. Some post-1992 institutions provide vocational education for some subjects such as communications, hospitality management, health studies and computing. The availability of vocational education programs in these institutions helps address the need of specific industries and contributes to the growth of a skilled workforce in Scotland. This focus on vocational education aligns with the objective of making HE the norm for the majority of young people in Scotland, fostering social inclusion and supporting economic development in the region.

2.6 Chapter of Summary

This chapter sets the stage for the thesis by examining the historic development of HHE in the context of university education in the UK to understand what and how hospitality has been produced. It delves into historical discussion on vocational, specialised education and the prevailing HME for HHE. Moreover, it presents the three domains of hospitality as a conceptual framework to study hospitality and discuss the effect of neoliberalism on knowledge production in the UK. The chapter then focuses on Scotland, analysing how its university and vocational education system influence knowledge production. Overall, this chapter highlights the need to thoroughly understanding how hospitality knowledge has been produced in BS, particularly in light of the evolving provision of hospitality degrees and related subjects, and the adaptation of HME in BS. The subsequent chapter will introduce a theoretical

framework to support the exploration of hospitality knowledge production in BS context.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

The thesis acknowledges that while tourism research has a well-established history of studying knowledge system, the field of hospitality has comparatively received less attention in this regard. Unlike hospitality studies, which often focus on curriculum approach, skills and competencies to meet the industry demand for job-ready graduates (see section 1.2), tourism research has delved into the intricacies of its knowledge development and system since early as 1981. This chapter seeks to leverage the rich reservoir of tourism studies on its knowledge development and system to construct a robust theoretical framework to explore the production of hospitality knowledge in BS context, as elaborated in section 3.8.

Section 3.1 introduces the definition of discipline which shapes knowledge formation and knowledge network in the educational context. Section 3.2 and 3.3 respectively discuss disciplinary approaches and modes of knowledge production applied in the educational context. Section 3.4 presents three influential models in tourism studies that use discipline to generate tourism knowledge. Following a chronological order, these models include “*Interdiscipline model*” by Jafari and Richie (1981), “*the Indiscipline of Tourism*” (Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004), and “*Tourism knowledge system*” (Tribe and Liburd, 2016). They suggest different ways of using discipline to generate tourism knowledge, mapping out the nature of tourism knowledge, its sources, and its characteristics and defining subject areas and mode of knowledge production for tourism courses. Section 3.5 discusses disciplinary rethinking, focusing on its theoretical limitation in creating knowledge alongside with the introduction of postdiscipline as a transformative wave to move beyond traditional disciplinary thinking.

Building on the dynamic of tourism knowledge system including academic tribe and territories, section 3.6 shifts a focus to institutionalised knowledge production for tourism. It introduces the work of Airey *et al.*, (2015); Ateljevic *et al.*, (2007); Belhassen and Caton (2009); Munar (2016); and Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2017) which underscore the social construction of knowledge. These works also acknowledge a gap in understanding how knowledge network operates in practice, namely within school, department and academic community level. In response to such theoretical gap, section 3.7 introduces ANT and its application to gain a

comprehensive understanding about the social construction of knowledge in institutional contexts as school, department and academic community level.

3.1 Discipline

This thesis uses discipline as a lens to examine hospitality knowledge production in BS. The aim is to gain a comprehensive understanding about the intellectual, social and organisation characteristics of hospitality knowledge and its production at the institutional level a BS. The adoption of discipline in this thesis is explained in the following section, starting from the definition of discipline, its characteristics (section 3.1), disciplinary approaches to generate knowledge (section 3.2), and how it has been used in tourism research as an example to generate knowledge (section 3.4), and the limitation of disciplinary approach to generate knowledge (section 3.5).

Knowledge production is the primary function of universities, deciding how universities are run in terms of teaching and research (Neumann, 2009, p. 487). Knowledge in HE is grouped in different ways as *bundles*” or *“bodies”* of knowledge (Clark, 1983, p. 16). The grouping into bundles is known as discipline which dominantly impacts the work of specific academics in their practice of producing knowledge via teaching or research (Clark, 1983, p. 30; Becher and Trowler, 2001). The concept of discipline has ancient origins, dating back to philosophers such as Aristotle who classified different subjects hierarchically based on theoretical and practical aspects (Hu, 2020, p. 110). Discipline can be defined in different ways (Trowler, 2014). Firstly, discipline can refer to the practice of training individuals to follow rules or codes of conduct, often through punishment for non-compliance (Turner, 2000). In this vein, discipline dictates how people should act or think (Krishnan, 2009, p.8). Foucault (1991) famously views discipline as a coercive political force used to produce *“docile bodies”* and minds, aimed at economic exploitation and political subjugation. In the disciplining process, disciplines become internalised rather than remaining external to the individuals. Secondly, discipline can be seen as a field of knowledge, typically referring to one produced in HE (Trowler, 2014). This thesis focuses on the second definition of discipline, particularly how it shapes knowledge formation in the educational context as universities.

3.1.1. Intellectual Characteristic

Chettiparamb (2007) offers three ways to that discipline can be used to understand knowledge and its production, ranging from intellectual, social and organisational perspective. The intellectual characteristic focuses on the nature and structure of discipline. From a scientific standpoint, discipline functions as an internal framework of science to generate knowledge. Discipline addresses objects, phenomena, subject matters, methods, theories and applications. In this way, Chandler describes discipline as a field of study, or academic specialty that involves

“Styles of thought, that is, procedures for identifying and gathering evidence, ways of posing and sequencing questions, conventions for distinguishing productive from unproductive questions, and practices for establishing sound demonstrations, building arguments, citing authorities, or making cases” (Chandler, 2009, p. 729-746).

In educational institutions, discipline is associated with the subjects taught to students, although not every subject at university qualified as a discipline (Jacobs, 2014, p. 9). Stichweh (2001, 13727) explains, the term “*discipline*” or “*academic discipline*” has a long history of being used to describe the organisation of knowledge for teaching in educational contexts as universities. Academic disciplines are typically recognised as branches of knowledge in HE, or subjects taught at university, which are frequently reflected in curricula (Post, 2009, p. 751). It means, discipline sets the practices of how knowledge is obtained, validated, applied, safeguarded, and perpetuated. Similarly, Weingart (2010, p. 8-10) posits that disciplines organise knowledge, similarly to how Meyer (1977 cited in Hu, 2020, p. 111) argues that knowledge is inextricable from disciplines, each discipline specialising in a specific subject area, akin to a knowledge domain. Trowler (2014, p. 9) expands this by describing discipline as sets of narratives encompassing boundaries, procedures, and purposes within a field of knowledge. Not only defining legitimate boundaries for subject areas with the associated body of knowledge, but disciplines also play a crucial role in shaping the modes of knowledge production (Brooker and Joppe, 2017, p. 114) among academic communities at faculty or department level (Darbellay, 2019 b, p. 237).

However, discipline and subject are not the same. Trowler (2014, p. 1724) underscores the distinction between discipline as research and discipline as

curriculum, highlighting the need to consider diverse sites of disciplinary practice within universities. Likewise, stated by Parker (2002, p. 374)

“a subject has a knowledge base which can be easily constructed into a programme of knowledge acquisition and, perhaps most importantly, of quantitative assessment. Subjects are inclusive - anyone studying on a subject programme belongs, whereas discipline brings with it tricky questions about access and boundaries: about inter- and multi-disciplinarity, about who can be said practising the discipline. However, subjects are also passive - they are taught, learned, delivered”.

3.1.2. Social Characteristic

Examining discipline can improve the understanding of the social construct of knowledge and its production (Chettiparamb, 2007). Becher (1989) and Becher and Trowler (2001), pioneering figures in British HE research, introduce the notion of academic tribes and territories, mapping out distinctive cultures and ideas of academic communities linked with knowledge forms embedded within specific disciplines (Hughes, 2013, p. 272). According to Becher and Trowler (2001), “*the epistemological properties of knowledge formation*” is territories and “*the social aspects of knowledge communities*” are tribes (p. 24). Disciplines are thus viewed as tribes navigating their territories, with disciplinary boundaries delineating their intellectual domains. Territories is viewed as an epistemological organisation such as fields or areas. Each discipline has its unique knowledge properties, which shape its cultural characteristics among disciplinary practitioners. Within society, different academic tribes construct and interpret knowledge based on their cultural contexts, leading to diverse perspectives and competing claims regarding what constitutes valid knowledge (Pritchard and Morgan, 2007; Ren, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2010; Tribe, 2004, 2006, 2015). This diversity underscores the subjective nature of knowledge and the existence of multiple ways of knowing knowledge (Mannheim, 1960). Becher and Trowler (2001) view disciplines having their communities or tribes with their own cultures and languages. The social construction perspective indicate that knowledge production is on-going process, as established bodies of knowledge, are continuously evolving rather than being static and unchanged (Hu, 2020, p. 114).

This view is supported by Weingart and Stehr (2000), who underscore the sociality underpinning the construction and operation of disciplines, focusing on the

role of knowledge resources in shaping behavioural practices, discourses, and ways of thinking within disciplinary communities.

“Disciplines are not only intellectual but also social structures, organisations made up of human beings with vested interests based on time investments, acquired reputations, and established social networks that shape and bias their views on the relative importance of their knowledge ... Disciplines are diffuse types of social organisation for the production of particular types of knowledge.” (Weingart and Stehr, 2000, pp. xi- xiv).

3.1.3 Organisational Characteristic

The use of discipline allows for the examination of knowledge in relation to its organizational and institutional aspect (Chettiparamb, 2007). In this case, discipline can function as an organisational framework such as academic faculties and departments in HEIs (Turner, 2000). Borrowing Turner (2000)’s institutional theory of discipline, Jacobs (2014, p. 27-28) defines discipline as *“a broadly accepted field of study”* institutionalised *“as a degree-granting department”* in universities where *“organized groups”* can decide what knowledge to produce in such context. He further elaborates that a discipline is a form of social organisation that create fresh ideas and knowledge, and subsequently imparts this expertise to students. It means, an institutional discipline is seen as an area of study associated with specific academic department and an undergraduate degree (Jacobs, 2014, p. 29). Nevertheless, not every department in universities can represent disciplines (Becher and Trowler, 2012, p. 41). Some departments in universities teach certain subjects but the academic validity of these subjects is suitable to be seen as a field of study rather than a discipline. As stated by prevision section (section 2.5), teaching and research practices in HEIs in the UK are subjective to dynamic changes in terms of funding and competition. Knowledge production in universities is driven by market demand from external stakeholders as students, industry and governments (Becher and Trowler, 2001). Hence, the institutional organisation of disciplines is driven by market (Krishnan, 2009).

3.2 Disciplinary Approaches to Knowledge Production

According to Darbellay (2016; 2019a, b), disciplinarity is the process in which a discipline emerges through the institutionalisation and standardisation of research and teaching practices specific to an academic community. Disciplinarising therefore

involves the institutional arrangement of various specialist communities, divided into faculties, departments, and autonomous laboratories. Such communities establish their own specialisation of knowledge production through distinct approaches, epistemological positions, languages, and disciplinary methods. These communities of specialists often find themselves in academic isolation, hindering interdisciplinary dialogue. Scholars like Thompson Klein (2004, 2010, 2014) and Frédéric Darbellay (2016; 2019a, b) have extensively explored disciplinarity and related concepts including inter-, multi-, trans- and postdisciplinarity. These concepts introduce different ways to understand counter the specialisation of disciplinarity and generate knowledge across and in between disciplinary boundaries for research and teaching (Neumann, 2009, p. 491).

Multidisciplinarity exist when two or more disciplines are involved to study an object to solve a problem. This approach benefits from plurality in using multiple disciplines and does not require interaction between these disciplines. In other words, different disciplinary perspectives can be added to each other, resulting in a juxtaposition of disconnected viewpoints without integration. While there is openness to epistemological pluralism, this practice remains close to disciplinarity as it reinforces institutional compartmentalisation within disciplinarity communities, each governed by its academic paradigms, theories, and internal methods (Neumann, 2009, p. 492).

Interdisciplinarity happens when at least two disciplines are used to describe, analyse, and understand the complexity of a study object that cannot be reduced to a single discipline. Unlike the multidisciplinary approach, which simply places different disciplinary viewpoints side by side, adding the findings from each discipline to those of others, interdisciplinarity involves a collaborative and integrative effort that combines insights from multiple disciplines around a shared objective (Trowler, 2012, p. 14). Collaborative interaction and integration can occur through various methods, such as the transfer or borrowing of concepts and methods, cross-disciplinary hybridisation, or the creation of new research areas by merging disciplines. As suggested by the prefix “*inter-*” (Darbellay, 2019a, p. 98), knowledge production happens among disciplines, through what circulates at their interfaces and interstices.

Transdisciplinarity refers to a mode of knowledge production that transcend disciplinary boundaries. It represents a new approach to generate knowledge that require academics or researchers cooperate with non-academics such as external stakeholders (i.e governments, industry) (Klein, 2004). This allows an applied and problem-oriented approach with the involvement of different stakeholders to form knowledge, similar as mode 2 knowledge production (Neumann, 2009, p. 492). Transdisciplinarity is different with interdisciplinarity in terms of the integration level. Transdisciplinarity extends beyond interdisciplinarity by involving collaboration between researchers and practitioners in the society (Jahn, Bergmann and Keil, 2012, p. 2). While interdisciplinarity focuses on generating knowledge and methods from different disciplines to address scientific questions, transdisciplinarity goes further by integrating these scientific questions with societal issues (ibid, p. 4). Argued by Repko integration in interdisciplinarity is

“... the cognitive process of critically evaluating disciplinary insights and creating common ground among them to construct a more comprehensive understanding” (Repko 2012, p. 263).

However, transdisciplinarity *“transgresses or transcends”* disciplinary boundaries to generate extra-scientific knowledge (Russell, Wickson, and Carew, 2008, p. 460). Stated by Klein (2004, p. 524)), transdisciplinarity or any other cross-disciplinarity approaches does not replace disciplinarity, it is rather seen as “complementary” for knowledge creation based on disciplinary work.

Figure 2 illustrates the linear progression and the connections among multi-, inter- and trans-disciplinarity within disciplines Darbellay (2019b, p. 238). These approaches can be organised along bi-directional and reversible axis, which range-by degrees of openness, interaction and integration from disciplinarity to transdisciplinarity. The lowest level of the continuum of disciplinary openness and interaction is disciplinarity in which researchers focus on topics through methodological approaches strictly limited to discipline. At the moderate level of openness and interaction are multi- and interdisciplinarity.

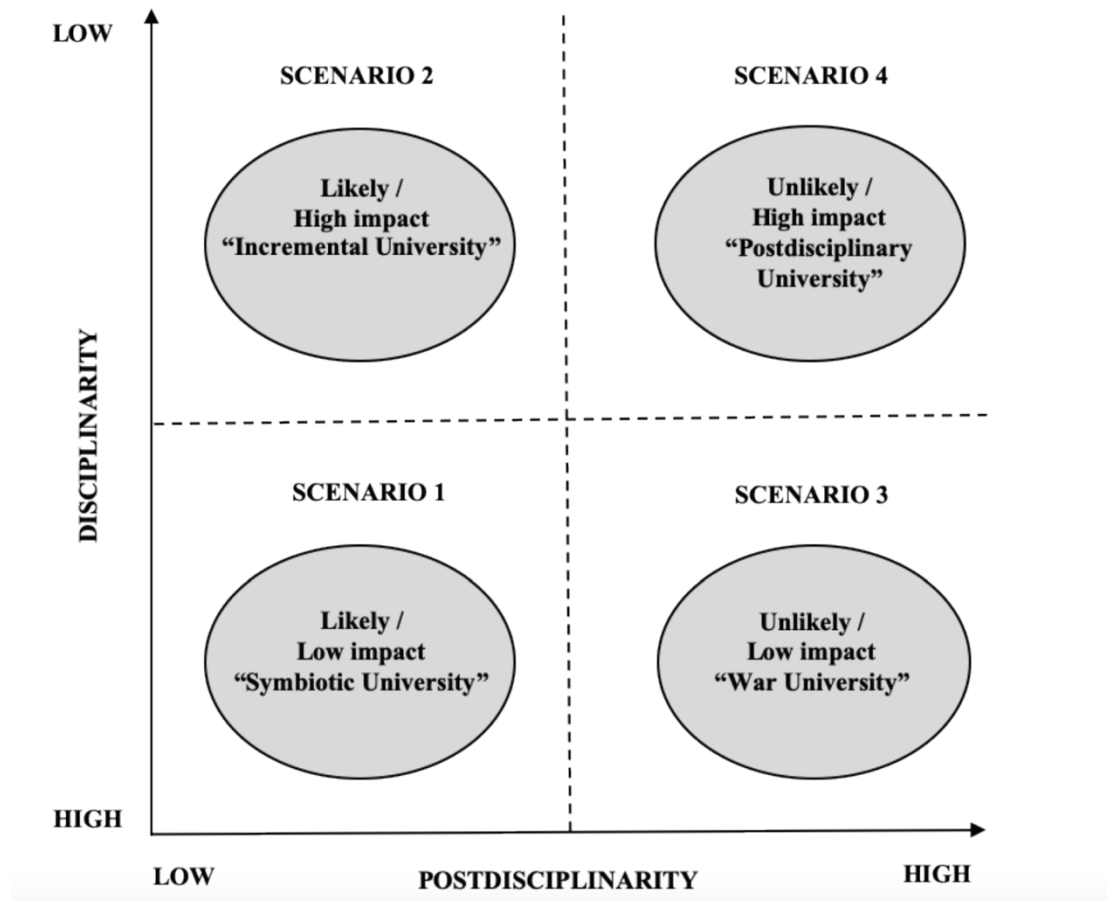
The diagram illustrates a continuum of disciplinary approaches. At the top, four categories are listed from left to right: DISCIPLINARITY, MULTIDISCIPLINARITY, INTERDISCIPLINARITY, and TRANSDISCIPLINARITY. Below these, a long double-headed arrow points from 'LOW' on the left to 'HIGH' on the right. Underneath the arrow, centered, are the words 'DEGREES', 'Openness', 'Interaction', and 'Integration'.

DISCIPLINARITY	MULTIDISCIPLINARITY	INTERDISCIPLINARITY	TRANSDISCIPLINARITY
LOW	DEGREES		HIGH
	Openness		
	Interaction		
	Integration		

Postdisciplinarity is an emerging trend that aims to redefine academic disciplines by highlighting the limitations of traditional disciplinary boundaries (Klein, 2005, pp. 60-62). The prefix “*post-*” suggests a state beyond, not just in terms of space or time, but in a manner that fosters new forms of knowledge production, transcending disciplinary limits to create a non-disciplinary space. While multi-, inter- and transdisciplinarity represents different modes of knowledge production across and in between disciplinary boundaries, postdisciplinarity indicates a move-away from the traditional disciplinary structures to create academic knowledge (Lykke, 2011, p. 143). There are two ways to understand post-disciplinarity (Darbellay, 2016, p. 367). The first means transcending disciplinary boundaries, emphasising the crossing and associating of different and complementary perspective. The second interpretation indicates a non-disciplinary space where researcher can adopt creativity to create knowledge. In this case, it enables complete openness to create knowledge.

44

Figure 3: Scenarios of disciplinary to postdisciplinary transformation



Source: Adopted from Darbellay (2019a, p. 102; 2019b, 242)

Scenario 1 involves maintaining a high degree of disciplinarisation of knowledge. This disciplinary framework of knowledge production remains predominant in the current landscape of academic research and education. The segmentation of knowledge into distinct disciplines and sub-discipline is frequently criticised, though not fundamentally challenged or disrupted, within inter- and transdisciplinary discussions and practices. This strong disciplinarisation aligns with a low level of postdisciplinarity, which, despite its potential for transformation, takes an uncritical stance toward the disciplines, viewing them as foundational blocks of knowledge that need to be connected and articulated. As a result, postdisciplinarity has a very minimal or non-existent impact on the disciplinary structure. This scenario reflects the current state of teaching and research, characterised by an organisation of knowledge production in relatively autonomous disciplines and a seemingly

harmonious coexistence within inter- and transdisciplinary approaches, but with a very low degree of postdisciplinarity.

Scenario 2 represents a high level of disciplinarisation based on a very strict definition of what constitutes a discipline. Typically, a discipline is understood as a scientific community sharing common theoretical, conceptual, and methodological foundations, reinforced by an autonomous institutional structure and mechanisms of academic socialisation, such as scientific associations, participation in disciplinary symposia and conferences, and publications in specialised, highly regarded journals. Within this rigid framework, each discipline comprises sub-disciplines and varying schools of thought that mitigate its internal homogeneity. This scenario then initiates a process of change by directly impacting the disciplinary system.

Scenario 3 takes place when disciplinary conservatism takes hold or re-emerges after a period of introspection, it suppresses any innovation dynamics, and the corporatism of the academic tribes (Becher and Trowler, 1989) becomes evident. This high level of disciplinarity, coupled with a strong claim to postdisciplinarity that disrupted disciplinary territories and their associated legitimacy, prestige and symbolic value, creates significant tension between conservatism and the disciplinary status quo, favouring the former. However, this scenario is unlikely to occur in the short or medium term, as it would create chaos detrimental to all stakeholders.

Scenario 4 introduces a significant critical distance from disciplinary conversation. It takes place in the environment of openness, collaboration and co-production, the combination of high de-disciplinarisation and a strong level of postdisciplinarity encourages the exploration of a new space that can have a lasting impact on the disciplinary system. In this scenario, universities are seen as innovative organisations that take an anti-disciplinary stance to generate knowledge. However, this is unlikely to happen in short or medium term especially in the knowledge production in the academic world as universities.

3.3 Mode 1 and 2 Knowledge Production

Gibbons *et al.*, (1994) introduce two main forms of knowledge production in universities. Mode 1 knowledge production takes place in a disciplinary context,

primarily within academic institutions such as HEIs. This type of knowledge is generated by universities, characterised by its homogeneity and created in a hierarchy manner across generations of academics (Hessels and Van Lente, 2008, p. 741). Universities has their autonomy in producing conventional disciplinary knowledge, creating their specialisations in teaching and research (Jacobs, 2000, p. 20). The quality in mode 1 knowledge aims at achieving scientific excellence through rigorous peer view in which universities decide who join the discipline-based system and how they are assessed, and by whom (Jansen, 2002, p 509-510).

In contrast, mode 2 of knowledge production allows for the creation of knowledge outside academic and university contexts, mainly in the public and private sectors (Gibbons *et al.*, 1994, p. 168). This mode involves a diverse array of actors such as firms or non-governmental organisations in the knowledge production, creating heterogeneity for the landscape of knowledge production (Jacobs, 2000, p. 21). This mode is characterised by a transdisciplinary approach that crosses academic boundaries (Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons, 2001), encouraging academic staff to incorporate ideas from external stakeholders as industry or non-academic organisations to generate knowledge.

Unlike mode 1 which is confined to university-driven academic knowledge, mode 2 embraces interdisciplinarity interaction across scientific, technological and industrial type of knowledge (Klein, 2000). In this collaborative and interdisciplinary knowledge production mode, considerations include market demand, social acceptability and practical application (Van Manen, 2001, p. 850), shaping the multifaceted evaluation criteria for mode 2 knowledge (Jacobs, 2000, p. 21). This knowledge, therefore, is more complex and socially robust as compared with solely scientific knowledge generated via mode 1. This knowledge production does not focus on discovering fundamental laws of nature but occurs within practical contexts aimed at specific usefulness and customer demands (Gibbons *et al.*, 1994, p. 4). In mode 2 knowledge production, research emphasises on social accountability and reflexivity, aligning with social values and political orientations (Weingart, 1997, p. 593).

Mode 2 knowledge is oriented toward practical application and problem-solving, described as extradisciplinary (Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons, 2003). This knowledge is not seen as advanced or having high level of sophistication (Tribe, 2004,

p. 51; Coles, Hall and Duval, 2009) but rather emphasises the contextualisation of knowledge within societal frameworks (Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons, 2001, p. 77). If the quality of mode 1 knowledge is controlled by disciplines and peer review only, mode 2 knowledge quality is influenced by social, political and economic factors arising within applied contexts (Weingart, 1997, p. 593).

According to Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons (2001, p. 111), mode 2 knowledge production in research involves continuous interaction and communication between scientists and various actors. As a result, there is a shift toward a research culture that is more inclusive, pluralistic, and responsive to societal needs, leading to the concept of a “*mode 2 society*” (ibid, p. 29). This transformation underscores the importance of contextualised knowledge that addresses specific problems originating from individuals, groups, organisations or societal concerns (ibid, p. 106). While traditional academic roles remain intact, the research environment is increasingly oriented toward addressing real-world problems through transdisciplinary colorations (Marton, 2005, p. 174).

In the UK, knowledge production has evolved through three distinct periods (Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons, 2001). Period 1 (1960s to 1970s), some universities attempted to integrate interdisciplinary approach into their curricula, reflecting a progressive move toward combining different academic disciplines. Period 2 (1980s-early 1990s) marks a shift toward multidisciplinary driven by market demand and neoliberalism. Universities focused on creating curricula that catered to student demand and the need of the labour market, favouring multidisciplinary over pure academic inquiry. Period 3 (late 1990s -2000s) saw the rise of mode 2 knowledge production in the form of interdisciplinarity. It involves the collaboration of the government, business and academic to produce knowledge that solves problems. Increasingly, scholars in HE such as universities in the UK, move toward mode 2 knowledge production for future academic knowledge creation and theory development for tourism to attract students and funding (Coles, 2008). Research funders have shown a preference for mode 2 knowledge. This period, as argued by Barnett (2000), focused on performativity that requires teaching curricula in HE to produce applied knowledge to serve vocational needs. The mode of knowledge

production, consequently, move away from pure discipline-specific base. As the author states,

“The arrival of mass HE, the lowering of unit of resource, the desire of the state to move curricula in the direction of enterprise, the increased pull of the labour market, the bargaining that students may come to exert on their curricula, the greater interest of the professions in their educational functions: all these developments are society-wide in their manifestations. Some institutions and some knowledge fields will be able to resist changing to some extent but it is unlikely that any pool of purity will remain” (Barnett, 2000, p. 260).

What Barnett means is, universities are increasingly integrating multiple fields of disciplines into their curricula, resulting in interdisciplinary programs to meet vocational needs and market demand. New subjects are often interdisciplinary in nature to better prepare students for the workforce by providing students with a mix of knowledge and skill derived from different disciplines. Such knowledge and skill focus on problem-solving and applications in real world. Hybridity is the term that Klein (1996, 2000) and Barnett (2000) use to refer to the blend of learning techniques and concepts from multiple disciplines to create hybridisation of knowledge.

3.4 Discipline in knowledge production in tourism studies

Discipline plays an important role in defining the subject area and mode of knowledge production for tourism knowledge (Tribe, 2006). This section below introduces three models by Jafari and Richie (1981), Tribe (1997, 2000, 2006) and Tribe and Liburd (2016). A unifying aspect across these models is the use of discipline as a foundation for generating tourism knowledge. The focus here lies on how discipline is employed to generate knowledge and the resulting implications for tourism knowledge, encompassing its scope and knowledge inquiry.

3.4.1 Interdiscipline Model by Jafari and Richie

The Interdiscipline model by Jafari and Richie (1981) revolutionises in tourism educational research by introducing a framework aimed at understanding the evolution of tourism knowledge (Munar, 2016, p. 343; Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 44; Lohmann and Netto, 2017, p. 45). Raising two questions, what tourism knowledge is and how it is taught in tourism education, their model introduces a knowledge wheel to explore the nature of tourism knowledge production in university. The knowledge wheel

consists of an inner circle of boxes representing tourism courses and the outer ring of boxes displaying disciplines (sciences) or departments used to interpret and study tourism phenomenon. Initially, the model identifies sixteen disciplines involved in tourism knowledge production (figure 4), which expands to eighteen in 2005 (figure 5). Thanks to the model, key subject areas of tourism are successfully identified, including economics, sociology, psychology, geography, and anthropology in the 1970s (Echtner and Jamal, 1997, p. 868-870). As time progresses, the subject areas shift to encompass business, management, marketing, and socioeconomic perspectives in the 1980s. In the 1990s, the model captures the sociocultural and environmental aspects of tourism, including issues related to arts, gender, heritage, sustainability, and environmental studies in the 1990s.

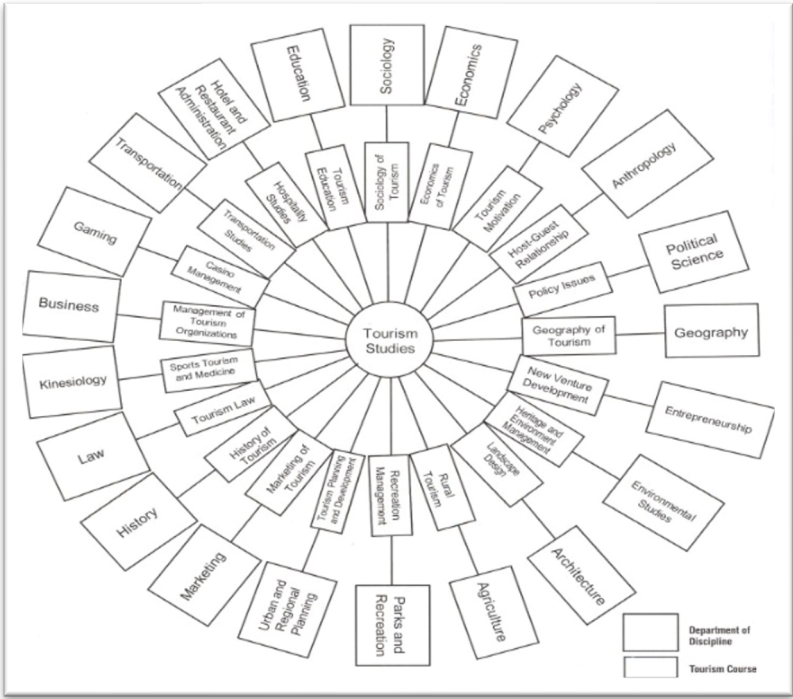
The model not only identifies key subject areas of tourism but also sheds light on the disciplinary approach in creating tourism knowledge (Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 47). By locating tourism within different departments, the model highlights how different disciplinary perspectives contribute to the understanding of specific dimensions of tourism knowledge. This approach introduces terms such as disciplinary, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, transdisciplinary and extradisciplinary as forms of knowledge production in tourism research (Darbellay and Stock, 2012, p. 453; Lohmann and Netto, 2017, p. 45).

The model not only identifies key subject areas of tourism but also sheds light on the disciplinary approach in creating tourism knowledge (Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 47). By locating tourism within different departments, the model highlights how different disciplinary perspectives contribute to the understanding of specific dimensions of tourism knowledge. This approach introduces terms such as disciplinary, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, transdisciplinary and extradisciplinary as forms of knowledge production in tourism research (Darbellay and Stock, 2012, p. 453; Lohmann and Netto, 2017, p. 45).

While this model provides valuable insight into the mapping of tourism knowledge and the utilisation of disciplinary approaches, it has also limitations. It does not fully capture the complexities and impacts between disciplines while less considering social, cultural and ethical dimensions of tourism knowledge and its production process. More importantly, it lacks an analysis of how knowledge is

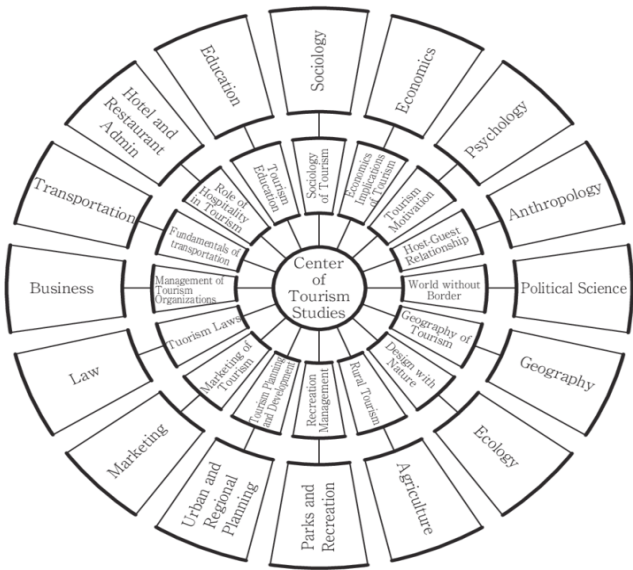
produced and by whom (Munar, 2016, p. 343; Tribe and Liburd, 2016 p. 44; Lohmann and Netto, 2017, p. 45). The absence of disciplines and departments in the model can lead to confusion and does not accurately reflect the knowledge creation process as in tourism studies (Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 47-48).

Figure 4: Disciplinary inputs to the tourism



Source: Adapted from Jafari and Richie (1981, p. 23)

Figure 5: Jafari’s interdiscipline model

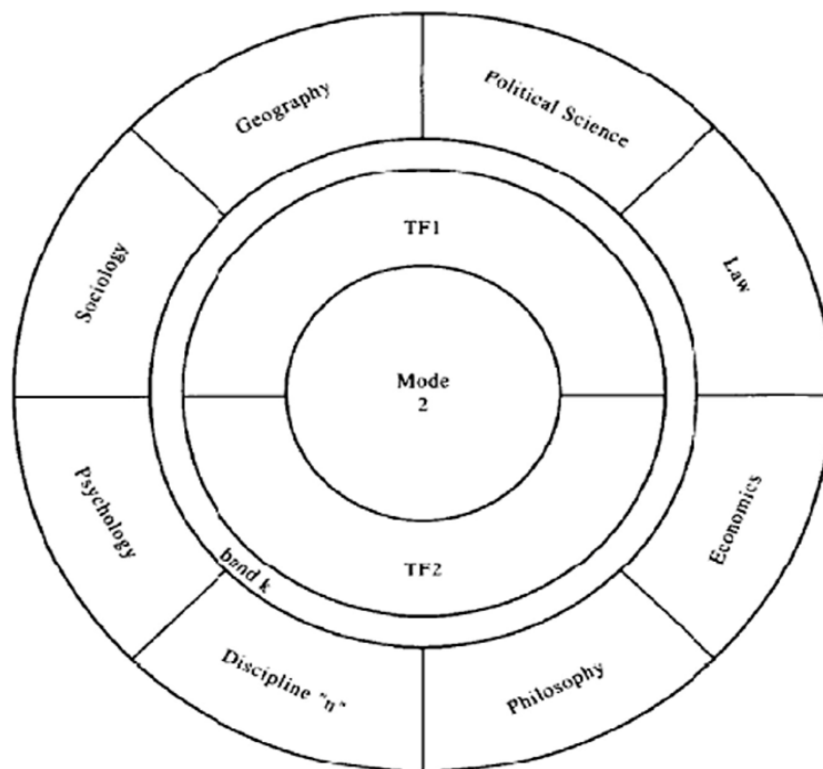


Source: Adopted from Jafari (2005)

3.4.2 Indiscipline Model by Tribe (1997, 2000, 2004)

Building upon the foundation laid by Jafari and Richie (1981), Tribe further explores the creation of tourism knowledge through his Indiscipline model (1997, 2000, 2004). This model emphasises the two main field of tourism studies: business (TF1) and non-business (TF2), which are later called the business and social science of tourism (figure 6). The division between business and non-business perspective in tourism knowledge exemplifies the binaries evident in the disciplinary thinking to generate tourism knowledge (Tribe, 2005, p. 56; Higgins-Desbioille, 2006). Tribe also adopts mode 1 and mode 2 for knowledge production by Gibbons *et al.*, (1994) to suggest three ways in which tourism knowledge is created. They are multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary (called mode 1) and extradisciplinary way (called mode 2) (Tribe, 2004, p. 51).

Figure 6: The Creation of Tourism Knowledge



Outer circle = disciplines and subdisciplines; middle circle = fields of tourism; inner circle = world of tourism; TF1 = business interdisciplinarity; TF2 = non-business related tourism.

Source: Adapted from Tribe (1997, p. 650)

Multidisciplinary knowledge in tourism is created by borrowing knowledge and methodologies from different disciplines (Tribe, 1997; Airey and Tribe, 2005, p. 287). For instance, business and management disciplines contribute to the knowledge development in tourism management. Similarly, during the 1960s-1970s, the fields of economics, sociology, psychology and geography were used to expand tourism knowledge. In contrast, interdisciplinary knowledge is created when multi-disciplines (two or more) use tourism as the primary field of study to generate their knowledge. This approach can allow tourism to develop its own theory and methodology, becoming a distinct field of study that other disciplines can borrow knowledge from. Both multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches are instrumental in expanding the body of tourism knowledge and establishing tourism as an academic field of study rather than a single discipline. Meanwhile, extradisciplinary tourism knowledge can be generated via “*industry, government, think tanks, interest groups, research institutes and consultancies*” (Tribe, 1999, p. 103). Tribe (2004, p. 51) argues that mode 1 knowledge production, which is dominant in HE, generates extradisciplinary knowledge and receives supports from external stakeholders such as students and tourism employers. Interdisciplinary knowledge, nevertheless, is not easy to be created (Airey, 2005, p. 18) because it requires a longer process within the academic community and depends on the maturity of tourism as an academic field with its own theory. Additionally, developing interdisciplinary knowledge faces challenges because it relies on the maturity of tourism as an academic field and its unique theoretical framework.

Tribe employs mode 1 and 2 knowledge production by Gibbons *et al.*, (1994) to highlight, different disciplines with their unique theories and methodologies can serve as sources of tourism knowledge. In the diagrammatic representation (Figure 6), tourism is positioned in the centre, while surrounding disciplines such as sociology, geography, political science, law, psychology, philosophy, and economics contribute to building tourism knowledge and theory. Tribe’s model underscores the significance of disciplinary approaches- transdisciplinary, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary- to expand tourism knowledge (Leiper, 2000; Hall, 2005; Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016,

p. 376) and contributes to establish tourism as a distinct academic discipline different with other disciplines (Echtner and Jamal, 1997; Tribe, 1997).

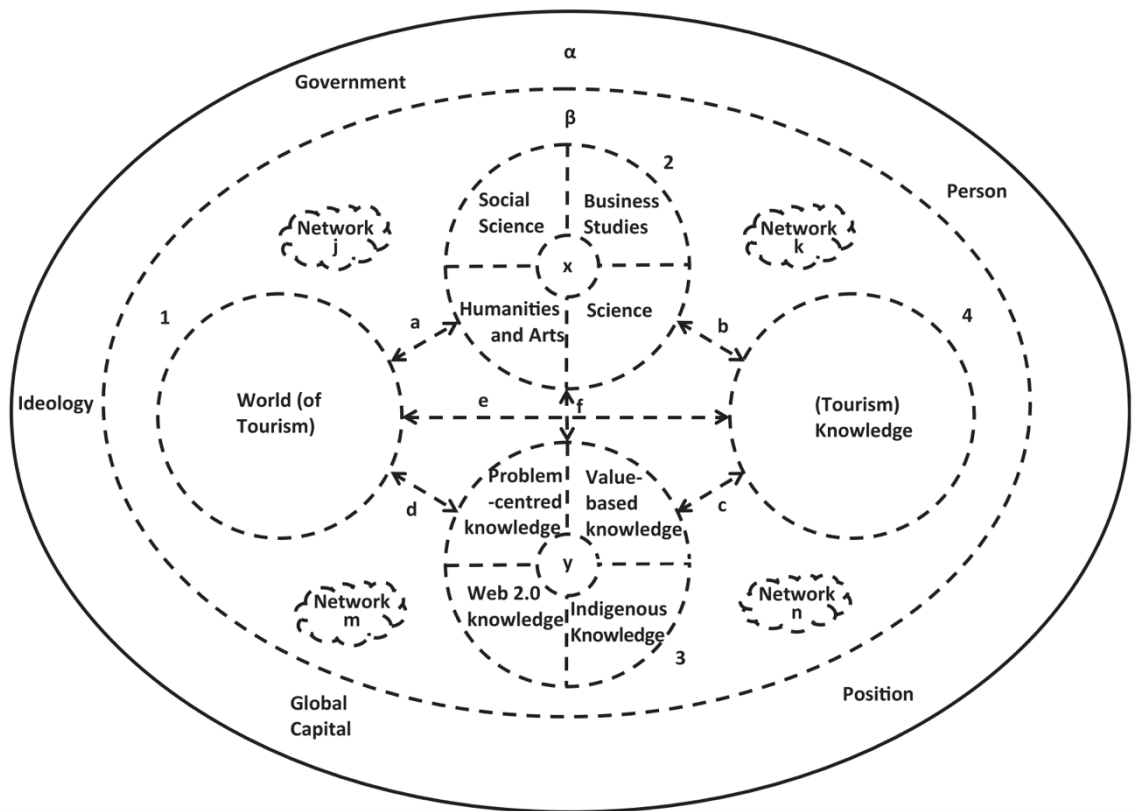
Nevertheless, this model is criticised for being quite simple and reduced (Ren, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2010), not fully explaining the evolution or dynamics of change in the process of knowledge creation in a systematic or holistic manner. Tribe *et al.*, 2015, p. 30). The streamlined approach may entail defining and narrowing down the subject of study, isolating it, selecting appropriate research methodologies, generating data through observation for analysis using specific methodologies, and subsequently presenting conclusions in standardised journal or report formats (Laws and Scott, 2015, p. 54). Before, disciplinary worlds have different and own culture that impact scholarly behaviours within that community and the structure of HE (Beyer and Lodahl, 1976). However, in reality, disciplines tend to adopt and adapt with each other to generate knowledge. As stated by Barnes (2001), academic knowledge can be seen as a network that has complexity and shifting patterns of influence. In tourism research as an example, researchers often establish temporary groups for specific projects, often maintaining membership in several groups alongside their regular lecturing duties. They seek specialised or different expertise from people in other disciplines, leading to trans-, inter-, multidisciplinary research groups. Tribe (2010) described this as emergent knowledge rather than knowledge derived from a single discipline. The next section introduces a tourism knowledge system model which can be seen as a comprehensive framework to understand knowledge production that previous models as Tribe (1997, 2000, 2004) fails to address.

3.4.3 Tourism Knowledge System by Tribe and Liburd (2016)

In 2016, Tribe and Liburd introduce tourism knowledge system model which represents a comprehensive and advanced framework to understand tourism knowledge production process (Alejziak, 2019, p. 14). This model incorporates parts of previous models (Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004, 2010) to a whole system of knowledge production including the world of tourism as an inputs (circle 1) and cannon of tourism knowledge as outputs (circle 4), processes involving the discipline of tourism (circle 2) and extra-disciplinary tourism knowledge (circle 3), boundaries (inner oval b), environmental factors (outer oval a) and feedback loops (line e) (figure 7). It provides an explanation of how knowledge is produced starting from the phenomenal world of

tourism, modes of analysis and its representations to analysing the inter-relationships, processes and dynamics of the system.

Figure 7: Tourism knowledge system



The process of knowledge production includes two circles- the disciplines of tourism (circle 2) and extradisciplinary tourism knowledge (circle 3).

Source: Adopted from Tribe and Liburd (2016, p. 46)

3.4.3.1 The Disciplines of Tourism (circle 2)

Circle 2 illustrates the discipline of tourism knowledge generated in an academic context (Alejziak, 2019, p. 9). As seen in Figure 7, it includes four major disciplinary groups of business studies, social science, humanities and arts, and science which tourism knowledge can be generated from. From social science and business studies, sources of disciplines that can produce tourism knowledge are economics, geography, sociology, anthropology, psychology, political science and law. Scholars have been used these disciplines to understand key issues in tourism such as tourists, tourism businesses and tourism's economic, social and environmental aspects, and expand its knowledge toward an academic field for search. For example, knowledge created from business studies focuses on vocational operation aspects of tourism such

as marketing, finance, HRM, service management, destination planning, and innovation.

Humanities and arts include philosophy, history, language, literature, communication, design, music, dance and arts. Knowledge from these disciplines help to critique tradition, the status, and the ideas of oneself and of others (Barnett, 1994). Applying humanities and arts to understand tourism, tourism can be understood as complex, world-building phenomenon and practice which tends to focus on (inter)-cultural conceptualisations and human expression. It can stimulate questions related to the role of tourism world such as how tourism can help improve the virtue, beauty, and better lives (Liburd, 2013), or what it means to be human (a tourist), what constitutes a good life (for tourism), and what a just (tourism) world is (Caton, 2014). However, the use of these disciplines in tourism studies and education is limited (Walton, 2009, p. 1). Tribe (1997) asserts that the epistemological landscape of tourism, encompassing disciplines such as sociology, geography, political science, law, psychology and philosophy. Social disciplines have been applied in tourism education to study the business side of tourism. Namely, anthropology has been used to study organisational culture to enhance efficiency while psychology has long been used to develop understandings of consumer preference and tourism behaviours. However, philosophy or humanities courses in tourism curriculum in HE seems to be limited (Caton, 2015, p. 19).

Science includes hard disciplines such as medicine, biology, physics, chemistry, psychology, mathematics and engineering. In the past, there is some signs of using hard sciences for vocational training related to food and drink modules, focusing on how to make food and drink products with food laboratories (Nailon, 1982 cited in Airey and Tribe, 2000, p. 277; Jones, 2004; Wood, 2015 a, p. 328) for vocational hotel and catering courses. However, such training is not so popular for HME programs at the current time. Evidently, there is a reduction or even stop of practical training for HHE in universities (Lugosi and Jameson, 2017).

3.4.3.2 Extra-disciplinary Tourism Knowledge (circle 3)

Acknowledging that the Indiscipline of Tourism (Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004) does not fully explain what kind of knowledge can be generated for tourism, Tribe and Liburd rename mode 2 as “*problem-centred knowledge*” and relocate it to circle 3

which represents tourism knowledge produced outside traditional disciplines. They label circle 3 as “*extra-disciplinary tourism knowledge*” generated “*outside the academic*” (Alejziak, 2019, p. 14), which includes problem-focused knowledge, value-based knowledge, indigenous knowledge and Web 2.0 knowledge.

Problem-centred knowledge or mode 2 knowledge, or knowledge in practice indicates knowledge which is constructed in and for the world. It may even be poorly rooted in research, but its intention is good understanding and practical use (Alejziak, 2019, p. 14). This type of knowledge is highly contextualised (Hessels and Van Lente, 2008) relating to specific aspects in the world such as industry, governments or societies. As being created from the context of application, such knowledge is called extra-disciplinary or tacit knowledge which provides understanding about practical issues related to tourism context such as customers, business and tourism world but might be poorly rooted in research. Argued by Gibbons *et al.*, (1994), the creation of such knowledge is driven by a functionalist epistemology, focusing on generating useful and efficient knowledge for the purpose of application and problem-solving in practice. Because of that, this knowledge is different with inter- or multidisciplinary knowledge deriving from other disciplines and makes no contribution to the development disciplinary knowledge for tourism.

Value-based knowledge or moral knowledge is incorporated in circle 3. This knowledge is about the values and meaningful understandings of the world such as human qualities and dispositions, authentic presence and meaningful participation in the context of world-making. Having such values, it is seen as different with hard disciplinary knowledge which is object and value neutrality (Caton, 2014). Example of such knowledge is tourism for equality, peace or hopeful tourism (Pritchard, Morgan, and Ateljevic, 2011). Knowledge generated in this way is making tourism knowledge dynamic, reflexive and value-embedded (Hollinshead, 2006), which can reduce the gap of existential or ontological awareness about the outside world that the Indiscipline model failed to address.

Different with the previous Indiscipline model, Tribe and Liburd (2016) introduce web 2.0 and indigenous knowledge. Web 2.0 knowledge explores the philosophical principles and social practices involving users generating, modifying and uploading web-based content (Liburd, 2012, p. 890). Meanwhile, indigenous

knowledge is the type of knowledge generating from particular cultural, geographical and traditional conditions.

3.4.3.3 Knowledge Force Field

In Figure 7's outer oval a, Tribe and Liburd (2016, p. 54-55) introduce government, person, position, global capital and ideology as main environment factors impacting tourism knowledge system. These factors are built based on knowledge force field by Tribe (2006) which originally includes person, position, ends, rules and ideology. Tribe and Liburd have streamlined Tribe's initial five forces down to three but argue that two crucial forces have been overlooked should be integrated into this system. These overlooked forces are government and global capital while rules and ends are eliminated during the streamlining process.

Person: Tribe and Liburd (2016) suggest, autobiographies, socialisation, cultures, genders, sense and values can impact the research of one person. Nevertheless, a person can also have his/her own agency power or competencies to be independent in his/her research within any structural boundaries which might influence research choices (Giddens, 1984). In tourism academic community, certain individuals termed "*elders*" assume roles of significance, occupying distinguished positions in research panels for grant research awards, editorial or referee positions in key journals, and in the UK, involvement in RAE committees. These "*elders*" wield important power in deciding which tourism knowledge is legitimated for production and communication in research agendas.

Ideology: Ideology refers to a set of common-sense beliefs or thoughts that can impact a person's behaviors (Althusser, 1969, 1984; Apple, 1990). For instance, Western ideology such as capitalism, neoliberalism and consumerism are hegemonic forces influencing the way tourism knowledge is produced (Tribe, Dann and Jamal, 2015). In university education, Barnett expresses concerns about universities as venues for knowledge production, noting that "*ideology has gained such a grip in universities that it is no longer clear that the idea of the university - as pointing to a site of reason - can be realised*" (2003, p. 1-2). Barnett believes, universities are now significantly driven not only by ideologies such as entrepreneurialism or managerialism, but also by their own teaching and learning activities that have taken on ideological dimensions.

Tribe (2003) acknowledges the influence of economic thinking embedded in tourism education when he analyses the “*RAE-ification*” of tourism knowledge through the RAE, supporting the quantification trend of knowledge production and learning in the UK. The adoption of quantitative approaches in some tourism course in British universities, aims at subject-orientation, profit enhancement, and efficiency, reflects a shift toward a more utilitarian and economically driven perspective (Morgan *et al.*, 2018). The incorporation of management and marketing subjects into existing curricula, collaboration with external companies in curriculum design, and the pressure on tourism academics to demonstrate the functional value of their contributions further indicate a neoliberal influence over higher tourism education (Turner 2008 cited in Bianchi, 2009, p. 486; Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009).

Position: Position refers to located places such as university departments, academic communities, or wider language and cultural communities. These locations can create forces as ethnocentricity, departmentalism and academic tribalism, which impacts the process of knowledge production. For instance, universities have certain standards for research which tourism scholars are expected to follow. An illustrative example is the existence of the managerial gaze associated with metrics and ranking systems, guiding the direction and expectation of tourism research in terms of what topics to study and how to present findings (Airey *et al.*, 2015). Managerialism can significantly impact the quantification of tourism research and education in the university context (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009; Airey *et al.*, 2014) and justify the academic identity of the tourism discipline (Munar, 2016, p. 1).

Tourism academic community, nested within educational institutions, serves as a cohesive social group that shapes individual scholars and defines the goals of the subject area, often in response to external influences (Hall, 2010, p. 298). This influence is evident, with the strategic priorities of universities influencing the operational models and curricular offerings in the field of tourism subject. Institutions’ strategic goals can impact the research direction of tourism scholars. For example, the emphasis on metrics and indicators in research evaluation sets prevailing norms regarding the scope of tourism studies, acceptable methodologies, and the presentation of findings (Airey *et al.*, 2015). These practices are part of the audit culture that aims to allocate resources and assign merit objectively (Fennell, 2013, p. 417). Tourism, as

a relatively young academic subject, faces challenges in identifying appropriate metrics to follow (Airey *et al.*, 2015).

Rules and ends: Rules in knowledge creation can include disciplines paradigms, postmodernity, discourse and methodology which provide conventions for researchers to follow (Tribe, 2006; Tribe and Liburd, 2016). Disciplines can decide what knowledge is included and excluded (Tribe, 1997) while paradigms set out boundaries of knowledge creation within accepted “*scientific practice*” in specific scientific traditions (Kuhn, 1970, p. 10). Ends refer to the truth of knowledge production and the beneficiaries of the knowledge. The notion of commodification as a good starting point when it is used to mention about the purpose of research in which universities can use research as a product to sell to the outside world for gaining profits, such as funding. Knowledge produced in universities has certain values following the end point. For example, problem-centred knowledge is seen as useful knowledge while value-based knowledge aims for advancement in the production of knowledge. Rules can also be seen via the use of research methodology, primarily characterised by the division between positivism and interpretivism, and its impact on how the truth is told.

Government: Tribe and Liburd (2016) argue that universities cannot decide what knowledge to produce freely as government somehow has its impact on knowledge production system in universities via funding for research or quality control for teaching.

Global capital: Last but not least, global capital can bring in significant changes in funding and management of HE (Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009; Dredge *et al.*, 2013). Such change prompts a question as how institutional units can operate in the changing landscape of HE driven by monetary influences. The reality of tourism discloses the dual selectivity of tourism research which, which upon deeper consideration could be characterised as triple selectivity (Tribe *et al.*, 2015, p. 30). This selectivity occurs when researchers choose what problems to investigate, how to research them and how to report them. Such decision is influenced by force field factors mentioned above.

With the incorporation of knowledge force field, Tribe and Liburd present an ontological link between knowledge creation (circles 2 and 3 in Figure 4), the tourism world (circle 1) and discourse surrounding the canon of tourism knowledge produced

(circle 4). It provides a complete picture of how knowledge is produced as a system (circle 1 and 4) that link disciplines, knowledge and the world together that previous models fail to address.

3.4.3.4 Knowledge Network, Academic Tribe and Territories

In the exploration of tourism knowledge system, Tribe and Liburd depart from previous models by Jafari and Richie (1981) and Tribe (1997, 2000, 2004) by viewing knowledge is a network that involves academic tribes and territories. Drawn from the work by Becher and Trowler, Tribe and Liburd conceptualise the knowledge network as a collective of tribes sharing cultures, rules, and hierarchies, highlighting the dynamic nature of tourism knowledge, rather than a static structure set by disciplinary boundaries as seen in previous models. They underscore the significant role of culture and practice among academic communities, highlighting how culture shapes knowledge production, and influence interpretations of events and behaviours within tourism field. Culture is not static but rather a realm of shared thoughts in which individuals participate in (Tribe, 2004, p 52- 56). Certain interpretations are privileged while others are marginalised within the academic discourse. This recognition of the cultural impact on disciplinary norms and behaviors underscores the importance of understanding academic tribes and their cultural practices in shaping tourism knowledge production (Tribe, 2010).

In universities or departments, academic tribes and territories interact with each other, shaping the culture and power dynamics in knowledge production. Academics align with formal academic groups and are institutionally embedded within university departments. Tribe (2006, p. 371-372) introduce the term “*departmentalism*” to describe how universities’ organisational structures exert significant influence over research endeavours, directing resources and shaping research agendas in accordance with faculty strategies. Examining critical concept space of HHE in the UK, a study by Zhang (2019, p. 244-245) concludes that the socialisation of academic disciplines makes it rather dynamic than static. It changes due to the interactions between disciplinary knowledge, disciplinary culture and its academic tribes.

To this point, using academic tribes and territories, Tribe and Liburd provide a comprehensive framework to understand tourism knowledge system. It firstly successfully represents the core components of tourism knowledge system, starting

from the phenomenal world of tourism, modes of analysis and its representations. Secondly, it examines the interrelationships, processes and dynamics within the system. The framework introduces important concepts such as the world of tourism, the canon of tourism, the discipline of tourism, extradisciplinary knowledge of tourism, knowledge force field represented by circles. Furthermore, it elucidates the relationship among these concepts, delineating the process of tourism knowledge production, inputs and outputs of the process and factors impacting this process. Consequently, this model provides a scientific foundation to explain the process of generating tourism knowledge. However, it is crucial to heed the cautionary words of Alejziak (2019, p. 16) regarding the use of this model and these concepts to explain the research topic. He references a quote by Lewin, stating:

“Force field theory cannot be called a theory in the common meaning, because it is hard to consider it either correct or incorrect, and it is best characterised as a method: i.e. a method of analysing casual relationships and building scientific constructs” (Lewin, 1953, p. 292).

What Alejziak means is, the resemblance of the logical model that is employed for explanation does not imply its role in shaping a scientific theory.

3.5 Rethinking about Disciplines in Tourism Research

3.5.1 Limitations of Disciplinary Thinking to Knowledge

Disciplines still have value in establishing academic knowledge and providing a basis for generating knowledge (Christie and Maton, 2011, p. 5). Namely, Tribe’ indiscipline model remains influential in shaping tourism knowledge. However, there is a growing recognition of the need to transcend traditional disciplinary boundaries for a more comprehensive theoretical understanding of tourism (Korstanje, Cisneros and Herrera, 2016, p. 209). However, many authors (Graburn and Jafari, 1991; Echtner and Jamal, 1997; Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016) have reached an agreement that using disciplines to produce knowledge leads to its boundary constraint.

Despite the development of multi- and interdisciplinary approach to knowledge production, these approaches have a limitation due to its boundary. Knowledge generated from disciplines having certain values and purposes related to its origins,

consequently, which is seen as instrumental framed by the discipline where it comes from (Echtner and Jamal, 1997). It cannot deal with complexity in knowledge production. The notion of academic tribes and territories by Becher (1989) remains a pivotal framework for understanding disciplinary cultures, which still exert a significant influence on academic practices of teaching and researching. By 2012, nevertheless, this notion is somewhat outdated. Traditionally, discipline focuses on knowledge generation, dissemination, and application within their own disciplinary boundaries. In contrast, discipline is now seen as more fluid (Hughes, 2013, p. 270). If Becher's (1989) traditional notion of academic tribe and territories is linked to cultural affiliations within disciplinary knowledge domains, Trowler (2014, p. 1722-1723) highlights that the modern academic landscape is far more dynamic and diversified. This environment now showcases a wider range of academic tribes navigating disciplinary approaches influenced by societal and external factors such as the demand of industry and students, global competition or governments.

Trowler (2014) argues for moving beyond the limitation of disciplinary boundaries and emphasising the need to consider contextual factors to comprehend better knowledge production. In a sense, the influence of discipline cultures in shaping academic activities related to teaching and researching significantly decreases. Today, academic practices such as program development, curriculum design or knowledge production are increasingly driven by management, policy-driven and profit generation purpose. Education is now seen as a business, with students viewed as pay customers for the process of knowledge production. Trowler suggests that traditional disciplinary approach to produce knowledge now is driven by market. In this context, academic staff must navigate new challenges in producing knowledge for teaching and learning. The boundaries between disciplinary groups are being blurred by a push toward interdisciplinarity or multidisciplinary, often in response to the interest of external stakeholders such as students or industry rather than academic community and its culture. Hence, Trowler advocates for a more nuanced approach considering contextual influences in producing knowledge for teaching and learning regimes going beyond disciplinary boundaries. He challenges the idea of discipline as a rigid structure and instead proposes an analysis that acknowledges the impact of various contextual factors, albeit without clearly defining their intentions.

Moreover, Darbellay and Stock (2012, p. 449-450) view tourism as a complex interdisciplinary project. In their work, they quote Schlanger (1992) to point out a limitation of disciplinary thinking. As such, “*every discipline constructs itself as delineated: it accepts its limits. It recognises itself as local and partial*” (p. 292). It means, each discipline has its own specific knowledge domain and knowledge, which makes it different from another discipline’s area. Hence, using disciplinary logic to think about tourism knowledge will be restricted to disciplinary area and cannot address complexity of tourism knowledge in relation to the sociology of knowledge (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016, p. 378). Hence, there is a general consensus that the development of tourism knowledge should not occur through scholars working in disciplinary isolation.

Tribe (1997, 2000) criticises the use of discipline as the sole platform for knowledge production for being pragmatic, arguing that it lacks philosophical consideration in knowledge creation. He highlights the example of tourism studies as an attempt to legitimise tourism as a discipline, suggesting that disciplines are not the essential requirement of knowledge production (Tribe, 1997). In his words,

“to legitimate tourism studies by packaging it up as a discipline not only fails on logical grounds (i.e. tourism studies does not pass the test), but [it –the test] is also an empty and fruitless one (i.e. disciplines are not the sine qua non of knowledge production)” (p. 646).

A philosophical inquiry into knowledge production should involve ontological and epistemological analysis of knowledge (Hollinshead, 2010, p. 502). However, Coles, Hall and Duval (2009, p. 181) argue, scholars in tourism studies have often neglected the ontological and epistemological foundation in their work, resulting in fragmented and incoherent knowledge production. The lack of philosophical discussions and the reluctance to go beyond disciplinary boundaries in THE studies hinders a deeper understanding of knowledge production (Tribe, 2009). Academic publications in the field of tourism tend to align with specific fields of knowledge such as “*business, management and accounting*” rather than broader “*social sciences*” (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016, p. 163). Hall (2005) acknowledges the importance of advancing philosophical understanding in tourism studies when its disciplinary

approach to knowledge production is just pragmatic. The author holds an idea that disciplines should not be a requirement for generating knowledge on any subject including tourism and hospitality.

3.5.2 Postdisciplinary Thinking to Knowledge

In tourism research, many authors (Graburn and Jafari, 1991; Echtner and Jamal, 1997; Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016) have reached an agreement that using disciplines to produce knowledge leads to its boundary constraint. They concur that the advancement of tourism knowledge should not happen through scholars working in disciplinary isolation. This postdisciplinary turn commences with the seminal publication in the journal *Tourism Recreation Research* by Coles, Hall and Duval (2005) and gains further momentum with Tribe and Liburd's work (2016). They recognise that tourism knowledge production is a multifaceted, socially framed process involving human and non-human actors. This approach challenges the idea that knowledge cannot be fully explained through single disciplines, both in philosophical and practical terms (Darbellay and Stock, 2012; Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016; Darbellay, 2016; Munar, Pernecky and Feighery, 2016). This approach allows for more open, plural and complex mode of knowledge production (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2006, p. 293).

In terms of openness, the adoption of the postdisciplinary approach does not mean abandoning traditional discipline (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2009; Darbellay, 2016; Hollinshead, 2016). It rather challenges "*the discursive and organisational construction (and worse, the fetishisation) of disciplinary boundaries*" (Jessop and Sum, 2001, p. 89) toward an open way for knowledge production outside disciplinary boundaries. For example, the adoption of postdisciplinarity allows for a "*hybrid approach*" to tourism studies (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2005, p. 39) in which tourism scholars can add more practical institutional perspectives into the field of disciplinary approach to understand contemporary topics of tourism.

Moreover, postdisciplinary thinking allows for a plurality of perspectives, enabling thinkers to discover multiple way of knowing tourism knowledge in its production process (Pernecky, Munar and Wheeler, 2016). Following this approach, individuals can actively engage in the knowledge-making process, becoming storytellers to explore multiple understandings. As stated by Hollinshead (2016,

p.350), it aids “*thinkers/ researchers/ activities*” in identifying and working within the extensive array of ways of knowing that exist across the multifaceted settings they investigate, particularly in pluri-dimensional contexts. Hollinshead (2010) promotes epistemologically pluralistic as a way to challenge research hegemonies, while Pernecky and Munar advocate for semantic, methodological, and epistemic pluralism, encouraging others to incorporate the “*lived*” and the “*personal*” in their work.

Beside plurality, postdisciplinarity can address complex issues related to human network involved in knowledge production, which may surpass the explanatory capacity of a single discipline (Pernecky, Munar and Wheeler, 2016, p. 390). By addressing the complexity inherent in the context where knowledge production takes place, this inquiry offers flexible modes of knowledge production compared to discipline (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016, p. 313). It emphasises that if we only focus on academic boundary, we will miss an opportunity to consider tourism knowledge in wider world beyond academy (Schweinsberg, Sharley, and Dacry, 2022, p. 2).

In tourism research, much of the adoption of postdiscipline is conceptual discussion (see Coles, Hall and Duval, 2006; Pritchard, Morgan and Ateljevic, 2011). For instance, Coles and Hall view postdisciplinarity as emblematic of the flexible and integrative research approaches needed to address the key challenges confronting the research community. Tribe and Liburd (2016) also address postdisciplinary concern raised by Coles, Hall and Duval (2006) and recognise that post-disciplinarity is akin to interdisciplinarity combined with problem-centred knowledge. They do not perceive mode 1 and 2 of the indiscipline model as fixed binaries, instead, acknowledging fluidity between these modes which is displayed by dotted line connecting parts within and across circles 2 and 3 in Figure 7. Meanwhile, some scholars have engaged its discussion in action-oriented research. For example, Pernecky, Munar and Feighery, 2016, p. 433) suggest applying postdiscipline for epistemic, methodological, and methods-related aspects in tourism research.

Although there is an increasing support for post-discipline, its adoption faces challenges due to entrenched frameworks of academic governance and hegemonies within the tourism academy (Tribe, 2010). Postdiscipline has a transformative impact on how academic teachers and leaders approach the production, dissemination and utilisation of knowledge. This shift toward reconceptualising the purpose of university

education (Darbellay, 2019b, p. 237). However, in tourism education, there is criticism that students cannot progress through undergraduate and graduate programs without acquiring substantial disciplinary knowledge. This criticism underscores the argument that while postdiscipline offers promise in addressing real-world issue comprehensively, the complete dismantling of discipline implied by postdiscipline is not only institutionally daunting but also detrimental to the cultivation of experts with requisite disciplinary specialisation (Gill, 2012, p. 14-15).

3.6 Knowledge Production in the Institutional Context

Section 3.4.3 introduces tourism knowledge system by Tribe and Liburd (2016). Different with previous models by Jafari and Richie (1981) and Tribe (1997, 2000, 2004), this model is seen as a comprehensive framework that conceptualises knowledge network as a collective of tribes sharing cultures, rules, and hierarchies. The model highlights the dynamic and complex nature of knowledge network because of numerous relations between the world of tourism and tourism knowledge. At the same time, the notion of knowledge force field indicates that both institutional and individual interests have significant influence in the knowledge-making process (Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson, 2018, p. 3), which requires further exploration.

Section 3.5.1 highlights the limitation of discipline in generating knowledge, emphasising that disciplinary boundary is not sufficient to address the complexity of knowledge production in relation to the power and culture. Meanwhile, postdiscipline emerges as an alternative for knowledge production outside disciplinary boundaries. This approach can help address complexity in knowledge production driven by culture and power. This section also acknowledges the decreased cultural impact of academic communities in their practice of knowledge production such as the choice of disciplinary approach for teaching and research. In the modern dynamic academic landscape as today, academic tribes tend to navigate disciplinary approaches influenced by societal and external factors such as the demand of industry and students, global competition or governments. In this sense, there is a need to move beyond the limitation of disciplinary boundaries and consider contextual factors to comprehend better knowledge production.

Expanding on these discussions, this section focuses on institutionalised knowledge production, drawing upon insights of scholars such as Airey *et al.*, (2015);

Belhassen and Caton (2009); Munar (2016) and Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2018). By examining their contributions, the thesis aims to discern suggestions for understanding the social construction of knowledge in institutional contexts and identify areas requiring further exploration.

3.6.1 Management Gaze in Knowledge Production

Airey *et al.*, (2015, p. 12) acknowledge the influence of management gaze, also referred to as the management perspectives, on tourism knowledge production in institutional contexts. It entails the establishment of certain rules and standards by universities, which tourism scholars are expected to follow. An illustrative example in this case is the emphasis on metrics and ranking systems, which guide the direction and expectation of tourism knowledge production for teaching and research. Within the educational landscape, various competing gazes from the student, the researcher or industry exist (Tribe 2006). The management gaze, especially from vice-chancellors and principals are professional perspectives that institutions endorse. Their perspective constitutes the quality in teaching and learning which can marginalise perspectives of others. There are three aspects they focus on, which are the recruitment of students as a key source of income for universities, the quality of learning and teaching as it impacts institutions' reputation and its ability to recruit high quality students and student satisfaction which can impact curriculum development.

Under the sway of the managerial gaze, the pivotal inquiry for tourism knowledge production emerges: how does tourism feature within the discourse shaped by the managerial perspective? The management perspective, dictating standards of quality, constructs an environment of inclusion and exclusion, defining what qualifies as quality and what does not, all the while silencing other viewpoints. The critical question thus centres on understanding how the managerial gaze influences the portrayal of tourism within its discourse. Additionally, this management gaze establishes criteria for resource allocation and merit evaluation, ultimately validating the academic standing of the tourism discipline. Scholars are compelled to meet the benchmark set for achieving excellence ranking (Munar, 2016, p. 1), yet tourism, as a comparatively nascent academic domain, grapples with the task of discerning suitable metrics to pursue (Airey, Dredge and Gross, 2015). Moreover, adherence to the culture

of audits and metrics may favour extrinsic values like power and popularity over intrinsic ones such as genuine engagement and participation (Tribe, 2006).

The impact of management gaze in knowledge production in the university context raises a question about academic legacy and freedom for academic staff in producing knowledge for educational courses. Academic legacy can be viewed both from individual and disciplinary/institutional dimensions (Schweinsberg, 2024). Academic legitimacy focuses on content, asserting that certain views can gain dominant than others in the academic community (Schraub, 2013, p. 71). What considered legitimate is shaped by the collective processes of knowledge creation and the institutional contexts in which they occur (Tribe, 2018). Munar (2016) argues that academics should be accountable to society of which maintaining their autonomy, fostering political engagement, encouraging reflexivity, and nurturing environments non-steered human relationships. In contrast, academic freedom is “*content-neutral*” and does not judge the correctness of views (Schraub, 2013, p. 71).

In an institutional context such as HEIs, academic work is becoming more corporatised with outputs determined annually and contributions often reduced to performance metrics (Schweinsberg, 2024). In a sense, institutional strategies, assessment metrics often impact the practices of teaching or research in the academic community (Morrison, 2018, p. 192). Schweinsberg (2024) highlights a concern about “*instrumentalised*” practice in academic legacy that is driven by power which can impact academic freedom in knowledge production for teaching and researching.

3.6.2 A Linguistic Process

Belhassen and Caton (2009, p. 337) view knowledge production as a linguistic process - a complex, negotiated communicative endeavor, shaped by various paradigmatic, historical, methodological, and disciplinary influences, involving collaborative among scholars from diverse backgrounds. The understanding of tourism knowledge production in institutional contexts involves recognising it as a “*norm-governed conversation*” among various actors such as academics. This linguistic process occurs within institutional contexts and is conditioned by power dynamics and institutional settings. Taking a language-based approach allows the thesis to analyse words, texts or conversations to identify the social aspects of knowledge production or identify dominant disciplines or power when there are multiple ways of knowing

tourism. In this process, language plays a crucial role, influenced by personal attributes such as gender, age and, physical and psychological characteristics, leading to diverse perspectives on knowledge production (Munar, 2016, p. 134). Examining the plurality of voices and the dominance of certain perspectives within these conversations can help identify the dynamics and institutional influences at play.

In institutional contexts, knowledge production can take place within daily administration in departments, faculties, or schools. For example, when offering tourism courses (i.e Bachelor or Master degrees), tourism departments have to understand their academic identity in order to provide these programs. Therefore, it is important to examine the impact of administration on the development of tourism knowledge in these programs. Key questions for examination can be: Who decide disciplinary approaches for these courses? What kind of knowledge the programs want to offer? or How does the institutionalisation of tourism studies impact knowledge production in tourism courses?.

Munar (2016, p. 134-135) highlights two levels, macro-level and academic community level, which influence knowledge production in the institutional context. They have interconnectivity with each other; however their boundaries can be blurred. While Belhassen and Caton (2009) emphasise the impact of the societal value-systems, ideologies, institutional settings, policies, and regulations in tourism knowledge production, Munar expands on this by delineating their impacts across political, social and economic dimensions. These factors receive more attention in tourism education or university education debates. Dominant debates about the impact of neoliberalism, public management policies, managerialism, metrics and ranking systems on HE and tourism education (Munar, 2007; Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey, 2009; Dredge *et al.*, 2012; Ayikoru, 2014) or university education in modern (Collini, 2012; Giroux, 2014) in THE studies can be good examples.

Munar suggests the discussion about institutionalised knowledge production remains relatively underdeveloped, particularly at scholarly community level. She prompts critical questions such as “*What is knowledge? What should be considered as tourism knowledge? What kinds of knowledge are allowed to be part of this linguistic interchange?*” (ibid, p. 134). These questions encourage a broader perspective on knowledge, encompassing its boundaries between tacit, everyday knowledge, wisdom,

and scientific knowledge, as well as the various form of instrumental and critical knowledge (Delanty and Strydom, 2003). These questions focus on the nature and boundaries/ or scope of knowledge rather than asking theoretical and methodological approach to develop a subject matter. Munar's questions delve into the societal process that dictate which forms of knowledge are privileged and institutionalised, question the power structure that influence which type of knowledge are accorded legitimacy and recognitions within the institutional context.

Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2018, p. 4) propose that tourism can be understood as a network characterised fractional coherence, continually shaped by local processes of organising people, practices, discourses and technologies (Law, 1994). These processes involve the assembly and enactment of highly diverse forms of knowledge and ways of understanding. Tourism knowledge production is seen as ongoing, adaptable, and relational endeavours that generate a continuous network of effects, interacting in multiple and bidirectional ways with its participants in a mutual constitutive manner (Ren, Pritchard and Morgan, 2010, p. 886).

Tourism research and its knowledge production is seen as a heterogeneous and continuously negotiated entity, it is important to challenge "*the constant production of discourses on knowledge, usefulness and positions of insiders and outsiders, protagonists and adversaries*" (Ren, Pritchard and Morgan, 2010, p. 886). Instead of a single dominant centre of tourism research or managerial perspective, tourism research is enacted and gains significance through diverse versions across various practices and performances within different knowledge communities.

Ateljevic, Pritchard and Morgan (2007, p. 3) portray tourism research as inherently situated in the world-a process that involves engagement with the environment and is contingent upon it. Conducting tourism research entails more than just being "*at the office*" or "*in the field*", or merely representing the field. It involves navigating diverse networks, necessitating engagement, interventions and multiple perspectives. As such, researchers must perform "*balancing acts*" that include engaging with stakeholders, incorporating local knowledge, and operating within an academic environment influenced by neoliberal discourse, which can prioritise "*institutional and individual competition*" over collaboration.

3.6.3 A Theoretical Gap in Understanding Institutionalised Knowledge Production

To this point, drawing upon the perspectives of tourism knowledge system (section 3.4.3), rethinking about disciplines (section 3.5), and institutionalised knowledge production for tourism by Airey *et al.*, (2015); Ateljevic, Prichard and Morgan (2007); Belhassen and Caton (2009); Munar (2016); and Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2018) (from section 3.6.1 to 3.6.2), the thesis acknowledges that there is a network of different academics participating in the process of knowledge production, for tourism as an example. This network of knowledge production assembles and enacts through local processes of ordering of people, practices, or discourses (Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson, 2018). For example, these individuals operate at various levels within departments and universities, contributing to defining subject areas, curriculum design, teaching, research and program monitoring.

In this process, tourism knowledge production is seen as continuous, mutable and relational undertakings whose continuous network of effects “*works in multiple and poly-directional ways in and with its actors in a mutually constituting fashion*” (Ren, Pritchard and Morgan, 2010, p. 886). At the university level, administrators such as rectors or principles play a pivotal role in shaping strategies for teaching and learning. Their views, which is called management gaze, can dictate which perspectives and types of knowledge are deemed valid for teaching and learning within universities. Meanwhile, academic communities within disciplinary groups such as tourism can also have their own perspectives of what knowledge should be taught. These groups, administrators and tourism academic communities can have different views on tourism knowledge. This diversity of viewpoints about tourism knowledge gives rise to what Belhassen and Caton (2009) describe as a linguistic process wherein various stakeholders negotiate with each other the validity of tourism knowledge for university education.

Tribe and Liburd provide a model to analyse tourism knowledge system, starting from understanding what knowledge is, where it come from in terms of disciplines and the network involving different academic and administrative groups in deciding tourism knowledge (see section 3.4.3). However, there is a gap in understanding how this network operates in practice namely, the how and by whom

knowledge is created in the university contexts or how the social construction of knowledge take place in department and academic community level. Belhassen and Caton (2009) suggest viewing knowledge production process at institutions as a linguistic conversation in which negotiation about knowledge take place. Munar advocates for further research on this negotiation process, pressing the significance of answering questions as to what knowledge is deemed valid for teaching and who decide it? The thesis acknowledges the role of these questions as they probe the nature and boundaries/ or scope of knowledge within institutional contexts, going beyond particular theoretical and methodological approach to develop a subject matter. These inquiries delve into the societal process that privilege and institutionalise certain forms of knowledge, and questioning the power dynamics that influence which type of knowledge are accorded legitimacy and recognitions within these settings.

In response to such theoretical gap, the next section focuses on the application of ANT to gain a comprehensive understanding about the social and organisational construction of knowledge network in institutional contexts as universities and departments. The adoption of ANT can enable the viewing of institutionalised knowledge production process as one inter-connected network of academic tribes and territories.

3.7 Actor-network Theory and Its Application in Analysing Knowledge Network

3.7.1 Actor-network Theory

ANT emerges in the 1980s within the realm of sociological studies to comprehend the social construction of science and the intricate interactions between humans and non-humans within networks (Fenwick and Edwards, 2011, p. 2). It was pioneered by scholars such as Callon (1986), Latour (1987) and Law (1992). One of ANT's key aspects is its emphasis on network practices, which enables it to illuminate the complexity inherent in social relations. Unlike other social science perspectives that may concentrate on specific sites of action (i.e institutions or markets) or aspects of social interaction (i.e power), ANT concentrates on the relationships influencing the structure of interconnected networks (Dwiartama and Rosin, 2014). It posits that social phenomena emerge from the relationships between actors - both human and non-human – within the networks of construction and reconstruction (Callon, 1986; Law, 1992; Latour, 2005).

A distinguishing feature of ANT is its focus on the how rather than the why of social arrangements (Callon, 1986). It seeks to understand how networks of social arrangements come into being and narrates accounts of how relations assemble or disassemble, including the processes by which actors are enrolled and interconnected (Law, 2009, p. 141). Researchers can investigate actors (Latour, 2005), tracing the interactions between them with non-human entities to unveil the dynamics of the social interactions, revealing how humans either resist, allow, deny, or assist in shaping courses of events (Latour, 1987, 2005). In other words, ANT offers researchers a lens to study the complexity and heterogeneity of human and nonhuman elements, without imposing boundaries between individuals and environments (Law, 2004, p. 23). It rather embraces anti-foundationalist perspective where nothing exists prior to its enactment (Fenwick and Edwards, 2011, p. 2). The aim is to comprehend how these elements converge and persist to form networks that yield various outcomes such as knowledge, routines, behaviours, policies, or curricula. ANT prompts inquiry into the diversity of connections among elements, the varied types and qualities of networks formed through these connections, and the range of purposes served by these networks.

ANT can be seen as a method, a methodology (Latour, 1999, 2005; Van Der Duim, Ren and Jóhannesson, 2012), and an analytical framework (Alcadipani and Hassard, 2010; Farias, 2012). Unlike other methods, ANT lacks step-by-step research step handbook, however, it provides descriptions or guidelines for conducting research. Despite its title as a theory, ANT is more aptly viewed as a method for examining relations rather than describing their form such as how relations should look like (Latour, 1999). Using ANT as a method allows researchers to explore relations among actors in networks rather than prescribing an established outcome or implying a particular network order. The exploration of relations can be done via using ANT as a method of inquiry to identify the relationships between different heterogeneous actors in practice (Latour, 2005; Bilodeau and Potvin, 2018; Beard, Scarles and Tribe, 2016) and examine their connections, how their connections work, by what ordering of relations (Van der Duim, Ampumuza and Ahebwa, 2014). In this way, ANT can help to describe the processes of social change based on a relational approach to understand relationship between actors and how it works. That is why the focus of ANT is on the how rather than the why of social arrangements (Callon, 1986).

3.7.1.1 Actors and Network

The foundation of ANT lies in its conceptualisation of actors and networks, which form the fundamental units of analysis within this framework.

Actors in ANT encompass a broad array of entities ranging from human to non-human groups such as ideas, material objects, plants, animals and so on (Latour, 2005, pp. 71-129). These actors are not merely passive but rather active participants in shaping the dynamics of a given situation. Actors, either human and non-human, can exert agency or influence by bending space around themselves and translating their will into action (Callon and Latour, 1981, p. 286). Following ANT, the world is depicted as consisting of heterogeneous relations, where both humans and non-humans have agency (Johannesson, 2005, p. 134; Latour, 2005; Beard, Scarles and Tribe, 2016). Agency, defined as “*a collective capacity for action by humans and non-humans*” (Cloe and Jones, 2004, p. 193), underscore the diverse nature of actors within networks. As a network stabilises, the distribution of power among actors become evident. Empowered actors within the network have the capacity to act on behalf of others, assuming spokesperson roles and defining functions. This perspective emphasises that the significance of actors within networks cannot be predetermined solely by their roles. Rather, it must be determined through empirical investigation of their relationships within the network. One important aspect of ANT is, it recognises the agency of non-human actors such as objects and technologies, stating that their agency can sustain human actors and establish relations within networks (Latour, 2005).

Network, on the other hand, refers to interactive assemblages of actors, groups, or actions that are interconnected through relations and translation. ANT views the world as composed of social and natural actors existing in relation to one another within these networks (Hall, 2005, p. 2676-2677). These networks are dynamic or not predetermined, they appear through processes of association and translation as actors establish relations and agency within the network (Latour, 1993; 2005; Law, 2009). Once established, networks tend to stabilise, limiting the entry of new actors or relations, and facilitating the accumulation of knowledge through translations within the network. ANT enables researchers to evaluate relationships in situ and investigate the agency of each actor within the network, regardless of their perceived importance (Benali and Ren, 2019).

3.7.1.2 Translation

ANT provides a lens for studying the formation and maintenance of networks involving both human and non-human. At the heart of ANT is the concept of translation by Callon (1986), which explain how actors, both human and non-human, collaborate in a dynamic and interactive process to establish networks (Smith, Rose and Hamilton, 2010, p. 504-505).

Through translation, actor-networks are shaped by diverse actors becoming active, trying to exert their agency and establish their relations with others. Translation, hence, is seen as continuous and evolving process of forming relational practices among actors within a network in which actors join networks and establish relations or connections (Law, 1994). Actors, hence, play an important role in the translation process (Callon, 1986).

When examining socially constructed networks, ANT assumes that each actor is an actor-network in its own right, which through its translations, involves the participation of other actors. According to Latour (1996, p. 369), actor-networks do not have fixed, socially constructed connections; rather, they create translations based on their current stage and demands placed on that actor-network. A fundamental principle in ANT is the idea that the social world is not solely composed of human interactions (Law, 1992, p. 2). The social structures are formed through the interactions between human and non-human entities. This perspective highlights that human engage in social networks not just by interacting with other people, but also through their interactions with various materials. Law (1992, p. 3) emphasises that *“machines, architectures, clothes, texts – all contribute to the patterning of the social”*.

Translation involves aligning the interests of actors within a network with those of a focal actor. This concept is elucidated through four critical stages: problematisation, interessement, enrolment, and mobilisation (Callon, 1986; Sarker and Sidorova, 2006, p. 56). To reflect the complexity of the translation process, these four stages can overlap with each other rather than being sequential. They are pivotal for the formation, expansion, and stability of networks with shared interests, essential for successful knowledge construction.

- Problematisation marks the initial phase where a focal actor identifies and frames a problem, establishing it as a necessary point of passage for finding a

solution. The focal actor then seeks to align the interests of other actors within their own, catalysing their involvement in addressing the problem.

- Interestment involves negotiation between the focal actor and other identified actors to maintain alignment with the focal actor's interests (Callon, 1986, p. 207). This process solidifies the identity of other actors within the network, ensuring their continued participation.
- Enrolment is the stage where that actors' interests align with the actor-network. It is the process when actors "*become engaged in new identities and behaviors and increasingly translated in particular directions*" (Fenwick, Edwards, and Sawchuk, 2012, p. 100). As Law (1992) notes, enrolment is inherently unstable, the connections and positions within a network require ongoing maintenance to persist.
- Mobilisation involves actors being prepared for action, with the focal actors carrying out their role as defined in the enrolment process to address the problem identified in the problematisation process.

3.7.1.3 The Adoption of Actor-network Theory in Tourism Studies

As discussed in the previous section, ANT can be used to examine how things come into their being. Since 2007, ANT has been used as an alternative way of researching tourism (Van der Duim, Ren and Jóhannesson, 2017, p. 145-146). It has increasingly applied for analysing tourism phenomena in terms of defining what is studied and how to study (Murdoch, 2006, Law, 2004), theorising tourism knowledge (see Ren, 2010; Ren, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2010; Tribe, 2010; Beard, Scarles and Tribe, 2016), educational practices (Fenwick and Edwards, 2011, p. 7), and knowledge system of tourism research (Ren, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2010; Tribe and Liburd, 2016). ANT has been applied in many empirical tourism studies which favour relationality, heterogeneity and multiplicity to examine the social construction of tourism (Van der Duim, Ren and Jóhannesson, 2017, p. 145-146). It allows to analyse a phenomenon in the process of making (Latour, 1987) from micro level where something comes into being. Using ANT, researchers can trace actors to see how they build networks. Many scholars (Tribe, 2004; Jóhannesson, 2005, p. 134; Van Der Duim, 2007, p. 962; Tomazos and Murdy, 2023) have supported to use ANT as the methodology to understand how meanings and tasks are attributed to and distributed

among actors (i.e people and things) as well as the process of ordering that emerge within tourism contexts (Van Der Duim, 2007, p. 962).

This involves observing the intricate web of relations between heterogeneous actors (Latour, 2005). ANT offers new insights into actor relations and agency to study tourism and its growth (Van Der Duim, Ampumuza and Ahebwa, 2014, p. 597). It serves as a methodology in tourism research rather than a theory to explore relations and agency among actors in networks (Tribe, 2004; Johannesson, 2005, p. 134), shedding light on how tourism unfolds in particular locations through complex networks of actors. Practically, ANT acts as a translation device in tourism research, offering an architecture concept through which narratives are constructed (Oppenheim, 2007).

In relation to research on knowledge production, ANT offers a lens to study the evolution of scientific knowledge (Latour, 1987). It delves into the complexities of knowledge construction by analysing how knowledge is generated and legitimised through actor- networks and their practices of establishing relations and agency (Law, 2007). It is used as a method to map out relations that encompass both material interactions (between things) and connections (between concepts). By examining the relations among actors within networks, ANT reveals how these relationships shape social order and contribute to the production of accepted facts or knowledge. This underscores the relational dynamic inherent in these networks and clarifies the distribution of agency, and knowledge among the actors.

ANT has been increasingly utilised in educational research to examine the intricate webs of relationship that shape educational practices, policies or knowledge (Fenwick and Edwards, 2011, p. 7). ANT offers a unique perspective that views all entities, whether human or nonhuman, as relational effects. Specifically, ANT delves into the nuanced negotiations occurring at connection points, where elements engaged in persuasion, coercion, seduction, resistance, and compromise. It traces the negotiations and effect of these relationships, revealing how educational phenomena are constructed and governed by diverse assemblages of entities. For example, it reveals that commonly studied entities such as classrooms, curriculum, or teaching practices are not static entities but rather complex assemblies of various elements. These assemblages are dynamic and often precarious networks that require continuous

effort to sustain their linkages. ANT views education as an assemblage that exists through its enactment as a distinct domain (Fenwick and Landri, 2012, p. 2). This perspective shifts the focus from individual or social issues to questions about the assemblages - how they come together, how they produce separate objects, subjects and events. ANT illustrate how these assemblages can be both made and unmade, demonstrating the potential for alternative forms and spaces to emerge and gain strength.

From the ANT perspective, knowledge and learning are both relational practices. Knowledge, in any form, emerges within the enactment of actor networks, which may encompass various communities of practice, individuals, objects, artefacts and entities (Fox, 2002). As knowledge is translated into a different actor network, it can transform into a new force of action. Learning, rather than being solely a cognitive acquisition process, arises because of the entanglement of networks. This perspective shifts the focus away from the individual as the primary unit of analysis and instead highlights the pedagogical aspects of association or nodes within networks, which often involve issues of power and politics. Fox (2002, p. 863) underscores that network learning and knowledge production can involve collaboration, competition, and conflict, drawing from Latour (1990) discussion on scientific truth claims and the consequences of dissent. To capture how learning and knowledge transfer unfold in practice, it is crucial to trace the trajectories of actors and examine the nodes of association as sites of learning that are simultaneously pedagogical, political and pragmatic.

In the context of HE, actors involved in knowledge production can be administrators, researchers, academic teachers, institutional norms and practices as interconnected networks. Of which, academics often serve as focal actors in the generation, evaluation, and dissemination of knowledge (Fenwick and Edwards, 2014). They have influences on what subjects are taught, how curricula are designed, and which pedagogical approaches are employed. Meanwhile, administrators and supporting staff can impact knowledge creation via funding, marketing, and management activities. Other actors such as governments and students, can play different roles in supporting and engaging with knowledge production process. These authors also view knowledge as a product of interconnected relations, rather than being

static. Hence to understand knowledge evolution, it is better to analyse its networks and explore how they emerge. The analysis of knowledge network is particularly relevant in HE, where traditional disciplinary knowledge has relation with pedagogical practices, market demands, and regulatory frameworks.

With the involvement of various actors in knowledge network, defining what constitutes valid knowledge for teaching is a challenge. In this case, ANT views scientific or disciplinary knowledge as the product of interactions among actors, both human and non-human in knowledge production practices (Latour, 1987). Exploring the interactions and relationship between these actors, ANT allows researchers to uncover the underlying dynamics that shape how knowledge is produced, disseminated, and legitimised within institutional contexts as universities and departments. ANT, as outlined by Tribe and Liburd (2016), offer a theoretical framework to examine tourism knowledge as a network involving human (i.e clans, elders) and non-human actors (i.e universities, departments). It provides a valuable framework for understanding the knowledge network including academic tribes and territories to understand how knowledge is constructed.

Latour's network analysis (2004, 2005, 2011) has been used in HE research to explore the relations among human and non-human actors in knowledge production network (Fenwick and Edwards, 2014). It expands the scope of knowledge generation beyond human participation, shedding light on the network that shape decision-making processes to decide degrees, subjects and pedagogies for teaching curriculum. By exploring conflicting knowledges and revealing diverse knowledge production practices, network analysis prompts critical reflection on the consequences of regulatory frameworks and opens avenues for understanding the complexities of knowledge dissemination and utilisation. Besides, ANT challenges the production of disciplinary or scientific knowledge through mode 1 and mode 2 knowledge production by Gibbons *et al.*, (1994). It reveals the impact of social and material contexts, highlighting the influence of interests, politics, and everyday experiences in knowledge production. Such understanding is crucial for understanding the complexities of curriculum development in HE settings.

3.7.2 The Adoption of Actor-network Theory in The Thesis

The third objective of this thesis is to understand how hospitality knowledge is constructed in BS. Hence, this thesis uses ANT not to study what hospitality knowledge is, but rather to examine how hospitality knowledge network works, how it is assembled, enacted, and ordered. ANT is used here to move beyond predefined social structures of knowledge, instead focusing on the dynamic relationships between actors. These relationships are examined through the interaction between academic tribes (i.e staffs and leaders) and modes of knowledge production (i.e discipline or postdiscipline). ANT is value for understanding how actors interact within the knowledge network, especially through the theory's translation phases (Van der Duim and Caalders, 2008). The thesis proposes that knowledge network for hospitality at BS can better be examined by understanding the interplay and interconnection between all the actors (human and non-human). In a sense, the thesis seeks to address the questions of how some groups, and people such as management gaze as claimed by Airey *et al.*, (2015) have come to define and decide the legitimacy of knowledge instead of others such as hospitality academic community and its culture for teaching and researching. As stated by Callon (1986, p. 19), the use of ANT can provide,

“a symmetrical and tolerant description of a complex process which constantly mixes together a variety of social and natural entities. It also permits an explanation of how a few obtain the right to express and to represent the many silent actors of the social and natural worlds they have mobilized”.

The deployment of the phases of translation is critical for understanding social construction of knowledge and how it is impacted by relationship among actors within the network. This also means that one could use phases of translation as a reference point for evaluating the construction of knowledge at institutional context.

According to Fenwick and Edwards (2014), by adopting ANT, the thesis can unveil the symbiotic relationship between the desires of academic staff and the objectives of leadership regarding curriculum design, subject matter or pedagogy for HHE in BS. ANT allows the thesis to take a relational approach to study how actors such as academic staffs and university and department leaders negotiate with each other, how the linguistic process shift power to some individuals or non-human actors

in the process of knowledge production at department and university level. It can explain how different actors can exert influence on knowledge production process, or how different factors come together to influence this process. It can help fill in the gap in understanding how this network operates in practice namely, the how and by whom knowledge is created in the department and university contexts or how the social construction of knowledge take place in institutional contexts. This is the gap that the model by Tribe and Liburd seems to be insufficient to address (see section 3.6.3). Moreover, this exploration is essential for comprehending the intricacies of the academic tribe and territory, transcending the assumption that managerial perspectives solely dictate knowledge production as stated by Airey *et al.* (2015) (see section 3.6.2). It also helps answer Munar's questions (see section 3.6.2) as to who decide knowledge production of hospitality.

3.8 A Synthesis Framework to Explore Hospitality Knowledge Production in Business School

Previous sections summarise the key concept, disciplines in relation to knowledge creation, influential models using disciplines to generate tourism knowledge in tourism studies, limitations of disciplinary thinking to knowledge production, postdiscipline to knowledge, institutionalised knowledge production, and the introduction of ANT in study knowledge network. This section introduces how the literature can be used to study hospitality knowledge production in BS following three ROs set in section 1.3 as followed:

RO 1: To explore what hospitality knowledge is

This objective seeks to gain a comprehensive understanding of hospitality knowledge production in instructional contexts as BSs. The thesis uses discipline as a lens to explore the intellectual characteristic of hospitality knowledge, focusing on its nature.

RO 2: To examine where hospitality knowledge come from

This objective is to identify the sources and dimensions of hospitality knowledge in terms of disciplines, mode of knowledge production, and the boundaries that define its scope. The discussion is based on disciplinary thinking.

RO3: To identify how hospitality knowledge is constructed?

This objective aims at examining the construction of hospitality knowledge in BS, exploring its social and organisational characteristics. Tourism knowledge system model by Tribe and Liburd (2016) to explore hospitality knowledge force field and its network at university, school and department level. ANT is employed in this case to investigate how hospitality knowledge is constructed. This includes examining the relationship between human (i.e academic teachers, and leaderships) and non-human actors (i.e universities strategies, credit system, ranking) to understand the dynamics of academic tribes and their cultural and political influences on hospitality knowledge production. The analysis focuses on decision-making processes among academics and negotiations surrounding the choice of degree, subjects and pedagogies for teaching curriculum to uncover what is considered as valid knowledge for hospitality programs, and who decide it, along with consequences of such decisions. The adoption of ANT allows the thesis to analyse the relationships among the actors and network to understand how actors and structures relate, work and co-create each other in the process of knowledge production for hospitality.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter starts with an exploration of disciplinary definition and its role in generate knowledge in the educational context. It continues with the introduction of how disciplines have been used in tourism research to generate knowledge via the introduction of *Interdiscipline model*” by Jafari and Richie (1981), *“the Indiscipline of Tourism”* (Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004), and *“Tourism knowledge system”* (Tribe and Liburd, 2016). These works map out the nature of tourism knowledge, its sources, and its characteristics and defining subject areas and modes of knowledge production for tourism courses. Following this, the chapter delves into disciplinary rethinking, and its theoretical limitation in creating knowledge alongside with the introduction of postdiscipline as a transformative wave to move beyond traditional disciplinary thinking.

Moreover, considerations beyond conventional academic tribe and territories are explored in relation to knowledge production. The discourse then shifts toward institutionalised knowledge production for tourism, drawing insights from the work of Airey *et al.*, (2015); Ateljevic *et al.*, (2007); Belhassen and Caton (2009); Munar

(2016); and Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2018). A theoretical gap in understanding how knowledge network operates within university, school and department/ academic community level is recognised. The identification of this theoretical gap has been widely acknowledged in a progressive coherence of research themes starting from tourism and knowledge (Tribe 2010, Tribe and Liburd, 2016), social construction of knowledge (Belhassen and Caton, 2009, Munar, 2016) and post-disciplinary thinking to tourism scholarship (Hall, 2005; Coles, Hall and Duval, 2005, 2006, 2009, 2016; Pernecky *et al.*, 2016 a, b). In response, ANT is adopted as a method to gain a comprehensive understanding about how hospitality knowledge is constructed at institutional contexts as universities and departments.

Conceptual procedures informed by Xin, Tribe and Chambers (2013) are adopted in this research as a methodology to develop conceptual research. This entails a series of distinct steps, including the definitions of concepts (i.e disciplines), comparative analysis of concepts (i.e discipline and post-discipline), historical analysis disciplines models in tourism research (i.e Indiscipline models and tourism knowledge system), identifying conceptual gaps (i.e knowledge network at university and department level). In this instance, these conceptual procedure focus on exploring the realm of knowledge network, its process of knowledge production and the intricate dynamics underlying the process.

The robustness of the theoretical framework to explore hospitality knowledge production can be substantiated on several fronts. Firstly, it relies on the dominant works and expertise of eminent scholars in the research field such as tourism knowledge system by Tribe and Liburd (2016) to develop key concepts. These scholars have a well-established history of engagement with the research issue and possess extensive knowledge of the relevant literature, epitomising the principles of “*good scholarship*” (Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 45). Secondly, the use of conceptual procedures informed by Xin, Tribe and Chambers (2013) enhance the quality of the conceptual framework. It allows critical assessment of previous studies and theoretical debates in choosing what concepts are suitable to use in this research.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

Chapter 4 outlines the research approach and procedures employed to achieve the study's aims and objectives. The chapter covers the philosophical assumptions underpinning the research, the research design and research methods used for data collection, analysis, and interpretation. In particular, the chapter unpacks and justifies the choice of social constructionism, the qualitative research design, use of semi-structured interviews within that design and thematic analytic approach. Additionally, the chapter explains how methodological rigor and the researcher's reflexivity for the data collection and analysis process were upheld. Finally, it addresses ethical issues in relation to the research undertaken.

4.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the “*systems of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge*” (Saunders, 2019, p. 130), influencing ontology, epistemology, methodology and axiology (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Ontology focuses on the existence or being of things and examines what a particular population or group believes to actually exist (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). It explores questions about the form and nature of reality and what can be known about it (Guba and Lincoln, 2004). Ontological assumptions guide the way in which knowledge is produced and what methodologies and epistemologies are considered appropriate (Elwood, 2010, p. 98). Epistemology is dedicated to study knowledge (Crotty, 1998). It raises questions about knowledge, how it is acquired, and what constitutes a valid claim to know something (Tribe, 2004, p.46-62; Braun and Clarke, 2006). Methodology is the study of how knowledge is acquired about the world and is intrinsically connected to broader consideration of epistemology, ontology and the researcher's paradigm. The choice of methodology is heavily contingent on the answers provided to the preceding questions of epistemology and ontology, making it clear that not every methodology is universally applicable (Guba and Lincoln, 2004, p. 22).

Additionally, research philosophy includes axiology, which examines how personal perspectives of values and ethics impact the research process (Saunders, 2019). Philosophical assumptions shape the research paradigm, which is a worldview or a set of beliefs that affect how individuals perceive the world. In social sciences, there is an increasingly acknowledgement that a methodological consideration needs

to connect fundamentally with “*paradigmatic*” issues or paradigm (Guba and Lincoln, 1998, p. 202). A paradigm serves as an overarching framework for theory building and is critical to the researcher’s worldview (Kuhn, 1970; Aliyu *et al.*, 2015). Social sciences encompass a variety of paradigms, such as positivism, post-positivism, constructivism, interpretivism, critical realism, postmodernism, and pragmatism. Each of these paradigms carries distinct ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders, 2019). The section below will focus on dominant paradigms relevant to this research. The discussion is followed by the choice of social constructionism for this study.

4.1.1 Dominant Paradigms

The thesis seeks to understand the knowledge construction for hospitality in BS, therefore it mainly draws knowledge from TH studies specially on curriculum approach and knowledge network. However, both tourism and hospitality are not well-established disciplines in research (Tribe, 2009). They borrow knowledge from multiple disciplines such as sociology, psychology, marketing, human geography, anthropology, political science and management, to mention a few. Consequently, achieving philosophical consistency is challenging, leading to the coexistence of multiple paradigms without a single dominant one (Zahra and Ryan, 2005). Despite this, certain paradigms are evidently more influential than others.

From an ontological stance, a positivist paradigm assumes the existence of one reality that can be observed and explained through quantitative methods. For an epistemological stance, positivism emphasises the importance of objectivity and valid and reliable measurements to understand phenomena (Kincheloe and McLaren, 1994). This paradigm is commonly used in tourism education and research, often focusing on managerial and functional aspects of the tourism industry (Tribe, 1999). For example, Koh (1995) and Holloway (1995) developed curriculum models using quantitative data collected from industry practitioners to meet industry demands for vocational education. Positivism, however, tends to neglect the social and contextual understanding of knowledge production (Wijesinghe, Mura and Bouchon, 2019).

The process of knowledge production is shaped by subjective knowledge force field rather than following a strictly objective path as in natural science (Tribe, 2006). This notion finds support in is the sociology of tourism knowledge and the truth about

tourism introduced by Tribe's works (2009). Positivism primarily lends itself to investigating aspects of the phenomenon that are quantifiable, leaving a significant portion of the potential scope of tourism unexplored – aspects such as emotions and values. Consequently, it becomes challenging to examine the full complexity of reality. Given its inherent subjectivity, the instrumental logic of positivism is ill-suited to provide a comprehensive understanding of the knowledge production process (Alejziak, 2019, p. 16). Davis (2001) reinforces this perspective by emphasising that researchers in tourism research, for example, need to have intuition and skilful interpretation methods to examine knowledge rather than maintaining pure objectivity to observe the world as the way it is. Several authors, such as Pernecky and Jamal (2010) and Alejziak (2019) advocate for a hermeneutic approach as a methodology to interpret and understand knowledge production. Owing to these assumptions, positivism is not suitable for this study.

Alternative paradigms such as interpretivism and critical theory have gained popularity in tourism studies to study the complex tourism phenomenon related to contextual factors, human interactions, values and ideologies (Tribe, 2001, p. 444; Belhassen and Caton, 2009, p. 336). Interpretivism recognises that reality is socially constructed and subjectively interpreted by individuals and groups (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 206). Its ontological foundation is, there is no single but multiple realities that need to be interpreted to discover the underlying meanings of events and activities. According to this paradigm, individuals construct knowledge based on their interpretations and experiences.

Unlike positivism, which prioritises objectivity, interpretivism acknowledges the inherently subjective nature of human-constructed realities (Leitch, Hill, and Harrison, 2010). It allows researchers to subjectively engage in the world, examine experiences and perceptions of individuals involved and thus gain understanding about the world through such actor involvement (Habermas, 1984, p.109-110). From understanding people experiences in their lived situation, researchers can gain shared meaning about the reality that individuals experience (Schwandt, 1998, 2003; Wang, 1999). Interpretivist researchers aim to understand individuals' unique viewpoints and experiences and how they shape their understanding of the world. The guiding principle of this paradigm is to "*let your data do the talking*" (Jordan and Gibson,

2004, p. 215). Interpretive methods aim to provide a naturalistic perspective to the phenomena they investigate, resulting in accounts that are often contradictory, perplexing, context-specific, and complex. These accounts may be contested by positivists who argue they may lack reliability or validity. Interpretivism focuses on understanding the meaning behind human behaviour and social phenomena (Pulla and Carter, 2018). Because of such reasons, interpretivism is not adopted in this thesis. The purpose of this thesis is not to explore the meaning or purposes of hospitality knowledge production in BS. Instead, it focuses more on how knowledge is constructed in BS.

Critical theory challenges commonly held assumptions and aims to initiate social actions for social justice (Crotty, 1998). At its ontological position, critical theory envisions the social world as governed by rules. Yet, it recognises the potential for change within these very rules. In particular, critical research not only questions prevailing ideologies but also social justice causes. Researchers operating within this paradigm often take on the role of interrogators, questioning widely accepted values and assumptions, dismantling conventional social structures, and promoting social action (ibid). According to critical theorists, researchers cannot claim neutrality, ideological or political innocence. Critical theory's epistemological perspective lies between subjectivism and objectivism. Its axiology is intrinsic, value laden, and emancipatory, which is not the same as the objectivism notion of the positivist paradigm (Chambers, 2007, p.109). With regard to knowledge production, critical theory also differs from other paradigms. Positivist and interpretative paradigms tend to focus on technical and hermeneutic knowledge (Gage, 1989). Whereas the focus of critical theory centres around three main interests (Habermas, 1978). These interests include a technical interest in environmental management; a practical interest in understanding the environment; and an emancipatory interest in knowledge free from politics, society or economy. The job of critical theory is to identify dominant ideology that shapes the knowledge production process (Tribe, 2001, p. 446). Ideology, in this context, can be seen as a regime of beliefs that influence the thought and practices of those who inhabit it. For this reason, critical theory is not adopted in this study.

4.1.2 Social Constructionism

This thesis embraced social constructionism, the paradigm initially introduced by Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann to explore the role of sociology in knowledge (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). Often seen as synonymous with social constructivism (Creswell, 2018), social constructionism can also be linked with interpretivism (Andrews, 2012). Interpretivism, posits that the truth emerges from social constructions and interactions (Berryman, 2019), adopting an ontological perspective of relative and multiple realities and a subjective epistemology (Saunders, 2019), which are aligned with the principles of social constructionism.

Ontologically speaking, social constructionism posits that reality is formed through social interactions among individuals (Saunders, 2019). As Butowski *et al.*, (2021, p. 53) state, “*the meaning of the social world cannot be discovered but is rather constructed by humans along with their histories, societies, ideas and languages*”. This viewpoint implies that objectivity is unattainable because multiple realities are subjective and interconnected, with ideas, thoughts, and actions emerging from ongoing interaction and interpretation (Lindgren and Packendorff, 2009).

Epistemologically speaking, social constructionism believes knowledge is constructed rather than created (Burns *et al.*, 2022). This perspective emphasises the interconnectedness of knowledge and social actions, where knowledge is upheld through social practices and human relationships. This paradigm also embraces the relativism of knowledge, asserting that all knowledge is contextually inherent, influenced by social, cultural or economic context (Burr, 1995). Language is pivotal in this epistemology, as it shapes reality by allowing the articulation of socially constructed meanings, facilitating the generation and perpetuation of knowledge, and serving as the foundation of thought.

The ontological and epistemological principles of social constructionism influence methodological considerations. Social constructionism asserts that both the researcher and participants collaborate in constructing theory and practice. Hence, empirical research within this paradigm arises from interactions between the researcher and the participants being studied (Lindgren and Packendorff, 2009). Social constructionism situates individuals within their social, cultural, and historical contexts, suggesting that phenomena can only be comprehended through a thorough examination of these contexts (Burr, 1995; Young and Collin, 2004). Consequently,

researchers are compelled to explore phenomena in rich detail, considering detailed participant perspectives (Saunders, 2019). Therefore, it promotes the use of qualitative methods such as in-depth interviews, ethnography, stories and narrative analysis (Lindgren and Packendorff, 2009).

Social constructionism is best suited for this thesis. Firstly, it aligns with the study context. As mentioned in the literature, knowledge is social constructed within its knowledge network. Its construction is subjective to knowledge force field such as people (e.g. academic tribe) and positions (e.g. universities, departments) which decide what knowledge is deemed legitimate. This implies that society shapes the reality of knowledge production. Secondly, social constructionism focuses on the contextual environment of the research participants and extensively considers social, historical and cultural impact (Burr, 1995; Young and Collin, 2004). This paradigm enables a comprehensive exploration of participants' context, which shapes their approach to knowledge production. It facilitates the identification of changes, decisions, assumptions, and perceptions related to hospitality knowledge in the studied context. Furthermore, empirical work in social constructionism involves interactions between the researcher and the participants (Lindgren and Packendorff, 2009). These interactions facilitate a thorough comprehension of the context and phenomena under study. Having discussed the underpinning philosophical assumptions, the next section will explore methodology and methods based on the conceptual lens navigating this research

4.2 Qualitative Research Design

Research designs may vary between exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, evaluative, or a blend of these designs, contingent upon the research goals and inquiries (Saunders, 2019). This thesis follows an exploratory research design, aiming to gain a profound understanding of a problem or phenomenon that is not well explored or necessitates fresh insights (Neuman, 2014). As mentioned in chapter 1, this study aims to understand knowledge production for hospitality in BS, which is a phenomenon that require more insights. To achieve this aim, the research has the following three objectives:

RO 1: To explore what hospitality knowledge is.

RO 2: To examine where hospitality knowledge comes from.

RO3: To understand how hospitality knowledge is constructed.

Considering the research aim and objectives, an exploratory research design is appropriate for comprehending and acquiring new insights into the research problem. Within the exploratory framework, a qualitative approach is employed to facilitate inductive research and in-depth examination of a specific topic (Gubrium *et al.*, 2012). Unlike positivism that imposes predefined conceptual structures and assumptions about data interrelationships before data collection, an inductive approach allows for a greater openness to the emergence of insights during the research process (Kaplan and Maxwell, 2005). Qualitative researchers can achieve a deep understanding of a phenomenon through the exploration of people's lived experiences and viewpoints. This approach moves beyond merely description to include the interpretation of meaning that individuals attribute to a phenomenon (Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas, 2013). In this approach, participants are considered the experts, contributing to the creation of knowledge (Auerbach and Silverstein, 2003).

Quantitative research aims to explore the truth objectively and neutrally, often critiquing qualitative research for lacking rigor, universal truths, predictive capabilities and generalizability (Dredge *et al.*, 2011). However, qualitative researchers argue that research cannot be value-free and objective, recognising the subjectivity and limitations inherent in their approach. Qualitative research is deemed necessary to explore the complexity of social phenomena such as knowledge production in the field of tourism (Goodson and Phillimore, 2004). Unlike quantitative research, qualitative approaches are better suited to understanding the impact of culture, politics and the social construction of knowledge. Traditional disciplinary thinking in tourism knowledge, often associated with positivism, tends to be instrumental and narrow in its focus on disciplinary boundaries (Botterill, 2001; Ateljevic *et al.*, 2005). As stated by Gerring (2010, p. xiii),

“Contemporary social science is overly quantitative, obsessed with abstract models that have few real-life applications, too limited in scope – leaving out normative questions, questions that cannot be quantified, questions that hinge on human agency and cultural meaning - and steeped in an arcane ('scientific') rhetoric. It reads poorly and does not satisfy”

In this context of this research, qualitative research is adopted. Qualitative research allows for a focus on specific contexts, the interpretation of meanings, and the exploration of how and why things happen rather than focusing on causal relationships among variables (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). One of the key strengths of qualitative research is its ability to view data from the participants' viewpoint rather than the researcher's opinions (Creswell, 1998). This approach enhances understanding by considering the viewpoints and experience of those directly involved in the research. Qualitative research is particularly well-suited for examining human actions and perspectives within small-scale contexts or a small sample size (Veal, 1992). This focus allows for a holistic exploration of the context without any limitation to any variables (Fairbrother, 2007, p. 46).

Furthermore, qualitative research offers flexibility in adapting research questions and topics throughout the research process (Diefenbach, 2009, p. 877). At the beginning of a qualitative research process, researchers can have certain questions in mind and these questions can become more vivid only after a period of investigating. In some cases, new or redefined questions can be made during and because of the research process as a sign of a better understanding about the research problem. The choice of qualitative research also aligns with this exploratory study and its grounding in social constructionism. It is well-suited for gaining a contextual understanding of how and why hospitality knowledge is produced within institutional settings influenced by human interaction and knowledge network.

4.3 Case Studies

Qualitative research employs various research designs such as narrative research, phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory or case studies (Creswell, 2018). This section delves into essential considerations regarding case studies, drawing insights from three prominent authors in this field, including Yin (1981), Stake (1995) and Merriam (1998). Their methodological contributions significantly influence educational researchers when it comes to case studies (Creswell *et al.*, 2007; Yazan, 2015, p. 135).

The choice of case studies

Adopting qualitative research, this study aims to explore complex social construction of hospitality in BS. According to Stake (1995, p. 100), case study

researchers contribute to readers' experience hinges on their underlying beliefs about knowledge and reality. Stake's reasoning is grounded in that prevailing view among contemporary qualitative researcher that "*knowledge is constructed rather than discovered*" (1995, p. 99). Therefore, he conceives researchers using qualitative cases study as interpreters and collectors of interpretations, requiring them to articulate their construction of the knowledge derived from their investigations. Having a similar epistemological stance with Stake, Merriam posits that "*reality is constructed by individuals interacting with their social worlds*" (1998, p. 6). Merriam also emphasises that "*reality is not an objective entity*", instead, it exists in "*multiple interpretations*" (1998, p. 22).

According to Stake (2005, p. 443), "*case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied*". Case studies serve as a valuable means to attain the holistic understanding of a research problem in its natural setting and supports the collection of rich and contextual data (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, p. 3). Researchers can carry out a scientific investigation of real-life phenomena in-depth and within their environment settings. These phenomena can encompass individuals, groups, organisations, events or problems (Stake, 2005). Such investigation can allow researchers to sustain and intimate contact with subjects, observing behaviours and conducting interviews to gain insights into their perceptions and experience (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Corbin and Strauss, 2015). Compared to experiment or survey methods, case studies do not delineate or control contextual conditions. Instead, they are integral part of the research and enable in-depth contextual analysis of specific settings such as nature, history, and contextual factors (Stake, 2000, p. 438). This approach allows for the development rich descriptions of research phenomena in real-life contexts, including contemporary events (Yin, 2009, p. 8-18).

Case studies are instrumental in discovering truth claims, especially when there is a broad range of knowledge and researchers need to describe, explore, analyse, and formulate issues (Flyvjerg, 2006; Dredge *et al.*, 2015, p. 46-47). They provide an opportunity for storytelling and gaining context-dependent knowledge and expertise (Flyvjerg, 2006). Case studies can capture contemporary stories within the constraints of time and resources. It enables researchers to use various methods (e.g. thick descriptions, narratives, historical accounts, and hermeneutics) to present stories.

Unit of analysis

Case studies can be classified in various ways, especially concerning the unit of analysis and such classifications play a crucial role in theory building. The choice between single and multiple case studies depends on the research objectives and the depth of understanding sought (Yin, 1981; Eisenhardt, 1989). Additionally, Stake (1994) categorises case studies into intrinsic, instrumental, and collective types, each serving distinct purposes in research. Single-case studies are suitable when the primary objective is to gain an in-depth understanding of a specific case or phenomenon. These studies provide a detailed description and analysis that delves into the how and why of events and behaviours (Fiss, 2009). The richness of data obtained from single case studies allows researchers to uncover deeper causes underlying the phenomenon, closely examining emerging cases, patterns and relationships, and offering opportunities to create, extend or test theories (Gomm, Hammersley and Foster, 2000).

On the other hand, multiple-case studies are valuable for cross-case analysis. They facilitate systematic comparisons among cases, revealing both similarities and differences and how these factors impact research findings. In cross-case analysis, each case is initially treated as a single, independent unit of analysis, allowing researchers to identify mechanism specific to each case. Subsequently, these mechanisms can be compared to draw theoretical conclusions (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007, p. 27). Explanatory and exploratory research designs are particularly useful for theory building, while descriptive designs are suitable for gaining understanding of specific cases.

Stake (1994) categorises case studies into three types: intrinsic, instrumental and collective. Intrinsic case designs focus on a particular case to gain a deeper understanding of that specific case. Instrumental case studies, on the other hand, are designed to address a specific issue or problem, providing insights into a broader studied phenomenon (Stake, 1994; Merriam, 2009). Collective case studies expand on the instrumental design by including multiple cases. A simple comparison among three types is that, if an intrinsic case can provide a better understanding of a particular case, instrumental and collective case studies are used for improving theoretical

understanding of a phenomenon (Merriam, 2009) as it offers “*insight into an issue*” (Stake, 1994, p. 237).

4.4 Interviews

Interviews were adopted in this thesis to conduct the exploratory qualitative research aimed at understanding how hospitality knowledge is constructed in BS. Interviews help gather insights into individuals’ perceptions and thinking (Gray, 2004). Interviews capture both historical reconstructions and current perceptions about people’s emotions, experiences and concerns while also projecting future expectations (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Therefore, interviews represent an ideal approach for gaining deeper insights, exploring phenomena and addressing the research objectives.

Interviews can take place in many forms, such as focus group interviews, which offer perspectives from multiple viewpoints and interaction dynamics within groups (Vershina and Rodionova, 2011). They also encompass individual interviews, which can vary in structure from structured to semi-structured or unstructured, depending on the degree of control and adherence to pre-determined questions. Structured interviews impose strict control over question sequences which leaves researchers limited room for deviation, whereas participants can be flexible to express their answers following unstructured interviews (May, 2011). In this qualitative research, the researcher opted for semi-structured over structured interview as a main method for data collection. Researchers can have more conversational and flexible way to interview participants without having strictly pre-established categories or frameworks. Instead, the researcher can have reflexivity and reciprocity to actively engage in a conversation and co-construct knowledge with participants by asking questions in different orders (Bryman, 2004, p. 321). Hence, an in-depth exploration of themes can be reached.

The use of semi-structured interviews aligns with the qualitative framework which aims to understand how individuals “*enact and construct meaning in their daily lives*” (Denzin, 2001, p. 43). From there, the study can collect rich data that addresses the how and why questions. To effectively carry out semi-structured interviews, the interviewer needs to develop appropriate interviewing skills. This includes establishing a rapport with the interviewees to create an emotional connection during the interview process. Additionally, the interviewers should employ open-questions, potential follow-up questions and prompts to ensure the interview structure while

allowing for exploration and a deeper understanding of the participants' perspectives (Bryman, 2004, p. 324). By employing semi-structured interviews, the researcher can create a collaborative and interactive environment that encourages participants to share their experiences and insight freely. This approach enables the collection of nuance and detailed data, contributing to a comprehensive understanding of the research phenomena.

Determining the appropriate number of interviews for the research is an important consideration. Saturation, a concept referring to the point at which additional data collection no longer yields new information or insights, serves as a valuable criterion (Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006; Ando, Cousins, and Young, 2014). Typically, saturation can be achieved within 6-12 interviews, where information become evident and no new meaningful data emerge. However, the concept of saturation can be complex, as some researchers view saturation as reaching a point of data redundancy, others argue that new patterns of meaning can still emerge even after several interviews. To address this challenge, a clear guide for data analysis should be established to ensure no topic or theme is overlooked. By following this approach, researchers can effectively identify when saturation has been achieved and make informed decisions regarding the sample size.

The interview protocol followed the guidelines outlined in Weiss (1994) and included multiple steps to ensure a systematic and reliable data collection process. Firstly, an initial email was sent to participants to join the study, providing them with an introduction to the research project. Once participants accepted to participate in interviews, informed consent letters were sent along with proposed dates and time for the interviews. This protocol includes: 1) Inviting the individuals to participate, 2) Preparing for the interview, 3) Conducting interviews online, 4) Extracting interview transcripts from Zoom, and 5) Analysing interview transcripts. The aim was to mitigate potential unconscious biases and increase the reliability of the data collected (Diefenbach, 2009, p. 880).

Prior to commencing each interview, an introduction about the research project was sent by email along with an invitation for interview can help participants somehow have general ideas of what they are going to be asked. During the first three to five minutes, the researcher introduced the research aim, reasons why participants were

invited for interview and what she hoped to gain from the interview. Also, the research applied ethics code of conduct during the interview and data analysis to make sure there is no bias.

Building trust is an important aspect of the data collection process. As stated by Glesne (2006), “*building rapport is a distance reducing anxiety-quieting, trust-building mechanism that fundamentally serves the interest of the researcher*” (p. 110). The researcher adhered to ethical standards set by University of Strathclyde for postgraduate research and maintain an unbiased and professional manner. This approach helped foster rapport and create a safe pace for participants to freely express their opinions and thoughts during the interviews. Active listening and appropriate probing questions were used to gather rich information. All interview transcripts were stored in the researcher’s personal device, ensuring data confidentiality.

Online interviews conducted via Zoom were adopted instead of face-to-face methods for the convenience of both interviewee and interviewer for time and travelling. During Covid-19 pandemic situation, this choice was even more suitable to avoid in-person interaction and ensure health safety for both sides while reducing logistical cost (Evans, Elford, and Wiggins, 2008; O’Connor, Madge and Shaw, 2008; Deakin and Wakefield, 2014) and no disclosing personal spaces of participants (Hanna, 2012). Online interview, however, receives certain criticism due to reducing interpersonal interactions (Hanna, 2012), losing intimacy (Seitz, 2016) and relationships (Mann and Stewart, 2000), having potential distractions (Deakin and Wakefield, 2014), or technical problems affecting the interview flow (Seitz, 2016). Given these issues, the researcher had to develop a careful interview protocol regarding choosing a private and quite study room to prevent potential interruptions during the interviews, using sufficient software to record the interviews, and following an interview plan to approaches and coordinate with the interviewers.

The development of an interview guide is a crucial step in ensuring that no topic is “*neglected*” (Merton, Fiske and Kendall, 1990, p. 42) and that participants have opportunities to share their perspectives (James and Busher, 2006). This thesis developed an interview guide comprising a set of questions designed to steer the semi-structured interviews and maintain consistency in the data collection (Krauss *et al.*, 2009). Interview questions require prior familiarity with the areas under investigation

(Kallio *et al.*, 2016). In this study, the interview questions were developed following the literature review aligned with the research objectives (see section 4.6.2 for more details). As a result, the interview guide included primary questions along with follow-up queries designed to elicit more detailed responses. While all questions were pre-planned, there was room for spontaneous follow-up questions based on participants' answers (Kallio *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, the interview guide underwent several revisions during the study to elicit more targeted responses and accommodate emerging themes identified in the early stage of data analysis (Krauss *et al.*, 2009). Crucially, adhering to semi-structured interview principles, the guide remained flexible in terms of question order and structure.

4.5 Sampling

Purposeful sampling is a deliberate and strategic choice in qualitative case study design, selected to gather the most comprehensive and relevant information about the research issue (Patton, 1990). This sampling approach is suitable for the qualitative research, even with a small sample size, as it enables the selection of participants and case studies with the utmost relevance of the research objectives (Creswell, 2003, p. 185). One of the key advantages of purposeful sampling is its capacity to identify and select participants capable of providing rich and detailed descriptions of the phenomenon under investigation. This ensures that data collected is not only meaningful but also aligns with the research goals. Moreover, purposeful sampling is particularly useful for studies that aim to test theory propositions and utilise a conceptual framework set in the literature review (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 533; Patton, 1990, p. 177). By selecting participants who can contribute substantially to the research questions, purposeful sampling enhances the overall quality of the study.

Criterion sampling is used to ensure that the participants chosen for the research can provide a rich understanding of the phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Eisenhardt (1989, p. 537) discourages “*random selection of cases*” as it may not provide the rich contextual information necessary to address research questions. Instead, the use of purposive sampling and snowball sampling is endorsed, aligning with the research objectives and the quest for valuable insights (Patton, 2002).

Mitigating potential biases in the data collection process is crucial for maintaining the integrity of the research. Purposeful sampling can be useful in this

case when numerous and highly knowledgeable informants who view the focal phenomena from diverse perspectives can be invited for interviews. These informants can include participants from different hierarchical levels, functional areas, groups (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007, p. 28). It indicates that the researcher should choose a number of participants holding different job titles ranging from researchers, teaching staff and program coordinators, who have rich experience in the field of hospitality education.

4.6 Covid-19 and Its Effect on Qualitative Research

This section provides information about the actual research field work and how it was impacted by Covid- 19.

4.6.1. Covid-19 and Its Effect on Case Study Design

At the start of this PhD in February 2018, the primary research was conducted under the project titled “*A critical perspective on higher hospitality education at undergraduate level in Vietnam and Scotland*”. The study employed semi-structured interviews as a means to gain insights from academic staff, practitioners and policy makers. The participants included academic staff involved in delivering and researching hospitality undergraduate programs in universities located in Scotland and Vietnam. Additionally, practitioners and policy makers working in TH departments or organisations in both countries were also included as the participant pool. The overarching objectives of these interviews were as follows:

- To identify the key drivers including factors and stakeholders that significantly impact the development of undergraduate hospitality programs in Vietnam and Scotland,
- To explore the extent to which these drivers impact universities in the development of undergraduate hospitality programs in both countries, and
- To investigate how these drivers have distinct effects on the development of these undergraduate hospitality programs in two diverse contexts of Scotland and Vietnam.

Following this research, the plan was to choose multiple cases and purposefully focus on universities located in main cities in Scotland and Vietnam. This approach was in line with Eisenhardt’s (1989) recommendation for an open and flexible approach to case study design, which encourages the development of a descriptive

framework. It enabled the researchers to delve into the data with a sense of curiosity, uncovering controversies and conundrums within the stories that emerged from the data (Dredge *et al.*, 2015, p. 48-49). Rather than confining the study to specific theories propositions, this literature review served as a foundational step, as advocated by Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 17).

The first phase of the initial research started with Scotland for convenience purposes. The researcher planned to collect data for three to five months before travelling to Vietnam. In phase 1, the first step involved the identification of HE institutions (HEIs) in Scotland offering hospitality courses. To ensure the purposeful selection, two set of criteria were used for choosing both universities and participants for interviews. The universities had to be HE institutions in Scotland providing undergraduate degrees in hospitality, which were identified using the Guardian University Guide (2020) and Complete University Guide Ranking (2020) (appendix 1). A thorough search was conducted in the subject areas “*hospitality, events and tourism programmes*” and “*tourism, transport, travel and heritage studies*” on the respective websites. This research resulted in the identification of a total of eight HEIs in Scotland. In phase 2, the final criteria used for choosing universities were applied. These were:

- 1) HEIs provide hospitality courses at university level teaching from level 6 (undergraduate degree),
- 2) HEIs provide hospitality courses within their college/school/faculty/department, and,
- 3) Staff profile indicates their teaching and research interests which are related to the study of hospitality subjects.

The participants in this study were academic teachers or researchers whose profiles could be found in the websites of four chosen universities. I examined each university’s website to find a list of academic staff whose job responsibilities ranged from teaching and designing hospitality subjects, researching to monitoring hospitality programs in the chosen universities. Based on staff’ emails listed in websites, initial contact was made through emails, where the participants were introduced to the research project and invited to join interviews (appendix 2).

From September to October, 2019, four interviews were conducted with four participants from university A, while the scheduling of interviews with other participants was ongoing. After initial interviews, I performed initial to analyse the collected data. These four interviews revealed significant relationships among the idea of hospitality education, the choice of knowledge and teaching methods, which ultimately impact curriculum design. These relationships inspired me to take a closer look at a theoretical relationship among ideology, epistemology and pedagogy. Subsequently, I developed a conceptual framework based on ideology, epistemology and pedagogy which I submitted and present at an online international conference (CAUTHE) in February 2021 (appendix 5).

In December 2019, the World Health Organisation was alerted about pneumonia cases in China, which was later identified as Covid-19. By March 2020, the first case of Covid-19 in Scotland was confirmed, and travel restrictions were implemented due to the pandemic. Consequently, I was unable to collect data in Vietnam as originally planned and decided to focus solely on Scotland for data collection. With Scotland facing partial lockdowns and travel restrictions starting from March 2020, I discussed with two supervisors and decided to change the topic of the study. The new topic for research was refined to *“Hospitality knowledge production in Business School: A case of Scotland”*.

To initiate this research, I used four interviews with university A as a case study 1. The insights from these initial four interviews influenced the revision of interview questions (appendix 6) for data collection for case study 2 and additional interviews (appendix 7 and 8). I continued to select multiple cases for the revised research. A total of twenty participants received emails and thirteen of them accepted the invitation to participate in the interviews. All communications were conducted exclusively via emails, which allowed for easy coordination of interview guides and addressing any questions they had. Subsequently, I conducted interviews with participants in other three universities from January to roughly the middle of April, 2021. Four additional interviews took place from the end of April to June, 2021. The findings from these multiple cases provided an intensive and holistic description of HHE provision and more insights of HME in BS in Scotland. Table 2 below summarises the timeline of the field work carried out in this research.

Table 2: A fieldwork timetable

Stage	Action	Time frame and objective
1	Four interviews in the university A	24 th September-29 th October 2020
2	Interview academic staff working in university B, C and D in Scotland	11 th January to 19th April 2021
3	Additional interviews with four academic staff in university A, B, C and D	23th April- June, 4 th 2021
4	Data analysis	July to December, 2021

University profiles

This following section provides the description of the four institutions where the interviews were undertaken. These universities were formerly polytechnics that transitioned to gain university status. All have a longstanding history of providing vocational education aimed at producing job-ready graduates with practical skills to meet industry demands. At the time of the research taking place, these universities were known for offering undergraduate business and management degrees in hospitality. Only the brief description of each institution is provided, with certain identifying details anonymised, to avoid potential university identification. The information presented below has been sourced from the respective institution's official website.

Institution A

Hospitality is an academic subject group and part of BS

Hospitality and tourism were previously provided by a specialist school known as a hotel school. Currently, hospitality and tourism are positioned together as a faculty degree within one department in BS. For this study, a total of five academic staff specializing in hospitality and tourism teaching and research agreed to attend the interview.

Institution B

Hospitality is an academic subject group and part of BS

Hospitality, together with tourism, festival and events, is positioned as part of tourism and languages subject group provided by BS. Of a small number of academic staff teaching and researching hospitality-related subjects, four academic staff participated in interviews.

Institution C*Hospitality is a subject area and part of BS*

Together with tourism and event, hospitality is a part of International Hospitality and Tourism subject area which is provided by the School of Creative and Cultural Business. This school has training facilities on campus for hospitality-related courses. Two academic staff were interviewed.

Institution D*Hospitality is a subject area and part of BS*

Hospitality, tourism and event are housed within BS. This institution has facilities to provide practical training related to restaurants and kitchens. A total of two academic staff having academic titles related to hospitality subjects were interviewed.

Participant profiles

This section provides an overview and discussion of the profiles of thirteen participants who were interviewed for this study. These profiles are constructed based on five aspects i.e. educational background, professional background, current academic role, area of specialty and years of working experience:

1. Educational background. This aspect explores the participants' educational qualifications, serving as indicators of their academic credentials and their relevance to the field of hospitality.
2. Professional background. Delves into the nature of participants' past and present working experience, both within and outside the academic realm.
3. Current role. This aspect focuses on the current academic role(s) and responsibilities held by the participants with their respective institutions, encompassing responsibilities such as teaching, research, and program coordination.

4. Area of specialty. Explores the participants professional expertise in academia, emphasising their teaching and research disciplines, fields or subjects.
5. Years of working experience. This aspect covers the duration in which the participants have been engaged in teaching and/or research related to hospitality programs within academic institutions.

Drawing from these five facets, Table 3 below provides the profile overview of the thirteen participants who were interviewed for the research.

Table 3: Participant profiles

No	Participants	Descriptions
1	A-001	A professor with twenty-five years of experience, holding a PhD in HRM, and expertise in work and employment issues within retail and hospitality industries
2	A-002	A teaching fellow with three years' experience, with a PhD in hospitality, culinary experience as a chief, and a focus on recruitment training and retention of chefs.
3	A-003	A senior lecture and associate dean with eleven years of experience, holding a PhD and Master degree in tourism
4	A-004	A senior research specialist with two years of experience, holding a PhD in human geography and a Master degree in tourism development studies focusing on tourism management and innovation studies.
6	A-005	A reader with fifteen years of experience, holding a Master of philosophy in hospitality education and specialising in service research, community-based tourism and postgraduate research.
6	B-001	A lecture of eight years of experience, having a PhD in hospitality, a Master degree in international hospitality and tourism management, and a bachelor degree (hons) in community arts, focusing on food and beverage management,

		accommodation management, and alternative economics in hospitality.
7	B-002	A professor with fourteen years of experience, holding a PhD in educational psychology and specialising in hospitality, tourism education, festival and events and HRM
8	B-003	A senior lecture with nineteen years of experience, holding a PhD in educational research, Master degree in HRM and a bachelor degree (hons) in English and history, specialising in pedagogy and leadership.
9	B-004	A professor with thirty-one years of experience, holding a PhD in hospitality and tourism studies, Master degree in business administration, and a bachelor degree (hons) in French studies and sociology, specialising in critical and sociological perspectives on hospitality and tourism management.
10	C-001	A senior lecturer with thirty-five years of experience, holding a Post graduate certificate at tertiary level of teaching, an MBA in management and a bachelor degree in tourism and hospitality, specialising in hotel management and chairing a hotel association.
11	C-002	A subject lead for hospitality, tourism and event, a senior lecturer with nineteen years of experience, holding bachelor and Master in international tourism management,
12	D-001	A head of division and senior lecturer with thirteen years of experience, holding a PhD in Hospitality and a bachelor in hospitality and tourism, specialising in small hospitality enterprises, hospitality, tourism and events.
13	D-002	A lecture and program leader with four years of experience, holding a PhD in highland games, with various positions in the tourism sector and overseas cruise ships, specialising in agritourism and community cultural events.

In terms of education background, among the thirteen participants, ten participants held doctoral degrees while one was pursuing a doctoral degree at the time of interview. The remaining two participants held an Master of philosophy and MBA degree, respectively. The doctoral degrees cover various fields, including hospitality and tourism, educational research and pedagogy, human resource management, human geography and highland games.

Regarding professional background, seven participants had prior work experience in the hospitality industry, spanning roles in hotels, restaurants, cruise ships, conferences, consultancy. Four participants had worked in colleges and taken over different research and teaching positions before their current roles in academia.

In relation to current role, the thirteen academic staff interviewed for the research held different roles in institutions. Some participants held multiple titles, including professors, head of department, program leads, subject leads, senior lecturers, and readers. Among them, there participants held the positions of professors, with two of them also serving as heads of department and one recently retiring. Additionally, six participants held administrative and managerial-related positions alongside their teaching roles, such as associated deans, directors of learning and teaching, programme lead, program coordinators and subject leads.

The area of specialty by the participants are classified into general categories of academic disciplines, fields and subjects. Some participants' specialities can be further categorised into sub-areas such as HRM, marketing, human geography, critical hospitality education.

Participants had varying years of working experience within their respective institutions. While one participant had just two years of experience, the majority had been working for more than ten years. Nine participants had more than ten years working, while the remaining four had less than ten- year experience.

4.6.2 Interview questions

Interview questions for two case studies

The primary aim of the first thirteen interviews was to gather comprehensive and contextually rich data regarding the research subject. To achieve this, a set of opened-ended what and how questions were employed (appendix 6). These questions were intentionally broad to allow participants to share as much information as possible.

The duration of these interviews typically ranged from approximately fifty minutes to one hour, allowing for an in-depth exploration of the research phenomenon. I designed these interview questions to address key aspects related to the hospitality undergraduate programs, with a focus on obtaining a holistic understanding of each institutional context. Specifically, these questions delved into areas such as the types of degrees offered, the primary subjects taught, and the main teaching pedagogies. These thematic areas were developed based on existing debates or concerns about the relocation of HHE in BS, as well as changes in degree programs and curricula, as identified in the study's introduction. Examples of questions were:

- What are the main knowledge domains of these programs?
- What are the main subjects of these programs (e.g. general management and business/ hospitality related subjects)?
- How are these programs taught in your institutions?
- What is main teaching/pedagogical approach for these programs (e.g. vocational or theoretical, practical training/ academic, vocational/ liberal training)?

From case study 1 to 2, interview questions were modified so that the researcher could gather the most relevant data to the research problem. The change is consistent with a qualitative research frame which allows, and indeed encourages, the revising research questions as the data collection progresses.

Additional interview interviews

Additional interviews took place from 23th April to 4th June, 2021. The goal of the additional interviews was to gain more in-depth descriptions of participants' specific experience within the chosen domain. These interviews were structured based on previous interviews with four selected participants and the data collected from those interviews. The role of the interviewer was to provide a context in which participants feel free to describe their experience in detail. Each interview lasted approximately forty-five minutes to one hour. The purpose was to understand more about lived experience based on perspectives of who experience it (Patton, 1990). Hence, the task of the researcher in this case is to delve into experiences of individuals, seek to understand their behaviours and thoughts about what and how they experience the things, events or phenomena being studied (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975, p. 14).

The participants were asked to expand their thoughts about experience in specific events such as making decisions for changes in hospitality subjects in their universities (appendix 7 and 8). Two main aims of such interview were to explore:

- What is the assumption/ philosophy behind that model of HHE in the chosen university?
- How the educational model of business/ management degree and its philosophy link with the goal of university education (for job or for student life-long learning), the identity of HHE and the vocational/ liberal education debates?

The two questions, firstly, asked how hospitality academic felt about a change in degree from hospitality standalone to business and management degrees in hospitality, changing subjects and teaching pedagogy, how decisions were made between academic community in hospitality department in BS. Secondly, these questions aimed to understand the being a hospitality academic in wide academic community BS, what external factors (e.g. industry and student demand) impacted their decision making for hospitality knowledge production and so on. These questions help shed lights on the contextual picture within which HHE is located, which can be used to discuss what, how and why hospitality knowledge is produced in such context.

During these interviews, the researcher used daily language for communication rather than theoretical language, allowing participants to express their experience in their own words (Patton, 1990). The interviews were designed to unfold the nature and characteristics of participants' experience and to capture their perception, descriptions, feelings, memories, sense-making, and discussions related to their university contexts and the process of teaching and designing hospitality subjects and curriculum (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 6; Thompson, Locander and Pollio, 1989, p. 138). Even though prior to interview, the researcher initially explored the existing literature to generate broad research questions that would contribute to extant knowledge, no existing theories and ideas or any preconceptions were taken into the interview. In this way, the researcher can make suitable inquiries related to participants experience to explore any unexplored domains of participants' experience and more details of narrative lived experience linked with their universities' context or discussions among groups of

academic staff in the process of teaching and designing hospitality subjects and curriculum (Thompson, Locander and Pollio, 1989, p. 138).

4.6.3 Using Field Notes and Diaries

As a result of Covid-19 pandemic, I changed the research topic and scope, which impacts a decision on changing research methods. Along with online interviews, this study incorporated data from reflective diaries and field notes recorded during and after interviews. Field notes encompass reflections on the research process via comments the researcher made (Van Maanen, 1988). It includes methodological considerations such as the effectiveness of interview questions and the recording of participants' responses (Nadin and Cassell, 2006, p. 211). Whereas, research diaries document reflections and changes in both researcher and the field (Carduff, Murray and Kendall, 2015). Reflection on thoughts and feelings can help researchers be aware of their bias and assumptions about participants (Nadin and Cassell, 2006, p. 211). Field notes and diaries provide rich textual data for understanding the meaning of participants' responses and behaviours that can be analysed as part of the study. These are crucial for the researcher's reflexivity which is explained in detail in section 4.9.

4.7 Thematic Analysis

Data analysis is a crucial step in research, as it helps making sense of collected data and uncover meaning insights (Denzin, 1998, p. 313). Data analysis encompasses the tasks of describing, categorising, and identifying meaningful connections within the data. It also involves reducing, reorganising and representing data to explain the studied phenomena and develop theory (Tuckett, 2005; Flick, 2013). Various methods are available for analysing qualitative data, namely, thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006, 2013, 2021), content analysis (Mayring, 2004), grounded theory (Charmaz and Belgrave, 2012), narrative analysis (Riessman, 1993), and discourse analysis (Brown *et al.*, 1983). Researchers need to choose analysis methods that suit their research objectives. This section explains how the data was analysed by using thematic analysis, and what coding procedure and software was used during the process of thematic analysis.

Thematic analysis was adopted in this thesis. First, it provides flexibility as it does not necessitate a predefined theory (Braun and Clarke, 2021). No specific theories or assumptions were used to develop themes to restrict any preconceptions withdrawn

from literature review. It was ultimately seen as a strategy to organise primary data for the exploratory case studies using interviews and inductive analysis. This means, data analysis was conducted inductively, allowing themes to emerge from data rather than being guided by existing theories. Rich data could be gathered without losing any new emerging data. At the same time, it was to deal with the disadvantage of using thematic analysis when inconsistency and lack of coherence can happen during the process of developing themes from data (Holloway and Todres, 2003). Secondly, thematic analysis can be used to analyse data collected from different methods such as interviews, field notes and diaries.

I adopted the six-phase process of thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 87) for the thematic analysis. The process begins with familiarising with transcript data (phase one), followed by initial coding where keywords are assigned to frequently mentioned ideas or meanings (phase two and three). Phase three started with coding new transcripts, allowing for adjustments in the coding process, such as adding new codes, expanding existing ones, or revising keyword labels to enhance the understanding of the data (phase four). By using a pre-structured thematic framework, coding new transcripts and revising the code system becomes more manageable, enabling the grouping of similar codes to form sub-theme and identifying emerging sub-themes to establish thematic categories and major themes (phase five), culminating in final interpretations and discussions (phase six). Despite the outlined steps, the thesis used these steps as guidelines rather than a strict process. The aim was to have a flexible data analysis process, allowing for the applications of various analytical skills, creativity and reflexivity (Braun and Clarke, 2021).

Data Familiarisation

The first phase of thematic analysis was data familiarisation, which was carried out in diverse ways. First, I listened to the interviews several times while checking the transcripts produced by Zoom to ensure that no word was lost. While listening and checking the transcripts, I made notes and comments (Tuckett, 2005) based on my first impressions of the data to identify emerging patterns for potential codes. My comments made in this phase highlighted areas that need further probing and follow-up in subsequent interviews. After checking the audio and transcripts, I read and re-read transcripts and my comments, which made me deeply acquainted with the data

and allowed for the identification of initial patterns and meanings (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This process was time-consuming, averaging over two hours per interview, but was essential for thoroughly understanding the extensive data and served as a crucial step toward generating initial codes, which is discussed in the next section.

Generating Initial Codes

The next step is initial code. A code serves as an analytical tool that categorises qualitative data by identifying similarities, differences and relationships among them (Flick, 2013). This process enables the segmentation and meaningful analysis of raw data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Initial codes began during data familiarisation, with this phase involving a more intentional effort to identify and organise data related to each code. The coding process focused exclusively on the participants' words from the transcripts, excluding the researcher's questions and prompts (Saldaña, 2014). This included line-by-line coding of transcripts, field notes and diaries, ensuring that the initial codes were firmly grounded in the data (Lapan, Quartaroli and Riemer, 2012).

Semantic and latent coding methods were employed during the analysis, encompassing both explicit surface meanings and underlying implications within the data. Semantic coding focused on the direct expressions and surface-level meanings conveyed by participants. In contrast, latent coding delved into the concealed implications, including thoughts, opinions, feelings, and emotions (Braun and Clarke, 2021). The initial coding process also involved scrutinising figurative language, such as metaphors and synonyms to extract deeper meaning (Rubin and Rubin, 2004).

As suggested by Braun and Clarke (2021), the coding process was iterative, involving continuous thinking, reflecting and questioning of the data. The data were scrutinised, and reflections were made of their meaning, implications, and the reasons behind participants' feelings and actions (Lapan, Quartaroli and Riemer, 2012). This allowed for a rigorous and analytical examination of the data, leading to the identification of both semantic and latent codes. Consistent judgment was applied throughout the coding process to ensure reliability and avoid potential obstacles in thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998).

The initial coding began with manual transcription using pen and paper, facilitating deeper data immersion (Auerbach and Silverstein, 2003). This was followed by using NVivo to manage the large volume of data collected from multiple

cases. The software facilitates the organisation and storage of data, allowing for efficient grouping of texts following codes and themes. By using a pre-structured thematic framework, the researcher can recognise, examine, and organize themes extracted from the data. Thanks to the use of N-VIVO software, a code book (appendix 9) was generated based on the large volume of data collected from multiple cases. This code book is an example of how data was managed and storage for further analysis. It includes detailed information on initial and thematic codes, along with the descriptions, references and related files. It helped streamline data analysis and interpretation in thematic analysis.

This software also enables the generation of a code book which provides a comprehensive and systematic approach to coding and analysing data (Brennan and Teichler, 2008). This approach ensured that no emerging data is overlooked, while also managing the high volume of data efficiently. By following a systematic coding process and utilising the pre-structured thematic framework, the researcher was able to uncover and interpret the major themes that emerges from the data while saving much time during the process.

Searching for Themes

Once initial codes were established, the next step involved identifying themes by grouping and organising codes into cohesive topics (see table 4). Unlike codes, themes consolidate recurring ideas across participants, encapsulating broader patterns and shared meanings (Braun and Clarke, 2021). Thematic analysis offers flexibility to identify themes based on inductively identifying themes and codes directly from the data without fitting them into pre-existing themes or framework (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This approach was pivotal for uncovering unexpected themes. Additionally, themes were also deductively shaped by theoretical, conceptual, and epistemological perspectives (Boyatzis, 1998). This included assumptions from social constructionism and the conceptual lens informed by main themes identified in literature review. Clearly specifying these assumptions were essential for ensuring transparency in the thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2021). Argued by Saunders (2019), qualitative researchers can also adopt an abductive approach, interactively using both inductive and deductive methods for data analysis.

The process also involved scrutinising the codes and themes to structure information around particular events and narratives (Rubin and Rubin, 2004). This

initiated the exploration of relationships, connections, comparisons, and patterns among codes to create themes and thematic constructs. Themes were identified based on their alignment with the research aims and objectives rather than only on their frequency in the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Consequently, the identified themes were not necessarily the most common but those most pertinent to the research objectives.

Table 4: Example of the emergence of themes

Examples of participant responses from transcripts	Initial codes	Theme
<i>“we have massive business management program in our BS. Students study business management, a bit of economics, a bit of accounting and etc”.</i> (B-003)	focus on business and management knowledge	Main subject
<i>“I think it is probably historical that is the way in which courses in tourism management have been designed and probably because there is a demand for that from an industry”</i> (A-001)	focus on management education	
<i>“we contracted out to local colleges, students went to colleges to learn those practical skills. Now we have even stopped doing that”</i> (B-002)	stop providing vocational training	The end of vocational training
<i>“they do not send their students out to kitchens for practical work. This year, I have redesigned that module and I put more kind of seminar structure”</i> (B-001)	change vocational training to seminar	
<i>“When it moved into a faculty program, they lost a large part of that practical element”</i> (A-001)	losing vocational training	

Source: From the author’ data analysis result

Reviewing Themes

After identifying the themes, a review process was conducted to ensure the quality of thematic analysis. This required the researcher to revisit the themes identified to ensure the accurate reflection of the associated codes. The researcher re-read the transcripts to see how the themes reflected the data’s meaning, how they linked with the research aims and objective (Braun and Clarke, 2013). This step was flexible and iterative that sometimes led to re-refining theme, dividing themes into subthemes, merging themes form overarching themes, or even deleting themes.

At this stage, cross-case analysis was conducted, building on the inductive analysis of themes established during the within-case analysis. The emergent themes across all cases suggested categories that represented broader concepts, forming the foundation of the synthesis process (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Data integration involved expanding, collapsing, merging, and refining categories to ensure they accurately represented initial interpretations of the data's meaning. Priority was given to retaining themes that transcended individual cases, as opposed to standalone themes. As an illustration, Table 5 below demonstrates how subthemes were integrated to create themes, which were then merged into overarching themes during the data analysis.

Table 5: Example of an overarching theme, theme and sub-themes

Overarching theme	The status of HHE in BS	
Main theme	Program structure and degree types	Main subjects
Sub-theme	No standalone hospitality degree	Business and management subjects in hospitality programs
	Distinction between business degree and a hospitality management degree in hospitality	Introduction of broader hospitality concepts and context
	Differences in the balance of business management and hospitality subjects	

Source: From the author's data analysis result

Defining and Naming Themes

After reviewing all themes, sub-themes, and overarching themes, the next step involved naming and defining each one appropriately. This process was essential to ensure that the themes effectively conveyed a narrative aligned with the research aims and objectives. It also ensured that the themes were understandable and meaningful to readers (Auerbach and Silverstein, 2003). Moreover, naming and defining the themes facilitated the detailed analysis retrieval, offering an organised approach to presenting

the findings. This was a dynamic and iterative process, enabling ongoing changes over time. Ultimately, this process ensured that the overarching themes, themes and sub-themes accurately represented the data's meaning, standing independently, and collectively forming a cohesive analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Table 6 below illustrates eight primary themes and sub-themes identified based on thematic analysis.

Table 6: Eight primary themes and sub themes

No	Main theme	Sub- theme
1	Program structure and degree types	No standalone hospitality degree Distinction between business degree and a hospitality management degree in hospitality Differences in the balance of business management and hospitality subjects
2	Philosophical assumptions and approaches	Benefits and drawbacks of a business degree in hospitality Benefits and drawbacks of a management degree in hospitality
3	Main subjects	Business and management subjects in hospitality programs Introduction of broader hospitality concepts and context
4	Skills	No practical skills related to specific tasks Focus on management skills Provide generic skills rather than specific skills
5	Pedagogy and teaching approaches	Equivalence to other disciplines in BS Balance between academic and theoretical approaches Applied education with a focus on employability
6	The purpose and identity of HHE	Transition from practical to specialised knowledge

		Provide general management knowledge for managerial positions Meeting diverse student expectations and demands Provide specialised knowledge The identity of HHE Enhancing HHE with a sociological approach
7	Force field factors impacting HHE	Government impact Industry impact Student impact Professional impact
8	Decision-making process and university strategies	University strategies based on ranking, teaching quality, and financial consideration Internal factors influencing curriculum design and teaching activities Leadership-driven decisions on program direction and operation

Source: From the author's data analysis result

Write-up

The final step of thematic analysis is writing up the findings (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Chapter 5 to 7 present findings and discussions that address the research aim and objectives. The process of writing up the findings began after the themes for analysis were comprehensively structured (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The writing up process started in January 2022 with the first draft being submitted sent to supervisors in August 2023. To ensure authenticity and accuracy in interpreting and reporting the data, the final incorporated direct quotes from participants under each theme (King, 2004). By including these quotes, readers could gain insight into the participants' perspectives and understand the original context of the data. This approach enabled the narratives of the complex hospitality knowledge production process in BS to be presented as stories, moving beyond a mere description of the data. The written findings aimed to convey the evolution of the knowledge system in a trustworthy

manner to readers, reflecting the development and intricacies of knowledge production the studied context.

In summary, thematic analysis proved to be a beneficial approach for comprehending the data through identifying, examining, and documenting patterns. This analytical process facilitated the interpretation and communication of findings. The forthcoming chapters (chapter 5, 6, and 7) will discuss these findings in relation to the research aim and objectives. Followed the discussion on data analysis is the exploration of the key factors that ensures methodological rigor during the study.

4.8 Issues of Credibility, Dependability, Transferability and Confirmability

If findings from positivism is justified based on its generation to wider population, findings from an interpretive study are determined by the degree to which they fit and work with the perspectives of participants (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). In positivist research, the standards for judging research are reliability, validity, and generalizability. Whereas, credibility (validity), dependability (reliability), confirmability (objectivity), and transferability (generalizability) are used to establish the trustworthiness of qualitative research (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2008).

Credibility

Credibility refers to the degree to which the researcher accurately and authentically represents the participants' perceptions and experience (Guba and Lincoln (1989). There are numerous ways to improve credibility of a study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), of which triangulation is among the best strategies to ensure findings are established from different sources. For theory triangulation, meta theories such as being-in-the world and being of tourism and different theoretical concepts such as disciplinary and post-disciplinary thinking, paradigmatic thinking were adopted to explain data. For data triangulation, different sources of data including primary data from interviews and secondary data from the historic analysis of HE and HHE in Scotland (see Chapter 4) were used to establish the findings. Besides, coding was done within 24 through 48 hours of the interview to improve the credibility of data.

Dependability

Dependability can be achieved when a research process is done in a logical, trackable and well documented (Tobin and Begley, 2004) so that readers can justify the research process (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The introduction chapter of this

dissertation outlines clearly the whole research process of research. It is reported in a chronological manner in chapters so that readers can have an in-depth understanding of what motivates the study, the research aim, existing literature on the research problem to research methodology, findings and what can be concluded from this research.

Transferability

Transferability is about the generalizability of inquiry. For qualitative research, it is case-to-case transfer (Tobin and Begley, 2004) that is, to what degree findings of one context can be transferred in another (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), or the possibility for readers to apply research findings in other similar situations (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Bloomberg and Volpe, 2008). The transfer can take place if the research provides an enough rich description of one context for application to another/other. To do that, this study fully states the scope of study which is HHE in BS in Scotland in introduction chapter and explains in detail methodological and method considerations and the actual time frame for the fieldwork. Some research limitations are also discussed in the conclusion chapter. Readers can gain an in-depth understanding of how and why data is collected from chapter 3 to withdraw any lesson for their application.

Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the ability of the researcher to interpret findings from the data, and make conclusion based on the data (Tobin and Begley, 2004)). As stated by Guba and Lincoln (1989), confirmability can be reached when the researcher can ensure credibility, transferability, and dependability matter. The research methodology and method were explained and justified in relation to theoretical and philosophical aspects so that readers can understand how and why decisions were made (Koch, 1994). Such explanation is made throughout Chapter 3.

4.9 Reflexivity

Qualitative research is subject to various influences including the researcher's own understandings and assumptions. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) question the notion of the researcher as the omniscient creator of knowledge, highlighting the impact of the researchers' personality on the question posed and the interpretation of responses. They emphasise the importance of the researcher's personal biography in shaping their

research approach, acknowledging that multiple interpretations arise from the varied backgrounds of researchers and their subjects. Qualitative research can be influenced by the researchers' subjectivity and bias. Therefore, the researcher should acknowledge and address his/or her own bias and subjectivities which could influence data collection and interpretation (Auerbach and Silverstein, 2003).

Reflexivity is now regarded as a fundamental methodological practice in qualitative research (Crossley, 2019, p. 207). This approach has gained importance in the field of tourism research (Fullagar, 2002). Reflexivity involves reflecting on the research process and understanding how conducting research shapes its results (Hardy *et al.*, 2001), such as reflecting on the conditions that enable and constrain the production of research in order to contextualize and qualify findings (Ateljevic, Harris, Wilson & Collins, 2005). Reflection in this case can be understood as "*the interpretation of interpretation*" and the critical self-awareness of "*one's own interpretations of empirical material*" (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2000, p. 6). Pillow (2010, p. 274) describes reflexivity as the process of acknowledging the researcher's assumptions, beliefs, values and bias shaped by social, cultural and historical contexts. Olmos-Vega *et al.*, (2022, p. 242) describe reflexivity as an ongoing, collaborative, and multifaceted practice where researchers critically examine how their subjectivity and context affect the research process. As argued by Riley and Love (2000), there are an increasing number of researchers acknowledging the role of reflexivity, the need to incorporating their own perspectives and biographies in their work. Reflexivity urges researchers to understand more about their role, interpretation, bias and assumptions to produce more accurate research analysis (Russell and Kelly 2002).

Various forms of reflexivity include personal, interpersonal, methodological and contextual reflexivity (Walsh, 2003). Personal reflexivity involves researchers reflecting on and understanding their assumptions and expectations related to the research context, data and participants. Personal reflexivity extends beyond disclosing the researcher's background and training to include how their prior experiences may influence decisions through the research process (Olmos-Vega *et al.*, 2023, p. 244). It should also encompass the study's impact on the researchers themselves such as how their understanding evolves during the research process. In tourism researcher, while reflexivity is encouraged, there is an underlying assumption that some information of

personal reflexivity can be too private to be disclosed. In this case, Finlay (2002) suggests that scholars in social science research should have self-censor and sanitise their research to reduce the level of emotions and subjectivity. The following section details the research's reflexivity based on personal details. It begins with an overview of how prior experiences and assumption influenced the study. It also provides a reflexive overview of the researcher's interactions with participants during interviews.

Before beginning my research in February 2018, I had experience teaching some modules such as specialised English, Tourism and Hospitality for undergraduate students at one university in Vietnam. Prior to that, I had studied a Master's degree in International Hotel and Tourism Management at a hospitality school in England. During this period, I viewed education in general and tourism and hospitality education primarily as a mean to equip learners with the technical skills and knowledge necessary for their future work. Both the tourism and hospitality subjects I taught or the ones I learnt was heavily oriented toward vocational education with a strong management bias. The curriculum relied on large group lectures where knowledge was transmitted didactically, focusing on delivering the technical skills and knowledge needed by graduates.

While studying in England, I also worked part-time in hotels and restaurants, which made me heavily dependent on my university training. I became an end user of the "*efficient and effective transferability of curricula to daily operations*" (Inui, Wheeler and Lankford, 2006, p. 33). However, while these practical experiences drew on my vocational education, the program offered little insight into the broader complexity of hospitality such as host-guest relationship, and its impacts on culture and people's lives, as described by Lugosi (2009). I also viewed my role in hospitality as a professional and a customer, via a very limited lens, focusing primarily on the commercial side. In the work, I saw my role as a function of a transactional, economic relationship rather than a reciprocal social relationship (e.g., Brotherton and Wood, 2008). I approached my job with the main aim of increasing sales to customers, believing this would help me secure my job in the industry. Reflecting on these experiences, I realise how vocational education has historically served the industry's need for skilled workers. That is why, at the beginning of my research, my main theoretical approach was curriculum design and approach, questioning the vocational

education of HHE. However, I now see that an exclusive focus on vocational training can limit the broader knowledge and skills students should acquire at academic institutions. My job training led to my limited understanding for the social, cultural and environmental impact connected with hospitality.

My perceptions and assumptions changed when I started my doctoral research. Engaging in intellectual activities such as meetings and discussion with my supervisors and attending seminars enlightened my thinking. These experiences required me to expand my reading and understanding about HHE beyond curriculum design and approach. Within the tourism and hospitality academic community, several scholars become pivotal to my understanding. Professor John Tribe, who has published widely on tourism HE in the UK, greatly influences my thinking. Before my research approach focused on curriculum space and design. However, since reading his work about the philosophy of tourism knowledge in 2009, I started asking questions about what hospitality knowledge is, what kind of knowledge should be taught. These questions led to my decision to change the theoretical approach of my research from curriculum models to discipline and post-discipline. If curriculum model focuses on teaching activities in classroom, disciplinary and post-disciplinary approaches allow me to think more about the mode of knowledge production in relation to contexts and factors. Professor Ronald Barnett, with his extensive work on HE and university education in the UK since 1980s led me to think about the purpose of HHE, and whether it should move beyond preparing job-ready graduates for the hospitality industry. Lastly, Professor Peter Lugosi, who has written widely about critical hospitality studies, further deepened my understanding of the philosophical aspect of hospitality knowledge, as worded by Tribe (2009). Reading these works allowed me to change my research aim and objectives which no longer focus on the idea of vocational approach of HHE.

Moreover, I had experiences of being a tutor for hospitality-related modules for students in year one and three for bachelor programs in one university in Scotland while doing my doctoral research. The modules that I tutored were Introduction to Tourism, and Introduction to Tourism and Managing People. As indicated by these module titles, the curriculum space (Dredge *et al.*, 2012; Tribe, 2002) was predominantly centred around hospitality management. Although the emphasis on

management was prominent, certain modules integrated social science and non-business perspectives into the study of hospitality. For example, Introduction to Tourism module that year-one students attended, my tutorial involved working with students in groups to facilitate their discussion about how tourism can have impacts of people life, what kinds of tourism activities can both bring profits to people but not impact their life such as causing pollution, traffic or preserving natural habitats. This tutorial experience influenced my thinking about the relationship between tourism and host communities. While tutoring these modules, I started changing my way of viewing tourism and hospitality not just as economic forces but also a socio-cultural and environmental one (e.g., Higgins-Desboilles, 2006). This shift in perspective led me to critically think about the way hospitality should be taught for HHE.

Thanks to my tutoring experience and extensive reading Barnett's work on HE in the UK, I resonated deeply with many of the sentiments expressed by participants during interviews, especially regarding how the changing context of HE in the UK impacts the development of HHE and HME in BS. These shared feelings allowed me to empathise more with my participants, enhancing rapport and facilitating the interviews. This approach led me to analyse these interviews for unconscious, intersubjective dynamics, providing valuable insights into how the data were collaboratively constructed. This way, as Ateljevic *et al.*, (2005, p. 17) argue, is a practice of deep reflexivity that requires personal reflexivity to move beyond merely being "*autobiographical*" and incorporating oneself into the research. It involves "*uncover[ing] the complexities, negotiations, fissures and tensions*" (ibid) which intertwine the researcher with their study.

However, for Crossley (2019, p. 223-224) at least, deep reflexivity blurs lines between researchers' professional and personal lives, making them easier to be scrutinised. In the process of writing and extracting information from my field diary, I aimed to present an honest account of my experiences. I was always aware that this required a level of self-censorship and extensive curation. Although this practice can reveal my subjectivity, I had to control my personal reflexivity so that I did not reveal too much private information (Finlay, 2002). Much as Crossley (2019, pp. 223-224) suggests, reflecting on what personal information the research feels comfortable

sharing allows for a more cautious and sensitive approach when writing about the experiences of participants.

4.10 Ethics Doing the Research

Before officially conducting the fieldwork, the research had to gain an ethical approval to ensure ethical obligations when the researcher engaged with participants (Graham, Grewal, and Lewis, 2007; Israel, 2015). The researcher followed the handbook of research ethics by University of Strathclyde to establish the required ethics protocols and related forms for this research (University of Strathclyde, 2020). These documents included a participant information sheet form, consent form, interview questions, privacy notice and ethics application form. Following the handbook, several steps were taken before actual interviews took place (see table 7). The researcher asked for an approval for ethical form from the Strathclyde BS and was accepted in August, 2020 (appendix 10).

Table 7: Ethical steps of data gathering methods

Data gathering method	Research in presented	Data using permission	Personal Data	Data about	Raw data verified by
Semi-structured interview	Beforehand via email	yes	anonymous	Lived experience	Verified and signed by participants

As shown from the table, the researcher initially contacted interviewees directly by email. The first email introduced the research project and invited participants to attend online interviews. After participants agreed to take part, the second email was sent to suggest date and time along with a consent form (appendix 11) which highlighted that no names would be recorded and that the interviewees remained anonymous. To ensure that the main questions or the areas of interest were in line with the ethics, they were discussed and agreed with supervisors. After each interview, the researcher reassured each interviewee that all information regarding the research study was treated as confidential and provided an opportunity for

interviewees to ask any questions or raise any concerns. All data collected was anonymised, and the identities of the interviewees was kept strictly confidential.

4.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined and justified the research paradigm (social constructionism), the research approach and research design. Details of the data collection process, approach to analysis and the writing-up process were provided. This chapter underlines that methodological rigour and ethical considerations underpinned all methodological decisions. Inclusion of the researcher's reflexivity also helps illustrate how the learning and working experiences and assumptions shaped the research process. These matters are connected closely with the research aim of exploring HME in BS. Specifically, the chapter examines how COVID-19 pandemic led to major changes in the case study design and semi-structured interviews guideline for data collection. To this point, the chapter is crucial for understanding how the research was conducted and lays the groundwork for presenting next chapters related to research findings and discussions.

Chapter 5: The Status of Hospitality Knowledge in Business School

The previous chapter discusses the research methodology and methods. This chapter presents and discusses the status of HME in BS. The main aim of this thesis is to provide a thorough understanding about hospitality knowledge production in BS, focusing on the evolution of hospitality degrees and the adaptation of HME. Specifically, the thesis outlines three research objectives (RO) as followed:

RO 1: To explore what hospitality knowledge is

This objective seeks to gain the comprehensive understanding of hospitality knowledge, its source and scope of hospitality knowledge.

RO 2: To examine where hospitality knowledge comes from.

This objective is to identify the theoretical foundation of hospitality knowledge inquiry, its mode of production and the consequence of that inquiry in terms of boundaries for hospitality knowledge.

RO3: To understand how hospitality knowledge is constructed.

This seeks to understand hospitality knowledge production in institutional context as BS.

This chapter is dedicated to presenting findings and comprehensive discussion related RO1. It will elaborate on the current development of HHE in BS in terms of vocational education, specialised education, and academic subject to understand what hospitality knowledge is.

5.1 Vocational Education

5.1.1 Losing the Identity of Vocational Education in Practical Training

The transition from hotel schools to BS for hospitality programs marks a significant shift in the nature of vocational training. The findings indicate a complete end of practical training as seen as the identity of HHE, which aligns with previous study (Nailon, 1982 cited in Airey and Tribe, 2000, p. 277; Jones, 2004; Wood, 2015a, p. 328; Lugosi and Jameson, 2017). Participant A-001 explained that this change has affected the practical element of the programs, stating:

“It lost its very specific focus within the hotel school. I suppose the big difference between when it was taught in hotel school and when it became just a faculty undergraduate degree was quite a strong practical element”.

There is a significant change in practical training for HHE programs in all universities. Previously, practical training modules that involved hands-on tasks such as food preparation, food and beverage management, wine tasting, and other industry-specific skills were an integral part of the curriculum. This practical training was seen as essential to help students grasp the fundamental workings of the industry, such as kitchen operations and restaurant management. As explained by participant D-001,

“Our degree is international hospitality management education, when our students begin the hospitality degree and it is quite practical for students to learn practical elements. In the past they attended cookery schools to learn how to prepare food, the basic workings of the kitchen”.

However, this vocational training was phased out when hospitality programs transitioned from being standalone degrees in hotel schools to becoming part of BS. This change created a noticeable disparity between traditional hospitality degrees and the modern business-focused hospitality programs. Participant A-001 elaborated on this transformation, noting that:

“When it was in the hotel school, students used to spend time training in restaurants. They would spend some time normally in their third year in industry as well on placement. There was a very strong vocational practical element. When it moved into a faculty program, they lost a large part of that practical element. Now it is basically just a business and management degree with a focus on hospitality”.

If institution A stopped providing such module entirely, the three remaining universities either provided these vocational training on campus or outsourced it to local colleges. As the senior lecture in institution B shared, *“we contracted out to local*

colleges, students went to colleges to learn those practical skills. Now we have even stopped doing that” (B-002). The head of the department of tourism and languages in institution B mentioned that these practical skills have become optional rather than compulsory for students. *“Now this is an option. It is something that we have reduced significantly over the previous years”* (B-002). The trend of reducing practical training related to specific tasks or products and services provision has become widespread, particularly in the context of the Covid-19 pandemic. Institution B, for example, has stopped such provision and shifted toward more seminar-based approaches. The redesigned curriculum aims to replace traditional practical training with seminar structures. As he explained,

“This year, we obviously cannot go into the kitchen because of Covid. Looking at what other universities are doing, places like Manchester or Greenwich who have had a real kind of uptake in terms of hospitality students and they do not have this practical elements. They do not send their students out to kitchens for practical work. This year, I have redesigned that module and I put more kind of seminar structure”. (B-001)

Similarly, institution C has also experienced a reduction in placement opportunities due to the challenges posed by the pandemic. Practical modules and placements have become limited, reflecting the broader trend of adapting to the constraints of the Covid-19 era.

5.1.2 Vocational Education at University level Does not Provide Specific Skill Training

Lugosi and Jameson (2017) highlight concerns about the relocation of HHE to BS, leaving academics uncertain about the future trajectory of hospitality vocational subject in HE. This apprehension finds resonance among the interviewed academic staff, who acknowledge the loss of vocational training. Not having any uncertainty, academic staff argued that specific skill training can be learnt a work, rendering it unnecessary in a university degree. Participant A-003 highlighted, practical skills can be taught at a college level, and graduates from universities should focus on learn competencies that come with a BS degree to apply for management positions.

“If you think about the competition for our graduates. It is people from small colleges. You are interviewing people for management position. Will you take somebody that has practical skills, you can teach them in an afternoon or two weeks or somebody that has competencies coming with a world class BS degree. Because you are the hotel, you can teach somebody food and beverage right the hands on stuff in a week, like how to do bottle service, how to take it out to the customers. It will not take long”. (A-003)

This view is reinforced by one program leader in institution D, who believed that students can learn practical skills from on-the-job training of skills. There is no need for universities to provide such training. *“Our students mostly will work within customer services in HT and learn skills on job training. That is the job nature” (D-002).*

One staff in institution A provided valuable insight, highlighting that their university’s business degree in hospitality prioritises imparting generic skills over specific skill tailored to a single context. He expressed this sentiment with the statement:

“Personally I do not know why we are keeping them so separate, that is always been the case, how BS is built. But I understand why we are doing it because what we are trying to do is generic with the skills, rather than just teach them exactly within this one single context. Someone doing the service encounter management class does not necessarily need to go into a hotel reception, they could work with in retail or hospital. So it is those kind of skills that we are trying to develop within a hospitality context” (A-002)

The rationale behind prioritising generic skills is grounded in the transferability of these skills. When students are equipped with generic skills like management, they can seamlessly apply them in various contexts, without being limited to a single niche. This approach acknowledges that services, whether in hospitality, banking or other

sectors, share similarities in welcoming customers and introducing services. The key distinction lies in the context in which these services are provided, such as a bank or hotel. The participant aptly summed up this notion by emphasising,

“The skills are transferable. So that is why we compare them, for example, working within a hotel and working in retail or banks...you could just take those skills and go within a hospital or bank, or something else”. (A-002)

5.1.3 Vocational Education Focuses on Management and Generic skills

The emerging theme, as contrasted with the literature, underscores a significant shift in the curriculum of HHE programs. It illustrates a departure from a traditional focus on operational aspects and service delivery to a contemporary approach that integrates substantial business and management knowledge. This transformation equips students with a more extensive skill set, enabling them to excel in a dynamic and evolving hospitality industry. Meanwhile, the concept of specialised education remains applicable primarily within specific hospitality subjects, allowing students to develop in-depth knowledge pertaining to hospitality services, workplace conditions, and people management into the specific context of the industry.

Evidently, both business and management degrees in hospitality offer fundamental knowledge, predominantly centered around generic business and management knowledge. Participants unanimously concur on this commonality, as these subjects relate to different aspects of business management and operations such as accounting, economics, marketing and so on. As participant B-003 from institution B aptly stated, *“we have massive business management program in our BS. Students study business management, a bit of economics, a bit of accounting and etc”*. Typically, students undergo their first year of study, delving into eight business and management subjects. The primary aim of this initial year is to equip students with a foundational grasp of core business and management principles. As participant A-003 succinctly puts it, *“the aim of these classes is to provide students with general business and management”*.

The focus here is to nurture students’ understanding of fundamental concepts required to handle various business tasks effectively. The purpose is not to transform students into experts in these subjects. Rather, it is to ensure they possess sufficient

knowledge to participate in and comprehend discussions involving diverse aspects of business operations. For example, in accounting classes, the primary goal is to teach students essential skills to read spreadsheet or anticipate profit and loss. As participant A-003 elaborated on this,

“The university and BS decided that you cannot call yourself a business graduate if you cannot understand a spreadsheet. Or you cannot be ready to run a business, if you do not understand the basics of a profit and loss account or what is the difference between a profit and loss account and in balance sheet, or if you do not understand the basics of operations management”.

These basic understandings are not to produce future accountants. Instead, they serve the purpose of helping students develop a general understanding of specific tasks within fields such as accounting-knowledge that is essential for individuals in managerial positions. This basic knowledge is considered indispensable in preparing future managers to navigate the day-to-day challenges of their work, regardless of whether they are employed in small or medium- sized companies. As participant A-003 explained,

“We are not trying to turn everybody into an accountant or a marketing specialist. We aim to provide them with at least the basics. This way, when you find yourself in a managerial role, such as overseeing a hotel, you can actively participate in meetings and discussions without feeling out of your depth”.

The importance of this foundational knowledge is underscored by participant A-003 shared personal experience, emphasising the value of understanding business jargon and essential concepts in management roles. This is particularly significant in scenarios such as meetings with potential partners or collaborators, where comprehending financial figures and operational essentials can prevent misunderstanding. The overarching goal is to ensure that students entering managerial roles, whether in large hotels, small and medium sizes, or family-run or bed and breakfast, possess the foundational knowledge required to navigate the complexities of the business world effectively.

According to Ladkin (2000, p. 227) and Alexander, Lynch and Murray (2009), vocational education should shift away from technical skills to a greater demand for management and generic competencies within the industry, rendering traditional food and beverage experience less pivotal in preparing students for their career path. These findings confirm such view. According to academic staff, universities should provide students with knowledge and competencies such as accounting and business operation for managerial positions. As explained by participant A-003, employers value the broader competencies that come with a university degree, such as the ability to handle pressure and effectively manage operations *“I can teach somebody how to do these things in an afternoon. But I cannot teach them how to deal with pressure or do accounting”*.

For hospitality education, there exists a discernible differentiation between the roles of colleges and universities in shaping the career paths of students. This distinction hinges on the intended outcomes and skills acquired through each educational avenue. For many academic staff members, universities are seen as institutions that impart a broader knowledge base, including general management concepts and competencies, especially geared toward preparing students for managerial positions within the hospitality industry. This approach aligns with the perspective shared by participant A-002 *“if you want to be a hotel manager, you need to know how to write a letter in proper grammar and spelling. Do you need that as a chef? That is where I draw the line”*.

The emphasis is placed on the acquisition of business acumen, which is regarded as essential for managerial roles but may not be as critical for roles in the kitchen or specialised service staff positions. To further differentiate between university and college education, participant A-003 acknowledged that, students are interested in practical training can opt for colleges to acquire specific qualifications like those required for becoming a chef. On the other hand, university education can include hospitality specific modules, placement opportunities, life projects, and interactions with industry speakers, which provide students with a more comprehensive understanding of the field. As put by participant B-003, *“we felt*

anybody who wanted to work in kitchens can go to colleges for practical qualifications as a chief”.

The continuing provision of management skill is similar to the findings of previous studies (Morrison and O’Mahony, 2002; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009; Lashley, 2013, 2015). This is to meet their future job requirements required by the industry (Ladkin, 2000; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009; Lashley, 2015). The overarching consensus among participants is that the purpose of vocational education for HHE is to groom and prepare future managers. This goal encompasses preparing students for roles in management within the industry, potentially enabling a “*vertical entrance*” into managerial roles or entry-level management positions. As expressed by participant A-002, the distinction is made clear, “*going in from the bottom and working themselves up*”. Participant A-003 highlighted the aspiration to shape students as future leaders, “*we are trying to prepare the HT leaders of the future*”. In essence, HHE programs aim to equip students with the knowledge and skills necessary to excel in management roles within the industry. The current approach to teaching hospitality curriculum in all four universities tends to emphasise the provision of management skills. While institution A has shifted away from practical training modules, the other three universities continue to offer practical training with a particular focus on management skills. In these modules, students are exposed to various aspects of managing kitchens and restaurants. They learn how to select the right staff for different roles, create seasonal menus, manage budgets based on seasonal variations, and comprehend the dynamics of supply and demand. As shared by the program leader in institution A,

“What we want them to do is being able to manage, let's say three kitchens at the same time and hire right person to run the kitchen from a cooking perspective. You need to understand well how does the budget work how trends seasonality. There is knowledge you need to apply in order to operate it as a business without actually understanding the cooking of it”. (A-002)

Similarly, participant D-001 shared, “*they need to have practical hands-on experience as producing events where they manage events, people and marketing*”.

These management skills are important for students to manage kitchens and events effectively, which is also what the industry needs from future managers. As participant C-001 shared, the curriculum is still vocation education to provide management skills, *“it has always been vocational for hospitality within universities, how do we prepare students to work. It has been skills based and now more management skills”*.

The focus on management skills can also be seen via how hospitality skills are taught, which involves managing culture, people and services at work. These skills are crucial for managerial positions, where overseeing staff and addressing issues like mental health and stress management become integral aspects of the role. As participant A-002 stated,

“What we need more as softer skill people in management and understand how to deal with people and mental health. Big problem in our industry if you do not understand mental health issues, how are you able to deal with those in a management position where you have to look after people”.

Likewise, institution C emphasises practical exposure to food and beverage operations in hospitality environments. This hands-on experience helps students gain a deeper understanding of working conditions in the industry. It focuses on skills development that is practical in nature. According to participant C-001, *“food and beverage operations in hospitality is more about getting physical exposure and hands on experience”*. The emphasis on hospitality skills is further justified by the unique nature of the hospitality industry, where human interaction plays a significant role. Unlike other sectors that can employ robots or artificial intelligence, the hospitality industry relies on human touch and personalised services. Therefore, students need to learn how to effectively engage with people, manage staff and navigate complex human interactions. As participant A-003 thought,

“One day you can get a robot to do everything for accounting for your hotel or law if you can get a robot or artificial intelligence to give you all the rules and things like operation management. The thing you are not going to manage

to do is to deal with people like a human being like an employee. Unless you do not have any humans working for you, and then things can change”.

These hospitality skills are different with service skills, as noted by participant A-003, *“service skills as cooking are not hospitality skills. Those are what colleges do. We are university, BS so it is skills that we are teaching”.*

5.2 Specialised Education

5.2.1 A Faculty Degree

Hospitality programs in hotel schools are provided as a specialised education separated with other business and management disciplines (Nailon, 1982; Slattery, 2002; Jones, 2004; Alexander, Lynch and Murray, 2009; Tews and Van Hoof, 2011, p. 122). However, in BS, in the absence of hotel schools, these programs become faculty degrees. In Scotland, institution A notably shuttered its hotel school and moved it to a faculty degree, marking an early example.

“If you speak to people across the UK to talk about hospitality education. One of the things that probably happened is that there are still a number of places like old hotel schools that specifically have a Hospitality Management school or department. And but probably there is some others that have taken the route that [institution A] took ... moved from being a program which was specifically within the hotel school to a program which became a faculty program ... The university decide to continue with the program but it would just be delivered by a number of different areas within the BS”. (A-001)

The establishment of specialised hospitality education institutions in hotel schools is to improve the status of hospitality as a professional education in HE (Wood, 2015b). In the past, students in hotel schools could earn an honours degree primarily focused on hospitality. A curriculum of a traditional hospitality degree predominantly

comprises hospitality and economics subjects. It focused on hospitality-specific areas like HRM and marketing. As explained by participant A-003,

“When I studied in hotel school, I did almost like 95% of my credits in that department. We had a class in economics, but it was tourism economics. We had a class on marketing, but it was hospitality and tourism marketing at a class on HRM, but it was HRM for the hospitality tourism industry”.

However, when hospitality programs became part of business degrees, students started taking classes from various departments within BS. As participant A-003 described, *“it became a pathway. In the faculty, we had to reduce the number of classes ... It was quite a wholesale change to the degree”*. The relocation in BS led to the emergence of joint degree options. Students could now graduate with degrees such as hospitality management and HRM or hospitality management and accounting. As participant A-001 illustrated, students in institution A learnt a certain number of general business and management subjects in their first year, and specialised in subsequent years, ultimately earning either a single honour or joint honour degrees.

“In year one, students can take introduction to hospitality, introduction to human resource management, introduction to marketing and other subjects in BS such as introduction to accounting and finance ... They then start to specialise more in years, two and three. They can either do a single honour, which might just be a BA in hospitality management or what increasingly a lot of our students do is joint honours, hospitality management and human resource management, or hospitality management and marketing. What you are less likely to find is something like hospitality management and accounting”.

The findings also unveil a striking change in the provision of HHE which lies in the absolute absence of specialised standalone hospitality degree in hotel schools and a transition toward business and management degrees in hospitality. This shift

reflects a conscious adaptation of HHE programs to align with the dominant business and management teaching models in BS. The need for specialised education akin to HHE is diminishing, signifying the waning relevance of niche degrees. This is evident in the reduction in the availability of “*niche*” degrees. Institution A and B have introduced diverse pathway for students pursuing a hospitality degree. These pathways enable students to combine their hospitality studies with specialisations in business and management, such as hospitality management paired with HRM, accounting or marketing. Nonetheless, it is important to note that institution B has recently curtailed the number of these specialised programs.

5.2.2 Specialised Education in a Business and Management Degree in Hospitality

The specialised education now moves to business and management degree in hospitality. In this way, hospitality is more integrated within broader business and management disciplines for professional education as suggested by Slattery (2002; 2003). While retaining degree names such as Hospitality Management or International Hospitality Management, these institutions have redefined the meaning of these programs. Institution A, for example, has opted for business degrees in hospitality, emphasising the belief that the industry values graduates with a broader specialist knowledge encompassing various management aspects. This contrasts with the previous model of as exclusive expertise in hospitality narrowly confined to hotels and restaurants. Conversely, the three other universities have chosen to offer management degrees in hospitality, considering hospitality management as a distinct form of education within the academic landscape of BS. Their objective is to equip students with a combination of general management skills and specific hospitality knowledge to enhance their employability. Thus, it is evident that the concept of specialised or professional education for HHE in BS has undergone a transformation.

Institution A provides a business degree with a focus on hospitality to equip students with a comprehensive understanding of both business and management knowledge aspects alongside hospitality. This approach is underpinned by a realisation of the industry’s evolving demands. Rather than requiring managers with specialised knowledge solely related to the hospitality industry, the industry currently seeks experts with in-depth knowledge across various management areas. As expressed by

participant A-005, *“the industry needed specialists who had more in-depth knowledge. It really lent itself to [institution A]”*. This results in a degree structure where students undergo a broad-based first-year education, specialising in two subjects from the second year onwards.

While a business degree in hospitality and management provides students with a well-rounded education, there is an acknowledged limitation. This degree does not offer practical training, leaving students ill-prepared for the demands of the real working conditions within the industry. Participant A-002 mentioned, students may find it challenging to adapt to long working hours and weekends shifts. As he shared, *“this disadvantage is, a lot of people go into the industry, slightly naive of what to expect”*.

On the other hand, other three universities offer a hospitality management degree, focusing on a balanced blend of management and hospitality subjects. In the case of institution D, the curriculum prioritises hospitality, maintaining a strong focus on these courses. A participant D-001 explained,

“All our students are management students ... they will have larger classes, where they focus on management program modules. And then they will have smaller classes for hospitality ... We do have a strong hospitality focus at [the name of institution D] while many other universities are losing their hospitality courses”.

Institution B emphasises vocational education for hospitality and industry-specific skills and knowledge. According to participant B-002, *“this university is all about providing employment-ready graduates for particular industries”*. Institution C provides a balanced curriculum with three main components: generic management, hospitality and tourism, and practical training. As mentioned by participant C-001, *“the degree aims to offer these three aspects with a balance among management and hospitality modules during four years”*.

Literature reviews that vocational and specialised hospitality education in hotel schools, reflects a broader trend termed a *“vocational drift”* in the university sector (Teichler, 1996, p. 99). Vocational training at university level (Barnett, 1990, p.158)

is to meet the industry demand (Husén, 1991, p. 179). The model of specialised education in hotel school is to attract industry and students (Baum, 2012, p. 53). The findings show there is a development in this matter. Recruitment trends in the labour market are shifting significantly, as highlighted by participant A-003, a change in “*BS market for students graduate*”. The traditional approach to hiring, which focused on seeking expertise within specific fields, is evolving. Employers are no more interested in recruiting individuals who bring diversity and different ways of thinking to their organisations. This diversity goes beyond just demographics and also encompasses diverse knowledge and perspectives:

“I had many meetings with people like Barclays or hotel businesses. They are not looking for accountants only. They are looking for people from different backgrounds, people that think differently. So it is all about diversity, not only about skin and their way of life and things but also about the way you think. If you have a room full of accountants, you want to have diversity in your team. I wrote a reference letter for a girl to get a job. She studied hospitality for four years and she is working for Nickelodeon making cartoons”. (A-003)

The participant also made comments on a recruitment trend for general hotel manager positions. In the past, individuals could be promoted from various positions within the organisation to eventually become general managers. However, in the current time, having a degree becomes a basic requirement for applicants. It is not as similar as in the past when general managers can be promoted from inside organisations. The days of rising through ranks, starting from manual positions, have largely faded:

“Nobody will hire now somebody to be a general manager who started from sweeping floors like it used to be. In the old days, you could start from washing dishes to being a restaurant manager. So hopefully the glass ceiling is going to help our students, but at the same time, if you have a glass ceiling and

everybody has degrees. That means, you need to have a Master degree for the next step, because if everybody has a degree, it goes higher after that". (A-003)

Employers now seek candidates with advanced knowledge who can navigate dynamic industry developments. This trend is particularly pronounced in countries as Thailand, where candidates with degrees from overseas, particularly the UK, Switzerland, or other countries with a strong educational reputation, are preferred. This is because they are considered as better equipped to handle industry changes,

"Now in Thailand, when you wanted a hotel manager, you will get one from the UK, Australia, Switzerland or Germany. It will take a few years until a Thai hotel manager is considered as good as somebody from abroad. That is why, in a lot of tourism destinations, you will see the first generation of people involved with tourism do manual jobs, the second generation, maybe become managers. Third generation, maybe become owners". (A-003)

Participant A-003 emphasised the presence of inertia and deeply ingrained traditions in the hospitality industry, particularly in certain roles like concierge positions.

"There are certain inertia, certain dynamics that take many years to change in hospitality, that is steeped in tradition. When innovation comes, it comes slowly and the ones that embrace innovation right away, they are not very traditional and prestigious ones. If you want to be a concierge in the casino Monte Carlo or a groupie air, it goes from father to son, like a family. Tradition flies into the face of any law any regulation about equal opportunities. Because customers wanted this connection with history, they want to know that you know the concierge goes back ten generations". (A-003)

The provision of general business and management knowledge can address the industry demand for graduates who have a basic understanding of business management at an undergraduate level. This is critical to ensure graduates are equipped to manage business effectively. As participant A-001 remarked,

“I think it is probably historical that is the way in which courses in tourism management have been designed and probably because there is a demand for that from an industry. That people should be able to manage firms within a business environment”.

Additionally, this knowledge plays a crucial role in the development of industries like tourism. Participant A-003 highlighted the significance, particularly in the context of the Scottish economy, stating *“for HHE, somebody wants to study economics in [the name of institution A], also the basic of HT as it is a key sector in Scotland”*. Furthermore, this approach is seen as beneficial in preparing students to work in an ever-changing sector with evolving types and business models. Participant A-002 highlighted that having a solid foundation in business and management can make students more adaptable to changes among people, industry, customers, and trends, producing *“more agile managers”* capable of understanding and navigating shifts in the industry.

“If you think about hotels twenty or thirty years ago, you had the big brands and franchising was dominating it, how to operate it. But nowadays franchising is not the dominant model. There is a whole lot more business models that have emerged from this and having the generic business education with hospitality and tourism management might make you more agile to understand this”.

Beside the industry’s demand, students increasingly seek management positions in the hospitality industry upon completing their university degrees. Modern students view university education not only as a means to acquire practical skills but also a platform to develop business mindset. Many students enter university programs

with practical industry experience hope to gain value academic knowledge and theories.

“First year students, they have got an interest in hospitality that might come from work experience or a family business. For who come from schools or colleges, in first year, they knew exactly what they want, is a degree in a BS to develop their business understanding of hospitality, because a lot of them already had practical skills or working in the industry”. (B-001)

The pursuit of management roles becomes a priority over front-line positions.

“The question is, does somebody with a first-class degree from [the name of the institution A] university want to work front desk and the answer is no. They will love to go on a graduate program, something like eighteen of them this year applied for Cameron House a graduate program because it is paying 21.000 sterling. They do not want to get a full-time job behind the desk, checking people in if they have a first-class degree”. (A-003)

In terms of advantages, a management degree in hospitality provides students with a comprehensive understanding of both management and hospitality concepts. It equips them with the skills and knowledge necessary for industry-specific roles and broadens their career options, as participant B-003 noted, *“if they do not go into hospitality, it is still a management degree offering general management understandings”*. In a sense, the program incorporates management concepts, such as *“organisational behavior in intercultural context”* along with hospitality management principles. This integration is designed to offer a broader perspective, as illustrated by participant B-003, *“we have a sort of matrix approach to management concepts for hospitality. These are general management concepts”*. This comprehensive approach ensures that students are equipped with both management and hospitality-specific knowledge. They can work directly for the industry or apply for managerial positions in other sectors, given their knowledge in general management. This versatility allows

graduates to demonstrate their capabilities to potential employers and adapt to different professional environments.

In contrast to a business degree that may lack practical training and focus solely on management, a hospitality management degree equips students with the knowledge and skills necessary for industry-specific roles. This comprehensive approach ensures graduates are better prepared to navigate the unique challenges and demands of the hospitality industry.

5.2.3 Losing Identity in Hospitality Specific Subjects

For hospitality subjects, the prevailing approach is these modules is management-oriented. Participants in institution B, C, D unanimously agree that their degrees are essentially management programs with a hospitality intake. Therefore, the primary teaching emphasis is on hospitality management. Similarly, the staff in institution A think management is well-suited for teaching hospitality skills, which now focus on leadership, strategic management and human management. A noticeable transformation has emerged in HHE that shifts from a primary emphasis on product production to the management aspect of hospitality business. Knowledge related to the service operation of food, beverages, accommodation provision via on-job-training is now replaced by service management such as restaurant and kitchen management through stimulated games or live projects. Consequently, students now learn how to manage group bookings, how to welcome and serve such groups in restaurants, as well as managing staff and kitchen operations and so on. This indicates a departure from the exclusive concentration on the production of specific products to broader and more comprehensive management of hospitality activities.

Evidently, business degrees in hospitality place a more significant emphasis on general business and managements subjects alongside hospitality subjects. Participant A-004 pointed out, *“the mostly hospitality undergraduate level at the moment in [institution A] focus more on management and business generally”*. In the current landscape, these general business and management subjects have become compulsory rather than optional modules for students pursuing a business degree with a hospitality specialisation. Year-one students have to take eight business and management subjects. As described by participant A-003, *“in year one, there are eight different subjects for 20 credit modules including HRM, HHE and others”*.

A business degree in hospitality and management degree in hospitality can have a same name but the degree type is different. Participant A-001 noted, institution A offered a business and management degree with the same “*named*” degree as Hospitality Management degree offered by its hotel school previously.

“That was one of the big changes, a business and management degree with a focus on hospitality that it probably would have had historically when it was specifically within a within a hotel school hospitality department ... but they retained the degree within the general BS”.

Other institutions offer a degree known as “*international hospitality management degree*” (B-003; C-001), classified as a management degree in hospitality provided by BS for undergraduate studies. This degree signals a shift away from the standalone hospitality degrees traditionally offered in hotel schools. Despite sharing the same name, Hospitality Management, a business and management degree in hospitality is different with a specialist hospitality management degree traditionally provided by hotel schools. As noted by A-001, “*the named degree but it is in a very different form from what had previously been*”. Participant A-002 similarly emphasised this distinction, stating “*It is not a HHE degree. It is a business degree with HHE*”.

5.3 Hospitality Subject in Business School

5.3.1 Hospitality as a Management Subject

In the past, teaching curricula for HHE mainly focus on management food, beverage and accommodation services (i.e catering, events, conferencing) (HEFCE, 1998; Rees, Forbes and Kubler, 2006). These curricula aim to equip students with relevant management skills and knowledge to effectively management business. Nailon (1982) and Wood (2015) used to point out the limitation of hospitality management approach when it fails to define the uniqueness of hospitality against other business and management subjects. This leads to the subordination of hospitality as a management subject within broader BS model (Lehto *et al.*, 2024).

The findings indicate that all academic staff currently view hospitality as a management subject rather than a hospitality subject in its own right because there is

no presence of hospitality theories being taught in BS. As participant A-003 stated, there is no pure hospitality theory, its theory must come from other discipline such as business or marketing.

“You are doing a PhD in hospitality. Is there anything like pure hospitality theory? Like in psychology, there is no virgin birth in the hospitality theory, even if you go down the road of something like very dynamic hospitality comes from cosmopolitanism, you know it all comes from somewhere”. (A-003)

Participant A-003 also emphasised the need for diverse theories to facilitate this interpretation, *“can you argue you have a standalone hospitality theory? No. It is a context of other things. Seeing it as a theoretical discipline, I do not agree.* The participant suggested an interdisciplinary approach, combining concepts from fields such as economics, psychology, statistics and mathematics to understand various aspects of the industry.

“How they all apply within the context and we are also going to discuss the issue of sustainability and all these different things. We are not just telling them, here is introduction to tourism learn it by heart. We are trying to make them understand why and how tourism and hospitality affects everything and how you can use it as a context to understand other disciplines”. (A-003)

According to Brotherton and Wood (2000, p. 168), hospitality is similar as other business and management subjects in BS, only the context is different. These authors suggest view hospitality management is about how *“one set of intellectual constructs and practices (management) are applied to another (hospitality)”*. This perspective continues to work at the current time. Within BS in Scotland, hospitality is viewed as a business activity to general profit. Hence, hospitality is viewed as a sub-management subject. This view fits into the BS context rather than viewing hospitality as a philosophical or sociological subject. As one participant in institution B shared,

“There is only so much that I am allowed to do as a program leader, because it means is we are still going to fit into BS teaching. We have to view hospitality

from a business perspective because that is where hospitality is placed within the curriculum and in business mentalities. That is where we are, rather than placing it within maybe sociology or philosophy”. (B-001)

5.3.2 Toward an Academic Subject

The findings indicate a significant change in the way academic staff understanding a hospitality subject. Previously regarded as a distinct and specialised field warranting a separate school, academic staff across the board currently concur that hospitality should be viewed as a subset of management subject in BS. Namely, hospitality is now perceived as an industry akin to other service sectors. Institution A takes this perspective a step further by aligning hospitality with other services, including banking. As a result, the distinction between hospitality and other business and management subjects in BS has blurred, particularly in terms of business and management teaching approach. Evidently, students are exposed to a broader knowledge base that equips them with the ability to distinguish differences between different types of services.

Interestingly, all participants now perceive this loss of practical training as a necessary and pragmatic development. Namely, this transformation is generally perceived as a positive evolution for HHE rather than an outright loss in BS as evident in a study by Lugosi and Jameson (2017). The loss of vocational training intake is necessary as hospitality needs to be seen as an academic subject in HE, similar as management and business. The findings show that, when locating in BS, teaching HHE curriculum follows a theoretical approach. As participant A- 003 underscored this shift, stating *“hands on things like food and beverage management, wine tasting and others to work in the industry went away. We concentrated on theoretical aspect”*. A theoretical approach is essential for HE. As participant B-004 pointed out,

“If you take the kitchen content out of an undergraduate degree in hospitality management, you have to replace it with something. Do you make it something just more theoretical or something applied ... that going to reflect high-level education”.

Many scholars (Airey and Tribe, 2000; Lugosi *et al.*, 2009; Lashley, 2013) have agreed that hospitality programs should not only provide practical skills and competences but also foster a broader understanding of hospitality that encourages critical, reflective, and creative thinking. The findings show that, to align with this theoretical approach, the curriculum becomes more knowledge-driven and promotes critical thinking and analysis. A participant B-002 stated, *“it is much more knowledge-driven, much more management-oriented, with much more requirement for aspects and demonstration of critical thinking, reflection”*. This theoretical approach involves imparting a wealth of management theories and concepts to students, equipping them to understand the nuances of the hospitality context and effectively address workplace challenges. As participant B-003 emphasised, *“we are a university, not a training college ... mostly we are teaching management ... Universities are run like this”*.

For instance, in institution A, the emphasis is on a broader management perspective, as described by participant A-002,

“We were looking at it from a more general management point of view. It is strongly theoretical, with no actual practical training. However, many of our assignments, students are asked to do consultancy projects for local organizations, like hotels, Scottish events campus, local bars, or brewery company. We work with industry partners and students tackle specific problems they encounter using theory we have taught them”.

This shift toward critical thinking is exemplified by offering case studies related to real problems, enabling students to apply theoretical knowledge to practical industry scenarios. This approach is seen as more beneficial than traditional practical training. A program leader A-002 in institutional A explained,

“We can teach them knowledge, how to implement that in everyday situations. We analyse case studies, look at situations. When talking about the service, we talk about how would you design the environment around it to be most powerful ... Students can go to museum and say like how to develop it more user friendly. That is where they use knowledge to develop their skills”.

There is a gap between the academic view and the industry's expectations of what HHE should provide. In his words, *"there is a gap between the way that university see hospitality education and what the industry wants"* (A-005). The central idea is that universities should equip students with critical thinking abilities rather than specific, task-oriented skills that might become outdated upon graduation. Participant A-005 underscored this perspective, emphasising that teaching software and specific skills might not align with the dynamic nature of the industry.

"There was a gap between the skills that were being taught in the hotel schools and what students need to know. When I taught a class on accommodation management and security, students asked about specific software. I said the time you graduate that software will be different. What is the point of us investing in software that is not relevant. What better is to teach you the principles of accommodation management, it can take you a few weeks to learn how to use the accommodation system. I think this was always a bit of a sticking point between hospitality education for managers about what should be taught. I would much rather have somebody coming into my hospitality business who has a good knowledge of the sector, specific expertise in marketing or finance than somebody who comes in with a lot of practical knowledge and not much critical thinking knowledge".

5.3.3 Hospitality and Tourism

Literature reviews that tourism and hospitality can be sometime used interchangeably (Brotherton and Wood, 2000; Dale and Robinson, 2001, p.31; Lashley, 2008). Some (e.g. Jones, 1996, p. 6-7; Brotherton, 1999) advocate for a clear differentiation between tourism and hospitality. The findings indicate that, in the past, HHE programs were disproportionately tilted toward tourism, with a limited emphasis on the hospitality aspect. The curriculum exhibited a distinct focus on theoretical tourism angles. This aspect was confirmed by participant A-002, *"HHE degree used to be much tourism focused ... theoretical tourism and little hospitality. We are missing*

out to hospitality". Similarly, participant C-001 reflected on his own experience of studying hotel and tourism degree in BS during 1998-2001 where the program was predominantly centered around tourism. *"From 1998 to 2001, a tourism and hospitality joint degree was the subject area within BS and focus on tourism"*. According to the participant A-002, this skew toward tourism was attributed to *"economic and marketing"* perspectives. It means, as explained by Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa (2009) and Kunwar (2017), the focus on economic and marketing aspect represents the commercial understanding of hospitality. In a sense, hospitality and tourism are understood integral to the consumption experiences.

Acknowledging the previous imbalance between tourism and hospitality, some academic staff made efforts to restore the prominence of hospitality-related subjects in the curriculum. Participant A-001 mentioned,

"In recent years, they have maybe tried to get back to a stronger focus on hospitality. If you speak to [participant A-002] who does a lot of really good stuff around industry engagement. He works very closely with a number of people in the industry and practitioners".

Similar to Lehto *et al.*, (2022), the findings indicate that hospitality and tourism are distinct fields. Unlike tourism, hospitality is now seen as a service similar as accounting. The focus of hospitality education programs, therefore, is dominantly management education, concentrating on the commercial aspect of the field. This dominance is to help hospitality fit into the business model of BS as an academic subject like other business and management subjects.

5.4 Hospitality Knowledge Domain

5.4.1 The Commercial Aspect of Hospitality

The findings indicate an emerging theme in BS's approach to teach hospitality related subjects, reflecting an evolving landscape characterised by a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of the subject matter. Academic staff hold an idea that, hospitality world is no longer confined to a single commercial dimension but now encompasses the intricate dimensions of the private and social facets of hospitality world. Evidently, the findings demonstrate a substantial evolution in the scope of

hospitality knowledge currently taught in BS, surpassing the traditional confines of hotel and catering. Presently, the curriculum encompasses a wide spectrum of business, varying in scale, from corporate enterprises to small local establishments. Institution A, for instance, emphasises the teaching of corporate hospitality, equipping students with general management skills applicable to diverse corporate-level units. Conversely, institution B focuses on teaching various aspects of small-scale restaurant business, such as church restaurants, which are prevalent in Scotland. Additionally, students are introduced to different types of hospitality businesses, including domestic and franchise operations. Institution B, for example, teaches students different types of hospitality businesses such as church or home-theme restaurants.

There is an understanding that the commercial concept of hospitality is broader than the traditional focus on hotels and restaurants. Some participants explained that focusing solely on hospitality, as was done with standalone degrees, it is outdated and limited. Students should expand their understanding about the scope of hospitality industry which is not limited to traditional hotel and catering as before. It challenges the traditional perceptions that enrolling in a hospitality degree solely leads to roles as hotel managers or restaurant supervisors. Participant B-001 elaborated,

“With just a few of examples, it shows the hospitality industry is not just around the traditional setting of a hotel or restaurant. Originally when I started, that was the perception of doing a degree, you will become in three years or four years and manager of a hotel or restaurant. I think that is limited”.

The contemporary hospitality industry now encompasses diverse contexts like the “gig economy” and “sharing economy” (A-002), which were not traditionally taught. The predominantly narrow to hotel and catering is expanded to include various types of hospitality ventures. Students are exposed to a myriad of hospitality businesses, including family restaurants and culturally connected experience. Participant B-001, a program coordinator, highlighted the significance of this expansion, stating:

“Students’ perceptions of the industry are no longer confined to traditional hotels and restaurants. Students now learn about pop up restaurants, maybe

using domestic home or community space like a church hall to create a hospitality experience”.

The spectrum of hospitality business activities has been remarkably diversified, now encompassing a wide range of experience that range from personal hobbies to entrepreneur endeavours. According to participant B-001,

“A range of things, those kinds of small ideas have led to something bigger and have led to maybe a restaurant. I have seen people that started with selling their own kind of Chinese and spice mixes and now has got our own kind of series on Amazon prime where she cooks and shows people how to cook. What people are doing can lead to potential businesses”.

Having a wider knowledge about what might be included in hospitality industry, students can have more ideas about their future jobs, not just being restricted to working in a hotel. As participant B-001 shared, *“becoming hotel managers for big brands is fantastic, but being a good manager requires understanding the rest of hospitality as an industry”.*

In contrast to the findings by Wood (2015 a,b) which raised a concern about the dominance of HME in universities for HHE, the current findings illustrate that business and management still hold a dominance position, especially in BS. This dominance shapes the way HHE is conceptualised, focusing on the commercial side of hospitality knowledge. However, the key distinction lies in the scope of HME. In Wood (2015 a,b)’s study, it was narrow to hotel and catering activities while in contemporary BS, HME is expanded to encompass a broader service industry. From the academic view in BS, hospitality is currently seen as equivalent to other services such as banking. The only primary differentiation is the context where hospitality services are provided, which is driven by host-guest relationships and related cultural and social aspects. Consequently, HHE has shifted toward a broader business and management education approach, departing from the isolation of a separated hotel education as seen in the past.

5.4.2 The Social and Domestic Aspects of Hospitality

Pritchard and Morgan (2007, pp. 12–28) supported his view when stating the dominance of hospitality management limits the exploration of broader social, cultural, and ethical dimensions of hospitality. Hence, hospitality graduates might only understand the industry solely exists to serve customers and/or provide future job opportunities. This dominance receives criticism as it only applies one set of intellectual constructs and practices (management) to understand hospitality (Brotherton and Wood, 2000). The findings reveal that the academic community acknowledges the importance of hospitality industry which is more than a sale of hotel rooms, restaurant meals and hospitality services. In their teaching practice, educators make deliberate efforts to raise students' awareness about the impact of hospitality and tourism activities on people's lives such as job opportunity, culture development, social security and property. It is evident in the teaching topic in institution A.

Evidently, the curriculum has diversified its scope to include not only the commercial domain of the hospitality industry but also its social and private dimensions. Modules now cover the commercial, private and social domains of hospitality, providing students with a holistic understanding of the industry. Participant B-001 explained, *"I have recently been teaching my first-year students, three elements of hospitality, commercial, private and social domains of hospitality"*. This participant passionately emphasised the significance of understanding the diverse experience of hospitality worldwide, stating, *"other experiences of hospitality taking place every single day in different countries, contexts, cultures is what I find most interesting"*. This approach sparks positive responses from students, encouraging them to explore various activities, including culinary endeavours shared on social media platforms, fostering personal connection to the subject matter.

The curriculum evolves to incorporate contemporary elements such as the role of social media within the hospitality industry. Participant B-001 elucidated that students are now exposed to real-life examples and current developments in the industry. By doing so, they are prepared to face the ever-changing landscape of the hospitality sector. He affirms this by stating, *"my students often engage with how social media works in hospitality, real-life examples, things are happening now"*. This contemporary focus ensures that students are not only educated in the foundations of

hospitality but also the latest trends that influence the field. The profound changes in the curriculum empower students with a deep understanding of what hospitality entails. This knowledge equips them with the essential foundation to succeed in placements and coursework within the field of management. As participant B-001 articulated, “*they can develop their understanding about what hospitality means and what is included in the context*”.

5.5 Transition toward Hospitality Studies

As highlighted in the literature review, the introduction of three-domain framework to conceptualise knowledge (see section 2.2) has spurred calls to merge hospitality management and hospitality studies to enhance the generation of hospitality knowledge (Lugosi, 2009; Lehto *et al.*, 2022). Essentially, hospitality studies can evolve from hospitality management, expanding its focus from guest–host relationship management. This approach allows the continuation of the dominant hospitality management in subjecting hospitality while developing the distinct identity of hospitality centered on the host-guest relationship. The uniqueness of hospitality can be built in this way. This trend is evident in the practice of teaching HME in BS.

To differentiate from the prevailing dominance of hospitality management in BS, the term “*hospitality studies*” is introduced by some participants in institution B. This serves as an avenue for teaching hospitality concepts and theories that deviate from the predominant hospitality management approach. The aim of incorporating the private and social dimension of hospitality into hospitality curriculum is to help students understand the complexity of the industry. Such complexity comes from human interactions, cultural and social aspects related to working conditions and associated pressure. In turn, this understanding enhances students to perform better in their jobs and contribute to improve the working condition of the industry often criticised for long hours and challenges dealing with customer and service provision.

A dominant concentration on management approach for HME curriculum does not receive fully support from academics. Some faculty members are advocating for a more theoretical and concept-driven perspective on hospitality studies. At institution B, one senior staff introduced different concepts of hospitality in her class in order to help students deeply understand about what hospitality means in a theoretical way.

“That is a space for hospitality studies and [the name of participant B-004] thinks and those higher level concept, about what is hospitality and how do we define it. I have been drawn some ideas it for my teaching in terms of the concept of hospitality to use it as a concept of hospitality in the classroom”.
(B-003)

The staff adopted a term “*hospitality studies*” to distinguish their teaching approach from the dominant paradigm of hospitality management, a typical approach in BS. This staff held an opinion that hospitality should be viewed as unique discipline rather than simply a management subject. She used the example of simulated game in which students learn the management side of hospitality context. Even though main languages taught in this activity seems more about “*management*” such as setting room rate, developing menus, there is still a focus on the uniqueness of hospitality:

“ It is a unique discipline ... even students who have chosen to study hospitality management say it gives them so much insight into exactly what is required and setting your room rates planning your menus. They tend to think of the management word and maybe not see this actual specialism of hospitality. I very strongly feel that is an individual discipline and needs to be treated as a central discipline”. (B-003)

This perspective suggests that there is a transition happening in hospitality programs. They are moving away from an exclusive focus on hospitality program toward a broader view encompassing hospitality studies.

“What is hospitality? Here is what the philosopher says about hospitality philosophy. I am in an agreement with them on that, we can be talking about like even higher degree as a management to be. I do not think we should just focus on management so I think the short answer really is the degree is ever changing. We have to remember we are based in a BS and teaching hospitality

management. So we are not always hospitality studies degree and it is not all going to be a bit concepts and philosophies for four years". (B-003).

The shift toward hospitality studies faces challenges. HME programs are typically housed within BS, which have traditionally favoured management approach rather than fully conceptual and philosophic approach. As noted by participant B-003, *"we are based in BS and teaching hospitality management. It is not always hospitality studies degree, not all going to be concepts and philosophies"*. Similarly, a senior lecturer acknowledges, when hospitality is located in BS, it risks losing some parts of its identity as a unique discipline.

"We are very much part of a school ... There is no doubt that tourism in its widest sense, which includes hospitality and hotels is very important to the Scottish economy ... I think the program has been diluted ... It is subsumed into part of a bigger school faculty design and it does not have that focus. That visibility has been lost". (C-002)

The focus on management aspect when teaching hospitality subject reveals that the nature of hospitality knowledge still lies in pragmatic and instrumental values. The instrumental view of hospitality knowledge and HHE emphasises the operational and managerial facets geared toward profit generation. In the words of Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey (2009), this instrumentalist view of HHE is driven by neoliberalism and lacks engagement with the deconstruction of hospitality world to address its complexity driven by social and cultural context. It tends to neglect issues such as inequalities or ethics while focusing on management aspects of the working condition and human resources for profitability and efficiency. Therefore, the perception about hospitality subject is primarily confined to the realm of business and management domain, in other words, the commercial side of hospitality world. There is a limitation on other aspects such as ethics, politics and philosophy.

5.6 Chapter of Summary

This chapter discusses the status of hospitality knowledge in BS following main changes in vocational education, specialised education and an academic subject

in BS. The findings all indicate that all changes to HHE have been made to fit into BS so that hospitality is seen as an academic subject. The identity of hospitality vocational education moves from specific practical training to management education that provides students management skills, critical thinking and analysis mindset to deal with practical aspects of the industry. The management education is business-oriented but more toward general education when students learn business and management theory to understand hospitality. In this way, HHE follows applied education not purely academic education with only theory and philosophy.

The specialised education of hospitality now moves from separated education as in hotel schools to integrated education with broader business and management education in BS. The idea at the present time is that, hospitality is similar to other services hence special knowledge from other subjects such as business and management can be used to understand hospitality. It is a way to improve an academic status of HHE to be equal to other established subjects in BS.

Hospitality skills at the moment also move from product production to managing services, people and working places. It is seen as a step to upgrade skill trainings for HHE while making it different with other trainings of other subjects in BS such as accounting. HME is still the core for hospitality programs, but it is expanded. Its scope now goes beyond hotel and catering toward different types of hospitality business such as corporate, private, small and medium size. Historically, the traditional role of HHE was to supply skilled workforce for the hospitality industry. At the present time, this role is broadened, acknowledging hospitality's significant impacts on economic development of national or local areas, reducing poverty to improve people life via the motion of world-making.

Overall, this chapter adds new insights into existing debates about the identity of HHE in university and BS, which lies in vocational, specialised education and broader HME. Academic staff in Scotland still want to continue such legacy to maintain the identity of HHE in BS but make significant changes to fit into a new context. This chapter is significant toward achieving the aim of understanding what is hospitality knowledge and its nature. Further theoretical implications from this chapter are extensively discussed in chapter 8.

Chapter 6: Mode of Knowledge Production for Hospitality in Business School

The previous chapter deals with the first research objective which is to identify what is hospitality in terms of its nature. This chapter deals with the second research objective, which is to examine where hospitality knowledge come from. This objective is to examine the sources and dimensions of hospitality knowledge in terms of disciplines, mode of knowledge production, and the boundaries that define its scope. The chapter contributes to understanding disciplinary thinking as a theoretical foundation to generate hospitality knowledge in BS.

6.2 Mode 1 Knowledge Production

This section discusses mode of knowledge production for hospitality in BS, following disciplinary approach by Tribe and Liburd (2016) (see section 3.2.3.1). As written in the literature view, mode 1 knowledge production takes place in a disciplinary context such as universities. It can create multidisciplinary knowledge by borrowing knowledge and methodologies from different disciplines (Tribe, 1997; Airey and Tribe, 2005, p. 287) or interdisciplinary knowledge created when multi-disciplines (two or more) use hospitality as the primary field of study to generate their knowledge.

6.2.1 Knowledge from Business Studies

The findings indicate that business studies currently serve as the primary source for generating knowledge for business and management degrees in hospitality. It can be reflected in course titles (e.g. Hospitality Management degrees), degree types (e.g. business and management degrees in hospitality), and the prevailing perception of hospitality as a sub- management subject (see section 5.3.1).

The findings suggest a preference for multidisciplinary knowledge production where hospitality draw from various disciplines like business and social sciences to generate its knowledge for teaching. Knowledge from business studies (i.e marketing, management or operation) is generated for teaching the business side of hospitality. This approach frames hospitality knowledge as being rooted in business and management science rather than purely hospitality theory. As participant A-003 explained, *“a lot of the stuff comes from marketing, management science... What you got is hospitality management. Many hospitality principles do not fall from the sky”*.

As he stated, *“revenue management in a hotel is marketing, economics and accounting. How can you understand if you do not understand basic accounting”* (A-003). The participant further pointed out, this multidisciplinary approach extends to other fields, like economics, which draws upon a range of disciplines, including behavior sciences, psychology, statistics and mathematics.

“But all disciplines, a lot of it is also just academics. Nobody, I would say, like economists, for example, think they are better than others, they think they are sciences superior even though they haven't gotten anything right for who knows how long. But again, they borrow from other disciplines as behavioral sciences, psychology, statistics and mathematics”. (A-003)

Furthermore, the participant acknowledged that there may be differing views within academics, particularly regarding the nature of hospitality, citing an example where hospitality can be seen from a social science perspective.

“There were a couple of professors believing that we had to teach pure hospitality theory. For example, [the name of one professor] actually built a lot of his stuff on sociological impressionism and how you walk around hotels and bed and breakfast and things like that, but when you are at work, you bought on so many things from so many different places”. (A-003)

Participant B-004, a retired professor who used to work institution A, B, C and a co-author to develop critical journal of hospitality, held an idea that hospitality is unique as *“hospitality is quite distinctive from generic management and creates its own value”* (B-004). This demonstrates that the perceptions of hospitality and its relationship with other disciplines vary among academics. The participant acknowledged these differences and stressed that there is not a standalone hospitality theory but rather a need to draw from other disciplines.

“We work together and he [the name of one professor] has his own theoretical paradigm, which I disagree. A lot of people agree with me, the problem is, this movement to create a hospitality theory from security. I would say, people that

do not want to depend on other disciplines and they want to say, hospitality is important than anything else. Unless he is arguing that it has grown now so much that is his own umbrella, it includes hospitality marketing, hospitality management was valuable then that is fine. The theory has grown now so much that you could say it is shown domain, yes. But that it cannot stand on its own, so no. It does not make sense". (A-003)

6.2.2 Knowledge from Social Sciences

Additionally, knowledge from social sciences is also presented in teaching curricula for hospitality management and operation subjects. Evidently, students are taught to see things from the viewpoint of people interaction rather than from management aspect. Such people-oriented approach is to help students understand consumer psychology and lifestyle consumption to navigate the complexities of human relationships, cultural diversity, and the working conditions within the hospitality sector. Several staff proposed the inclusion of a sociological approach in the curriculum. They highlighted the unique nature of hospitality phenomenon which includes human interaction, culture, social dynamics and guest-host relationship. Hence, HHE curriculum should deliver knowledge related to sociology, psychology and anthropology and others related to fields to enable students to develop a comprehensive understanding about diverse human interactions and culture nuances.

"I prefer the social element because you can teach everyone business, but you cannot teach everyone hospitality. Hospitality is an industry that people need to bring a certain personality to. That personality can be shaped can by looking into sociology psychology anthropology and understanding the basic concepts of social interactions, guest host relationship. So removing it from BS contexts, I do believe that the students would lose out of some valuable information". (A-002)

Some institutions have already implemented this approach into their HHE curriculum. In institution A, sociological perspectives have been incorporated into hospitality management and operation subjects, with a focus on people interaction rather than from management aspects.

“Whereas a lot of the tourism driven world was coming from a marketing and an economic perspective. I looked at more sociology and tried to implement more sociological thoughts into the hospitality management, but also the operation operational kind of management aspects. So looking at risk management and crowd management, all of the more people oriented them to kind of people”. (A-002)

Likewise, when learning modules such as “digitalisation of hospitality and tourism industry” and “event management”, students in institution A are taught not just event management perspective but the broader skills required for managing people and operations. As shared by participant A-002, “looking at the man's management rather than event management point of view” (A-002). Institution D underscored the importance of incorporating diversity and people management into the curriculum. It is to help students understand how to manage hospitality business when the working condition has the involvement of diverse culture and human interaction. As stated by participant D-002,

“to prepare students for success in the industry, it is crucial to include specific topics like managing diversity as hospitality often involves interactions with people from various cultures”.

Similarly, in institution D, topics such as consumer psychology, lifestyle consumption and experience economies are embedded into existing curriculum for teaching. As he shared, “for consumer module, we add psychology and my colleague takes lifestyle consumption and experience economies that is heavily linked to sociology” (D-001). This sociological approach complements the dominant management-focus curriculum in undergraduate programs. It offers students an opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of the sociology and human aspects.

“I have to recognise what are challenges in HE, we are going to be feasible, is an eighteen year-old students leaving school and thinking it is very expensive to go to university to get a degree for four years, but ideally hospitality. That might be more of a drive toward just moving into details at a student gets experience. As degrees become more and more expensive so I think, universities have to find ways to provide, apart from management skills and hospitality skills. Going back to sociology I think is the add-on”. (D-001)

Staff members advocate for a more pronounced focus on these subjects within hospitality programs, emphasising the need for teaching content related to equality. It is significant for both university education and for preparing students to understand the impact of equality on the Scottish hospitality industry. Participant D-002 stressed the importance of incorporating fairness, equality, and social justice into teaching, especially in hospitality programs, to enhance students’ awareness of how their actions can affect others and their ability to interact with diverse individuals. These subjects are seen as instruments for better preparing students for the industry and for improving working conditions. Participant D-002 explained,

“Greater awareness of managing people and understanding the importance of hospitality jobs can result in a more informed and motivated workforce. It is essential in high-pressure environments like bars or restaurants. Students should be equipped to make the industry more appealing and acknowledged”.

According to Tribe and Liburd (2016, p. 48), the social sciences are represented by economics, geography, sociology, anthropology, psychology, political science and law. The findings indicate a little sign of generating knowledge from economics, law and political science but mainly from psychology which focus on people management and lifestyle. Interviewed staff expect to have more inclusion of a sociological approach in HHE however they are aware of the dominant management teaching approach for hospitality in BS.

6.2.3 Knowledge from Humanities and Arts

The humanities and arts, encompassing philosophy, history, language, literature, communication, and art amongst others, emphasise human expression and the study of culture. They have the potential to critically address the complexity of hospitality world and practice via (inter-) cultural understandings. Knowledge generated from these sciences can promote understandings of ethics, virtue and beauty (Tribe, 2009; Liburd, 2013). The findings indicate that knowledge generated from humanities and arts and hard science is not a prevalent norm in BS. For example, the teaching practices exhibit an attempt to integrate social and private dimensions into the curriculum for hospitality subjects. However, it primarily focusing on their impact on customer choices, lifestyle, and commercial activities rather than delving deeply into philosophical and cultural aspects of hospitality such as in host-guest relationship. According to some participants, philosophical approach to understand hospitality can find more resonance in other academic teaching subjects such as culture in cultural study department rather than BS where hospitality is seen as a sub-management subject. Notably, there is no sign of hard science playing a role in generating hospitality knowledge.

Despite the value of sociological approach for HHE curriculum, some staff shared concerns about the fact that this approach tends to receive less attention as it should be. There are some reasons for that limitation. Following their opinion, this approach is less attractive to universities and students. According to participant D-001, *“one of the reasons why universities have not used it, maybe that is not appealing to students and you must ensure the modules have students signed up”*. Also, the attachment to management-focused curriculum is a major barrier, particularly in BS. Accreditation and reputation may drive institutions to maintain a strong management focus. As participant A-002 noted, *“being part of BS is a major barrier. They will not tolerate us moving to more social centric teaching. They remain accreditation and reputation”*.

Moreover, academics staff tend to view this approach more suitable for postgraduate programs than undergraduate degrees. Following participant D-001, *“there are difficulties in accepting sociology for hospitality undergraduate curriculum compared with postgraduate in which more sociology is added”*. Institution A, for example, maintains a strong management focus in undergraduate

degree, which according to staff, leads to a lack of critical and theoretical aspects in postgraduate programs. This practice is an “*unusual*” as institution has several social science academics in its BS. The reluctance to integrate a sociological approach in hospitality programs can also be attributed to the dominance of a management centric perspective:

“Tourism studies, at the moment, in undergraduate degrees, are very management. I think that just depends on who the people are within the department. I have seen that the management focus is very strong on a master’s or even a doctoral level. The way that the department at [the name of the institution A] has been organized is sort of unusual or a bit of unique. I do not think it is necessary the same at other universities within tourism and hospitality”. (A-004)

Despite the role of the private and social aspects of hospitality in setting the uniqueness of hospitality subject, there remains a predominant perspective to view hospitality as a fundamentally business-driven activity among the academic community in BS. This commercial-oriented stance appears to be more favourably inclined in the BS landscape, overshadowing the two remaining aspects. It is evident via the degree and curriculum provision, for example, institution A offers a business-oriented hospitality curriculum with a strong emphasis on business-related skills and knowledge relevant to the commercial facets of the hospitality sector. It is believed that comprehending the commercial side of the hospitality industry necessitates a broad spectrum of knowledge, spanning accounting, finance, booking systems, and economics.

Shown from the findings, academic staff continue leveraging their expertise and professional education to select their teaching pedagogies, subject areas and infuse their curricula with insights from research. Furthermore, certain staff members, as seen in institution A and B, made efforts to reintroduce hospitality-related content into the curriculum, exemplifying a disciplinary commitment, such as the inclination toward hospitality studies (see section 5.5). Therefore, the influence of discipline origins and

professional backgrounds continue influencing the knowledge production of hospitality for HHE in BS to define the program identity.

6.2.4 Knowledge Generated from Research

Staff expertise significantly influences the identity and focus of academic programs. When hotel schools were closed in certain universities, the staff with particular qualifications and experience were retained, which had a direct impact on the program's identity. In the case of institution A, those who held or were working toward a doctoral qualification (PhD) were kept, while staff members with industry experience but lacking a PhD were let go. *"The university only wanted to keep people, either had a PhD or they were well underway getting a PhD. A lot of people from the industry left"* (A-003). This small remaining academic community tend to follow a prevailing management approach for general business and management degrees in BS to design hospitality programs.

Teaching pedagogies and content is impacted by the staff expertise, based on their research interest and working experience. This factor can lead to either an academic or an applied approach. Educators who are actively engaged in research tend to integrate research into their teaching, resulting in pedagogies aligned with traditional academic practices. Conversely, educators with significant industry experience are more inclined to offer content that aligns with industry needs, emphasising an applied approach. According to participant B-003, *"planning the content is influenced by personal expertise of who is teaching it, their research areas and industry experience"*.

This expertise-driven approach results in variations across institutions, such as the balance between academic and applied content. For instance, at one institution, content was delivered at a higher academic level due to better-qualified staff, while another has more staff actively engaged in hospitality research. These variations influenced the suitability of the content for the university environment and the relevance of content to specific professions. According to participant B-004:

"Do you have a look at staff profile ... at [the name of institution C], most of them were from hoteling catering, a commercial side. It was quite a narrow pool ... However, largely the content, I think it was at a higher level ... at [the

name of institution C] had had a few more staff who are actively researching including in hospitality ... there was perhaps less content which might be directly relevant to particular jobs and professions”.

The findings above indicate a focus on using research-inform teaching. Staff use knowledge from hospitality discipline to design curriculum for teaching HME. However, academic staff have to be aware that hospitality is seen as a sub-management subject, not a standalone hospitality subject as in hotel schools. Hence, they have to generate knowledge to fit into the business and management degree in hospitality.

6.3 Mode 2 Knowledge Production

Following Circle 3 in tourism knowledge system by Tribe and Liburd (2016, p. 52-54) (see section 3.4.3), there are four types of mode 2 knowledge production: problem-centred knowledge, value-based knowledge, web 2.0 and indigenous knowledges.

Problem-centred knowledge is created within and for real-world contexts, hence, is highly contextualised relating to specific industries. Problem-based knowledge evidently continues to hold a prominent position in the hospitality curriculum, setting it apart from other business and management disciplines. Teaching activities such as consultancy projects, placements, field trips and guest speaker sessions are integral to hospitality curriculum, offering students the invaluable opportunities to acquire insights from practitioner and real-world scenarios and apply knowledge in real-world situations. This approach to education is consistent with the works of Tribe (1997, 1999) and Gibbons *et al.*, (1994), who underscore the influence of extra-disciplinary knowledge in HT, drawing from variety of sources, including “*industry, government, think tanks, interest groups, research institutes and consultancies*” (Tribe, 1999, p103). This approach has traditionally underpinned vocational education.

The presence of reflective or valued-embedded knowledge, focusing on human qualities and dispositions, meaningful participation, ethical considerations and promoting equality or peace in the context of world-making remains limited. Ethical or philosophical considerations within hospitality are not widespread for HHE due to their incompatibility with the predominant management teaching approach in BS. In

this vein, no pure academic hospitality knowledge is created in hospitality curriculum. This trend aligns the observation by Pritchard, Morgan, and Ateljevic (2011) and Caton (2012) regarding tourism education. It indicates a slow development of HHE in this matter, primarily attributed to its location in BS. Additionally, indigenous and Web 2.0 knowledge is also scarcely evidently. This can be attributed to the necessity for hospitality to establish an academic standing as similar as other business and management subjects. Consequently, academic knowledge such as multidisciplinary type is prioritised for HHE in BS.

6.4 A Balance between Academic and Applied Education

The harmonisation of pedagogies and teaching activities in HHE with academic and theoretical teaching approaches in BS is notably influenced by education models in place. This influence is clearly visible in the replacement of practical training modules with teaching activities such as consultancy, live projects and stimulated games. These innovative teaching approaches necessitate students to apply their analytical skills in data collection and analysis while employing critical thinking and theoretical knowledge to comprehend task requirements and devise effective solutions. For instance, in institution B, first-year students initially delve into grasping the essence of hospitality and its scope before delving into the specifics of hospitality management. This approach is seen by academic staff as an effective means to foster a deep theoretical understanding of the industry before introducing management aspects aimed at enhancing profitability and efficiency. In contrast, students at institution A are exposed to diverse range of services extending beyond hospitality, with the objective of cultivating a broader comprehension of various service sectors and discerning distinctions among them. This form of applied education is geared toward an academic approach, enabling students to leverage their in-class knowledge to enhance skills they can readily apply in real-world practice. Consequently, such applied knowledge and skills are considered more advantageous for students in terms of both learning and their future career prospects compared to practical skills acquired through on-job-training. Interestingly, there is a tendency in producing more critical thinking and academic knowledge into the vocational part of hospitality curriculum which previously focus on practical training for specific tasks. Such knowledge is

more about to educate students think about the world of hospitality and how to use knowledge to manage its complexity.

Evidently, while based in a BS, HHE takes an academic-driven approach but not purely theoretical. The aim is to provide students with theoretical knowledge that can apply to real-life hospitality contexts to solve industry-related problems. A senior lecturer at institution B stated, *“all academic and theoretical discussion, teaching of criticality and analysis is applied to real-life all the time”*. The curriculum combines theory and practice, allowing students to apply classroom learning to real-world situations. A participant A-002 mentioned, *“it is about developing life skills ... they can apply and develop skills in practical situations”*.

Common learning activities utilised in these hospitality programs include stimulated games, live projects, guest speakers, field trips and placements. Stimulated games are used to replace practical training modules in some institutions. Students are presented with artificial circumstance to manage a hotel or restaurant, making decisions related to service quality and customer satisfaction. The feedback indicates that students learn effectively through these games. According to participant B-003, *“it is artificial training restaurant, it is not the same as the real-life experience”*. These games require students to work in groups, making decisions on various aspects of hotel management, such as housekeeping standards, bed change frequency, and their effect on customer satisfaction and occupancy rates. Students learn how to make management and operational decisions while considering their consequences, ultimately developing their skills. As the participant recalled,

“Students learning ... a changing menu might have a knock-on effect somewhere else, or they have to decide the standard of housekeeping and the knock-on effect of whether customers will pay you or whether customers are satisfied ... They are learning the pitfalls. If you change one thing and the impact it has on other things ... They are real issues specific to industry, really hospitality focused”. (B- 003)

This approach has been positive received by students, who appreciated its practicality. As participant B-003 highlighted, *“we have been doing that for two years and the feedback has been positive ... we are introducing it in our Master programs”*.

In their third year, students engage in live projects where they act as consultants for real organisations, addressing specific issues in the hospitality industry. They collect and analyse data and propose practical solutions. These projects are typically linked with local companies such as bars, event venues or hotels. The tasks involved issues related to business operations such as sustainability and value chain. As participant A-002 stated, *“many of the assignments are consultancy projects ... students address specific problems that local organisations have with theory they learn”*. Students ultimately present their findings and recommendations to company representatives and academic staff, receiving valuable feedback from both sides.

In terms of placement, students have options to undertake placements in their third year, which can last up to six months. During this period, students can gain practical work experience, applying what they have learned in classroom to real-life scenarios. This involves working for specific companies and understanding their operations as well as broader context. As participant D-002 stated,

“They have to be very aware of the environment of working in the management and sales, how they interact with others. If they're working in a restaurant, they have to push themselves to try different things to shadow managers to be involved in opening up, cashing down, holding team meetings, all that kind of niche. I think that these practical elements are really useful for the students”.

As participant B-001 mentioned, *“students have to find a place for work ... they have learnt into practice, supervised by the university and organisations”*.

Field trips are organised for students to visit companies and observe their operations, gaining insights into business practices in hospitality. These trips include visits to restaurants or hotels that manage their operations sustainably. Students can witness practical applications of sustainability and management principles. For guest speakers, students have chances to attend sessions with experts from the hospitality sector who share their experience and insights. These sessions provide students with

up-to-date information about industry developments, ensuring that they remain informed about the evolving hospitality landscape. In the words of participant B-001,

“I wanted to bring people in that were part of the hospitality sector, but maybe not just a restaurant manager or somebody who works in hotels and or events...getting them engaged as we have had this kind of covert has been really important ... This emphasis on inviting diverse speakers from the industry demonstrates a commitment to providing students with a holistic understanding of the hospitality sector”.

Additionally, participant B-001 mentioned the importance of engaging these experts at various stages of students’ academic journey *“getting them in at different levels like first, second and third year ... It has been kind of really important”.*

6.5 Chapter of Summary

This chapter provides insights into the sources and dimensions of hospitality knowledge in terms of disciplines, mode of knowledge production, and the boundaries that define its scope. Multidisciplinary approach becomes prevalent in mode 1 knowledge production for hospitality, where knowledge for HHE is derived from other disciplines, mainly business and social studies (see section 6.2). The context of BS favours management more than philosophical or sociological view of the hospitality phenomenon. Consequently, theories of hospitality focusing on philosophical aspects of host-guests, or hospitality phenomenon are not commonly taught in hospitality curriculum.

A majority of academic staff having PhD qualifications use research-informed approach to generate knowledge for HHE. However, their teaching mostly focuses on the management side of hospitality to align with the educational model in BS. An interdisciplinary approach to hospitality is not deemed suitable, primarily due to the location of HHE in BS.

The extradisciplinary approach remains popular as mode 2 knowledge production for hospitality. Academic staff unanimously agree that applied education is the main approach for HHE. Nevertheless, HHE needs to integrate with academic education to align with university education level.

Chapter 7: Hospitality Knowledge Network in Business School

Chapter 5 and 6 respectively address research objective 1 and 2 of this thesis. This chapter presents findings and discussion in relation to research objective 3 which is to understand how hospitality knowledge is constructed in institutional contexts as BS. The focus of the chapter is the provision of degrees and curriculum design process to identify what forces impact knowledge production for hospitality and how decision-making process take place in terms of curriculum design for knowledge production at department/ academic community levels.

7.1 Force Field Factor to Hospitality Higher Education

This section describes in depth how hospitality knowledge is produced from the impact of external forces such as government, industry, students, and professional groups.

7.1.1 Government Impact

The impact of government policy and perspective on the industry

At a macro level, government policies impact the expansion of HE, especially transformation of polytechnics into universities was a notable development at the university level:

“To understand significant external factors at a national and governmental level in terms of policy is to know why they opened up, why they changed polytechnics to universities. Why did they expand significantly and why did they have the aspiration of some 50% of the workforce having high level qualifications. These factors are important”. (B-002)

The HE system witnessed the transition of numerous polytechnics into universities in the nationwide. This expansion led to a change in university status.

“Come back to the marketplace. I think is quite important. You had this expansion, part of the original thing about university status back in 1990 was an expansion of HE because at a national level, it was felt that one would

compete best on the global stage if we had more highly educated workforce that they would therefore be much more competitive”. (B-002)

Along with HE expansion, the expectations for various types of education also changes. Different education levels were anticipated to serve distinct educational purposes. According to participant B-002, polytechnics were expected to provide applied education with tailored courses to meet industry demands.

“Education starts to change because the expectations that surround an honours degree and surround the university as opposed to a polytechnic in the UK, which has always had this history of being more applied more relevant as it were directly relevant to an industry”.

Within the realm of HE, there is a clear distinction for the goals of university education. University education should prioritise social sciences, management, and the development of intellectual and analytical skills. Meanwhile, polytechnics should offer applied education. Participant B-002 underscored this divergence.

“In terms of the aspiration, university, though, is more concerned with particularly with social sciences, which would include management and more concerned with development of intellectual and analytical skills and not quite so depending upon which subject you are looking at. It is quite directly relevant, as it was”.

This distinction highlights the contrast between education and training. Education is primarily geared toward individual knowledge and skill development, emphasising holistic personal growth. In contrast, training is designed to offer programs that specifically meet job requirements, *“education is more concerned with individuals as a whole and training is more concerned to fit for a particular purpose”* (B-002).

In addition, the government-driven perception can impact the demand for hospitality courses in universities. When inquiring about how the state can impact

HHE, one retired professor started with highlighting the role of government policies in the development of specific industries, including hospitality and tourism. This participant emphasised that government policy recognition of the pivotal role of the industry in national economic growth is a vital influence. Consequently, the government acknowledged the need to nurture a high-quality workforce with HE qualifications to drive the growth of these industries. From this perspective, HE played a vital role in supplying the qualified labour needed to fulfil these targets. As participant B-002 shared, *“the workforce earns more money and contribute to affluence for the country, which has implications for the university sector. That was one of the drivers”*. When the government acknowledges the industry’s importance for national economic growth, it led to an increase in HE qualification for hospitality workforce in the UK to meet the demand of the job markets. *“There was an increase in qualifications level for British workforce including hospitality...part of the economics with regards to hospitality”* (B-002).

However, over time, there has been a shift in the government’s view regarding the economic role of the hospitality industry. The government began to pay less attention to hospitality in comparison to other sectors, perceiving it as less profitable. This shift in perspective has been reflected in a decrease in the enrolment of undergraduate programs in the field over the past two decades.

“Hospitality was not being viewed as important as other industries because that is not where the money was and where the demand for students was. I think over the last twenty years, the number of students wanting to study hospitality undergraduate level has probably decreased”. (B-001)

Participant B-001 emphasised the significant role of the hospitality sector in the UK economy, with a large workforce directly and indirectly involved in the industry. However, hospitality education has not received the same level of government attention, leading to the misconception that it leads to entry-level and low-paying jobs.

“Hospitality is one of the biggest industries in the UK, it has impacts on so many jobs. Last year, the other interesting thing is that hospitality was not

really taught much as a subject in schools, which I think is a huge disparity... It does have the perception that hospitality is an entry level job, low paid status". (B-001)

Participant B-001 expressed the need for a change in the government's focus on hospitality to positively impact student enrolment. *"I would like to see a change in how important the government has a focus on hospitality and that would ever an impact on student enrolment".* The repercussion of the government's stance on hospitality education are reflected in institutional decisions, such as prioritising other disciplines such as engineering due to a perceived lack of demand for hospitality education.

"There is a perception from the government that is not as well thought of as other industries such as engineering. [the name of institution A], a huge focus on engineering and other industries...There was a hotel school which does not exist anymore because more people are going to colleges for practical elements. That was demand driver". (B-001)

The impact of national curriculum

The government's impact on HHE also extends to the establishment of national curriculum requirements. In Scotland, this is outlined in the SCQF. However, universities do not use these frameworks to design specific teaching content for HHE curricula. Instead, the frameworks provide a guideline for the expected level of study and skills at different educational stages.

You have a national qualifications framework, which will be much more about level of study rather than specific detail about degree. That would be certain requirements in terms of skills that students would have at different levels of studies, pre degree and post degree. You have got the Scottish qualification something that would outline the general principles but would not have any fine detail. (A-001)

While these frameworks ensure that students receive a consistent type of education for HHE courses, individual universities have the autonomy to decide the program content. However, they generally aim to align their offerings with the benchmarks. Variations in courses among universities result from their respective capacities and areas of research interests.

“What individual universities choose to do is pretty much up to them to follow... they would normally look to ensure that what they are doing is mapped against the benchmarks...but there is always going to be room for some variety and that variety would often reflect, particular in specialised research interested institutions”. (A-001)

7.1.2 Industry Impact

The industry has a substantial impact on the relevance of HHE programs. As stated by participant A-002, *“we design assignments around the industry requirement, it is probably one of the strongest factors.”* Educators strive to maintain a close connection with the industry by making sure their programs provide students with current trends and issues of the industry. Such connection is described as an *“organic approach”* through strong relationships with external partners such as the industry. As participant A-002 shared,

“Much more organic and through our partners, we would find out what is going on at the moment we keep a very tight relationship with our external partners to know what is going on with the news and media, keeping up to date with what is the latest debates, whether that is through a TED talk, conferences. I also look around a lot of restaurants. I eat out a lot so I know what is going on in restaurants”.

These industry connections and awareness of what is happening in the field directly inform teaching topics in hospitality classes. To ensure students receive the most relevant education, educators frequently organise field trips to visit hotels, invited guest speakers from the industry. As explained participant D-002, *“that is something*

we need to continue and expand our knowledge so that we are aware of what the industry needs”.

The relevance of HHE is also reflected in the purpose of these programs. The main aim is to support the development of the hospitality industry by providing qualified staff who can contribute to the industry’s growth in terms of profit and working conditions. As participant A-002 shared,

“It became really about economic resources, how do you improve the product, how to get more people involved. Because if you are growing as an industry, you are creating more supply that always needs to be met with demand. The demand was there, so it is natural that it was kind of geared toward marketing and economics at that point. As we matured with the industry, we realised that it is unsustainable, cannot just grow without actually looking at product quality. Obviously, we develop further from mass tourism. But the better we train them [students], the more they will enforce that change. In order for us to change the industry, we might as well look at education parts to driving that. So as an educator I would say it is more important to develop skills for students”.

7.1.3 Student Impact

All academic staff shared that, the purpose of HHE needs to meet the demand of students. In the past, students would take HHE to get a job in the relevant industry which was hotel and catering. However, in the modern landscape of university education, there is a diverse mix of students with different backgrounds and academic intentions. This includes high school graduates aiming for bachelor’s degrees, and college students seeking to complement their practical training.

“We get a lot of direct entrance into second and third year. We have different types of students ... Some study a college and they come into second year or

third year ... It is quite a big jump for them to move to the academic side to top up to a practical qualification ... The selling point is the theoretical underpinning that you are getting from day one". (B-003)

This diversity in student backgrounds and demand results in a wide array of career expectations. The traditional focus on hotel management is expanded, with students now aspiring to various career paths beyond traditional hotel roles.

"The scope of students is wider and expectations are different ... There is more people coming to hospitality because they just want to develop kind of entrepreneurial thinking. Maybe people who are not going to be hotel managers but want to start their own business, whether it is linked to food or drink or accommodation ... So we had to change". (B-001)

Traditionally, undergraduate programs primarily focus on business and management education to enhance students' employability to meet industry and student specific demands. Evidently, the primary objective of HHE now extends beyond the confines of the hospitality sector. HHE now aims to equip students with knowledge and skills necessary for success in a wide range of management roles in many industries including hospitality or study higher. Still a utilitarian approach is what HHE focuses on, however the scope of employability is bigger than before. At the current time, student career goals often evolve during university education. Many students enter their programs with a set idea of their career path, which can change after their first year. Hence, the programs need to be flexible with that kind of change in student demand.

"Students are entering in year one, they enter BS and they might have an idea in their minds that they are going to do, hospitality, or HRM or accounting and finance to be recruited to [the name of the institution A] BS. Once in BS, they start to decide after the first year. Notionally they are signing up to a degree and after the first year they might change their mind". (A-001)

7.1.4 Professional Impact

According to responses from participants, the Council for Hotel Management Education (CHME) plays a significant role in shaping HHE curriculum. Historically, CHME was instrumental in promoting the development of degrees and diplomas in the field of HHE. As shared by participant B-002, *“they were the original push for HE degrees and diplomas in hospitality, hotel and catering body”* (B-002). CHME’s primary objective has been established skill benchmarks for various jobs in hotel and hospitality industry, especially for managers. This involves creating specific skill requirements that managers are expected to possess in the industry. *“We are trying to raise management quality, a greater value in skill recognition for hotel managers, the skill sets for best managers over time”* (B-002). This skill benchmark established by CHME is designed to maintain a consistent quality of skill sets that all managers should possess. According to participant B-004, this standardisation also serves marketing purposes for jobs in the hospitality industry. *“That was partly for marketing purposes, trying to move broader based, as it were despite that name changed”*.

Universities, in response to these skill benchmarks, adapt and develop their programs. The programs are designed with consideration for the skill framework, ensuring that the content is appropriate for different levels of education. According to one retired professor, this framework is considered as *“appropriate to the different levels”* (B-002). According to reflections from staff, it appears that institution D adhered more rigorously to the CHME guidelines compared to other institutions. *“[The name of institution D] is the only place I have seen that done successfully... To some extent and even less so at nature. It was quite kind of planning”* (B-002). In a sense, institution D seems to incorporate the guidelines provided by CHME into the development of teaching content for its program. As noted by this participant,

“How does that content get influenced? partly because of the guidelines.

Institutions such as CHME set out and advise content for hospitality management degrees and used to be a kind of a national guidance”. (B-002)

The aim of following these benchmarks is to ensure that the program meets the equivalence of skills required. According to one participant,

“It has to be at least equivalent. We would take that into consideration and benchmarks from other places as well to make sure we are meeting those targets. It really depends on what the target is and what the benchmarks are but we would embed that into the teaching module that you are presenting”.

(D-001)

7.2 The Competitive Landscape of University Education

The findings indicate that nowadays, the landscape of university education is competitive, which drives universities to more focus on marketing position. Each university has its own strategies for ranking or market position. For instance, institution A’s strategy prioritises on achieving high ranking for its BS. As participant A-003 shared, *“this is the calling card, the world class BS and expertise they get. It makes them different. We teach in a different way”*. When hospitality becomes a faculty degree in BS, it must align with the university strategy, encompassing educational goals, program structure and curriculum guidelines. According to one participant,

“The university has strategic goals. When we develop educational programs, we need to say how it addresses goals, how it fits within the university strategy and system” (A-003)

To maintain the program identity while adhering to university strategic goals, the solution often involves merging a business degree with hospitality. Participant A-003 highlighted this approach, stating:

“We started thinking how to be part of a world class BS and decided to teach sustainability in tourism as a context of other BS subjects. It is a combination of things, one thing is the market and the other one is a distinct identity of the programs for graduates”. (A-003)

The same participant emphasised the need to create a distinct identify for HHE programs in a competitive landscape. *“We aim to have a world-class BS offering HHE*

at the highest level with a distinct favour on sustainability” underlining the programs’ commitment to excellence and sustainability (A-003).

Institution B, for instance, maintains its history of providing traditional vocational education for specific industries, positioning itself as a vocational-oriented institution. As shared by participant B-002:

“We started off where we were a college of culture technology and we were given university status. Vocational orientation is our advantage as the program has an industry focus even though the university education is academic and research informed for teaching”.

This approach does not confine vocational program to purely vocational path but rather strikes a balance by incorporating the academic rigor of research-based teaching. It marries their historical strengths of delivering industry-focused, vocational programs with academic and research elements. This strategy is geared toward maintaining a robust emphasis on the vocational aspects while enriching the programs with academic and research elements.

In the competitive landscape of HE, all universities aim to provide something special to improve their ranking. A crucial viewpoint offered by participant A-003 is the need for universities to provide specialised knowledge that differentiates them from other educational sources. This unique knowledge is deemed essential for *“specialisation employability”* (A-003). Universities must offer something beyond what can be easily found on the internet or taught through practical training. The focus is one staying ahead of the competition, including industry-driven training, to provide students with a competitive edge. As shared by participant A-003, *“google or open universities are trying to award degrees which have not been recognised. What will happen to universities if industry can create their own degrees”*. A significant concern voiced by this participant is the changing information landscape, particularly the availability of information on the internet. This transformation has led universities to reevaluate their offerings. It is no longer adequate to provide only basis knowledge and

practical training, instead, students demand specialised and practical knowledge that will genuinely benefit their future careers. He raised a concern,

“Education is becoming standardised and replicated homogenised. There might be a little bit of changes here and there. If you study the basics of hospitality and tourism courses to work in a hotel, anywhere you do, it is going to be the same until you start working for a specific company. For example, the Intercontinental will do something differently than Marriott or Hilton, these are small differences and the hotel can bring you up to speed in a month. But what goes with a year BS degree cannot be taught to somebody in a month. By this trend of the industry offering, training and degrees and things of that is going to be the college's first and the universities at this at the next level”
(A-003)

To illustrate the importance of specialisation, participant A-003 highlighted the notion of a “*purist university*” dedicated to enhancing knowledge for learners. “*The fight between specialisation and education continues. A purist university should be about bettering yourself as a human being*” (A-003). However, the participant leans toward supporting specialisation within universities. The primary reason for this is to cater to the needs and demands of students seeking degrees as a means to secure employment in specific sectors. Participant A-003 contended, “*people do not go to university for an education, they see university as a means to an end path*”. This view reflects the modern reality where universities are seen as stepping-stones to future careers rather than institutions of pure academic enrichment.

This perspective aligns with the broader trend of universities prioritising specialisation to meet the market’s needs. The academic landscape has evolved, with universities adapting to provide education aimed at employability. According to participant A-002, “*it is all about specialisation employability. Universities are going to deliver something on top of the practical stuff that others provide*”. While this shift

is not unique to one specific program such as hospitality and tourism, it characterises the broader education sector. As he noted,

“Because I arrived, university started being run by managers and everything has to be run in a certain way. Education in general is all about specialisation. This is not the symptom of university or our program, it is a symptom across the education sector”. (A-003)

In the current landscape, universities must present students with a unique value proposition that distinguishes university education from other sources of knowledge, such as Google or the internet. Participant A-003 suggested, universities should shift their focus from being the sole repositories of specialised knowledge to providing knowledge and skills that are not only valuable but also directly relevant to the industry and the ever-evolving job market.

“In the past, there was a certain information asymmetry. Unless you went to school or a university, you would never know anything about what to do with washing linen for your bed and breakfast. You would not know unless you went to a seminar or something like that right. Now, you can just google it. Things like environmental management systems, for example, or sustainability would be part of what you want to call and hospitality education. You are trying to be better for work”. (A-003)

Knowledge has transformed into a consumable product, tailored to meet diverse demands, including those of students, the industry and the competitive landscape of HE. This transformation highlights the adaptability and responsiveness of knowledge, which means knowledge is no longer solely an academic pursuit, but a commodity designed for consumption. Participant A-003 aptly described it a package, all in one product, to serve the market.

Participant A-003 illustrated how universities must demonstrate their value to students in terms of job prospects in England. As students pay significant fees, universities are expected to provide specialised knowledge and clear pathways to employability.

“Especially education, when you go to England, colleges and universities that are running programs at break-even point. If our numbers fell down, that the program is not going to exist. In England people pay a lot of fees. University education is more for job that is why they need to have specialisation to show students, a clear pathway, you have to show them a clear pathway to employability that's their main concern”. (A-003)

Scotland and England differ in how student enrolment influences university course provision. In Scotland, student enrolment significantly impacts the decisions universities make about offering courses. However, in England, where students pay higher tuition fees, universities can still run programs with smaller numbers of students, even at the break-even point:

“In England, colleges and universities are running programs at break-even point, I mean, six students. If our numbers fall down to that, the program is not going to exist but in England people pay a lot of fees”. (A-003)

Beside specialisation, universities employ various strategies that affect course provision, one of which revolves around elevating research quality. Some institutions dedicate their efforts to enhance their research output, a strategy critical for maintaining a strong market position. Back in 2009, institution A sought to bolster its market standing by elevating the quality of research across various departments.

“At that time, there was no journal ranked initially to start with the highest one being four stars for tourism ... So comparatively, the subjects of hospitality and tourism seemed not very competitive or attractive and [the name of

institution A] has research ambitions, which is kind of marketplace decision I guess". (B-002)

To assess research quality across different departments, including the hotel school, they conducted an “*excellent review*” focusing on research input and the number of publications produced by staff. The results revealed that many academic staff teaching hospitality did not meet the university’s expectations regarding research input. According to participant A-001,

“I am not aware of the absolute detail of the excellence review, but in essence, what it probably said was, the measures of things like student numbers, the hotel school was doing fine. However, in research terms, it was not doing enough high-quality research to generate high quality publications...But across the department as a whole, that was not the case. A lot of people were not particularly research active or producing things”.

This internal audit conducted within the university identified departments deemed underperforming in research. Due to the low level of research input, the university decided to close the hotel school, despite its high student enrolment. As participant A-001 explained,

“Historically, the hotel school as a department within BS which was very successful. It had a decent number of undergraduate students, a good number of top postgraduate students and really strong for PhD cohort. I think when it came to the point, because the university did an intern or what it called an excellence review. It looked across the university and basically this is when the university really started to publicly talk about how we wanted to become a much more research-intensive university”.

The university's objective to enhance its research position led to the closure of the hotel schools when staff failed to produce a high level of publications and integrate research into teaching:

“One of the things they were doing was because of the university wanting to position itself as one of the research-oriented institutions in the UK. The quality for search in hospitality and tourism was relatively small percentage of the staff who are active for searches and active searches after reasonable to high level, so [the name of institution A] therefore was valuing research informed teaching”. (B-004)

7.3 The Purpose of Hospitality Higher Education

The findings suggest two primary contemporary purposes of HHE.

7.3.1 Improve Employability

Firstly, academic staff agree that the primary objective of HHE is to enhance students' employability. A business degree, for example, can enhance students' employability, a strength acknowledged by A-002, *“employability is the strongest part ... People are entering in an industry with a business degree from one of the best BS in the UK, not HHE degree”*. Therefore, graduates having a business degree are more successful in the hospitality job market in the UK. As noted by participant B-004, *“graduates from [the name of the university A] tended to be more successful within the UK hospitality industry”*. The emphasis on employability is not confined to the hospitality sector alone but extends to broader employment prospects to other sectors or even study higher. Students are given more career options beyond the hospitality industry. In a sense, students are seeking degrees that equip them with the knowledge and skills necessary to excel in various management within the industry. As emphasised by participant A-002, *“a degree in HHE with HRM qualifies them to do HRM in other industries”*.

Besides, a focus on employability helps universities meet the demands of the hospitality industry. Four institutions recognise the need to produce graduates who can contribute to the industry growth, profitability and working conditions. This involves preparing students to be future managers and leaders in the sectors. In other words, the

purpose of education is to support the development of hospitality industry by providing qualified staff who can contribute to the industry's growth in terms of profit and working conditions. As participant A-002 shared,

"It became really about economic resources, how do you improve the product, how to get more people involved. Because if you are growing as an industry, you are creating more supply that always needs to be met with demand. The demand was there, so it is natural that it was kind of geared toward marketing and economics at that point. As we matured with the industry, we realised that it is unsustainable, cannot just grow and grow without actually looking at product quality. Obviously, we develop further from mass tourism. But the better we train them [students], the more they will enforce that change. In order for us to change the industry, we might as well look at education parts to driving that. So as an educator I would say it is more important to develop skills for students". (A-002)

7.3.2 Provide Specialised Knowledge for Competition

Secondly, the evolving job market, changing information landscape, and students' demands drive an emphasis on specialised education. Universities are expected to offer something beyond basic knowledge and practical training, providing students with a competitive edge. A crucial viewpoint offered by participant A-003 is the need for universities to provide specialised knowledge that differentiates them from other educational sources. Universities must offer something beyond what can be easily found on the internet or taught through practical training. The focus is one staying ahead of the competition, including industry-driven training, to provide students with a competitive edge. As shared by participant A-003, *"google or open universities are trying to award degrees which have not been recognized. What will happen to universities if industry can create their own degrees"*.

It is no longer adequate to provide only basis knowledge and practical training, instead, students demand specialised and practical knowledge that will genuinely benefit their future careers. Participant A-003 raised a concern,

“Education is becoming standardised and replicated homogenized. There might be a little bit of changes here and there. If you study the basics of HT courses to work in a hotel, anywhere you do, it is going to be roughly the same until you start working for a specific company. For example, the Intercontinental will do something differently than Marriott or Hilton, these are small differences and the hotel can bring you up to speed in a month. But what goes with a year BC degree cannot be taught to somebody in a month. By this trend of the industry offering, training and degrees and things of that is going to be the college's first and the universities at this at the next level” (A-003)

To illustrate the importance of specialisation, participant A-003 highlighted the notion of a *“purist university”* dedicated to enhancing knowledge for learners. *“The fight between specialisation and education continues. A purist university should be about bettering yourself as a human being” (A-003)*. However, the participant leans toward supporting specialisation within universities. The primary reason for this is to cater to the needs and demands of students seeking degrees as a means to secure employment in specific sectors. According to participant A-002, *“it is all about specialisation employability. Universities are going to deliver something on top of the practical stuff that others provide”*. While this shift is not unique to one specific program such as HT, it characterises the broader education sector. As he noted,

“Because I arrived, university started being run by managers and everything has to be run in a certain way. Education in general is all about specialization. This is not the symptom of university or our program, it is a symptom across the education sector”. (A-003)

Participant A-003 suggested, universities should shift their focus from being the sole repositories of specialised knowledge to providing knowledge and skills that

are not only valuable but also directly relevant to the industry and the ever-evolving job market.

“In the past, there was a certain information asymmetry. Unless you went to school or a university, you would never know anything about what to do with washing linen for your bed and breakfast. You would not know unless you went to a seminar or something like that right. Now, you can just google it. Things like environmental management systems, for example, or sustainability would be part of what you want to call and hospitality education. You are trying to be better for work”. (A-003)

Participant A-003 contended, *“people do not go to university for an education, they see university as a means to an end path”*. This view reflects the modern reality where universities are seen as stepping-stones to future careers rather than institutions of pure academic enrichment. Knowledge is no longer solely an academic pursuit, but a commodity designed for consumption. Participant A-003 aptly described it *“a package”* to serve the market and *“all in one”* product.

Participant A-003 illustrates how universities must demonstrate their value to students in terms of job prospects in England. As students pay significant fees, universities are expected to provide specialised knowledge and clear pathways to employability.

“Especially education, when you go to England, colleges and universities that are running programs at break-even point. If our numbers fell down, that the program is not going to exist. In England people pay a lot of fees. University education is more for job that is why they need to have specialization to show students, a clear pathway, you have to show them a clear pathway to employability that is their main concern”. (A-003)

The findings that HHE now produce knowledge is tailored to meet diverse demands of various stakeholders for employability and profitability for universities. As stated by Ayikoru, Tribe and Airey (2009, p. 198) and Kauppinen (2013) (see section 2.4), such knowledge is tacit knowledge and become legitimate in university education for commercialisation and market-oriented practices. This knowledge is not produced for traditional academic pursuit. In other words, as stated by Barnett (2005) and Giroux (2014), this knowledge is produced to serve private needs rather than public needs for knowledge development.

After the Dearing Report (1997), work-based learning has become an important part in teaching curriculum at university level in wider UK to support apprenticeship development and enhance employability (Foster and Stephenson, 1998). Scottish universities have responded to this agenda by incorporating work placements, internships, industry-led projects and start-ups to provide students with practical skills and promote their employability (British Council Scotland, 2021, p. 9). The findings align with previous findings. However, interestingly, the tacit knowledge is not only for the (immediate) employment, as stated by Hunter (2013) (see section 2.5.4 and 2.5.5) but rather being broader, as all-in-one product to cater different various stakeholders and also university competition with other institutions. The employability is now for students having business and management mindset to work at managerial roles, dealing with dynamic change of working place while improving university competition with other institutions. This practice illustrates the presence of the entrepreneurial university model driven by neoliberalism that emphasises in applied knowledge production rather academic approach to develop knowledge itself.

7.4 Hospitality Knowledge Network at Department/Academic Community Level

7.4.1 Actors

Seen from the process of knowledge production for hospitality in BS, actors involved in its knowledge network are academic staff and leaders. Leaders are the head of the school (i.e BS) or universities who have responsibilities to decide strategies for program provisions and educational models. Their opinions, hence, can impact the goals and target market of HHE programs. When there is a change or turnover in leadership positions, the relationships direction of HHE in terms of decisions on degree provision can change. As one participant shared,

“There was very rapid turnover in terms of heads of departments and line managers. I think I counted thirteen different heads of departments for the last five years, which has a big effect on what you can do. You cannot establish relationships with the line manager... leads to a lack of direction and support. What you start to see was a period of rapid change and perhaps have a look at the kind of degree offerings, then go back in time to the market” (B-002)

Leadership within universities have a significant role in shaping the evolution of subject content.

“If you have got research active leaders, it can positively influence the course content by being more up to date in the subject area and challenging dated perspectives on the subject”. (B-002).

Research-active leaders can ensure that course content remains up-to-date and challenge dated perspectives, thereby positively influencing the program.

“As well as being aware of guidance they would develop particular modules ... Leadership could be quite positive and influential ... for example, at [the name of institution A], you had leadership who is more research oriented and that made a big difference in terms of the quality of the undergraduate course”. (B-002)

Academic staff are teachers and program coordinators who have their autonomy in curriculum design and teaching HHE such as selecting teaching topics and pedagogies approaches for the curriculum. Evidently, at the undergraduate level, each discipline is typically led by a small group of lecturers who are responsible for teaching the respective subject. This structure shapes the way HHE programs are managed.

“It also comes down to the people you have running the program and our teaching on the program, not many staff ... This is across the faculty in general

because that is how the faculty operates because of the way the undergraduate degree works all this time”. (A-003)

Interestingly, the findings indicate hospitality academic community in BS are reduced to small groups because of the relocation of HHE into BS. Universities tend to keep staff having PhD level for teaching hospitality related programs while others with much professional working experiences in the industry left. For example, when the hotel school closed and its staff were integrated into the BS, the loss of faculty members with industry experience resulted in fewer experts to teach hospitality subjects. This shift altered the program’s identity. With fewer staff teaching hospitality and service modules, there was a reduction in the program’s focus on these specialised areas. *“When it was in BS, 70% of service staff teaching in the hotel school left, 30% spread across different departments ... there is less hospitality”* (B-004).

7.4.2 Non-human Actor

The findings show that, academic staff have to follow the credit requirements set for business and management degrees to decide what kind of knowledge is included and excluded in the curriculum for teaching HHE. *“We wanted 20 or 40 credit class on this topic but still have to follow the course on particular topics and designing”* (A-004). An illuminating contrast is evident when comparing business degrees in hospitality at institution A in BS with standalone hospitality degrees at University of Surrey, England. These disparities arise from the credit and course ranking criteria followed by these institutions. Following participant A-002, *“we cannot be recognised in many rankings as we do not have enough credits specific to hospitality and tourism”*. This is in stark contrast to a standalone hospitality program like the one provided by University of Surrey in England, which provides more a comprehensive understanding of the hospitality industry. As this participant highlighted, *“if you were to do your degree in Surrey, you get more general knowledge and skills related to the industry”* (A-002). These differences in program content reflect the primary focus of each university. While University of Surrey prioritises HHE in its curriculum, institution A emphasises business and management with a hospitality specialisation. Participant A-002 underscored this point, saying,

“This is because [University of Surrey] focuses on HHE as their main degree. That is not necessarily with [the name of institution A] if you aim to do a business degree with specialisation in a subject like HRM. What we are trying to do is give them a lot more nuanced, richer experience of learning in this specific field”.

Moreover, educational models for programs in the school context (i.e BS) plays a significant role on the way academic staff design curriculum for HHE. They have to build upon the historical development of existing course structures rather than starting from scratch. *“For the tourism management courses ... It builds on what we have done before”* (A-004). As shared by a senior staff member from institution A,

The model that the BS had been using for the last 20 years, we have not changed. For the hotel school to be part of that, they had to change ... Because it is how the undergraduate program works. (A-003)

7.4.3 Translation

This section uses four steps in translation process (see section 3.6.1.2) to explore how hospitality knowledge is constructed at department/ academic community level, specifically among the hospitality academic community in BS. This is done via examine the relationship between academic tribes (i.e academic staff and leaders) and non-human actors (e.g, knowledge force field, credit system, educational models in BS) to understand more about mode of knowledge production for hospitality.

7.4.3.1 Problematisation

Similar to the study by Fenwick and Edwards (2011), the findings show that, academic staff are focal actors responsible for deciding what subjects are taught, how curricula are designed, and which pedagogical approaches are employed for HHE at undergraduate level in BS. Their autonomy is a recurring theme among all participants, with educators being able to make choices about what topics and content are included in each module. As participant B-003 explained, *“we certainly have autonomy and can decide what content of our modules ... That is decided by our head of subject and program leader”*. Similarly, participant D-002 shared,

“You can make decisions, whereas other universities are probably much stricter that every course leader has to bring these things ... I speak to all my colleagues and my students and industry. But ultimately, the decision is tied to me”. (D-002)

Furthermore, educators have the flexibility to design their own teaching pedagogies and class activities based on their personal expertise and interests, educators can decide their own teaching pedagogies and class activities in classes to engage with students. *“I would say between us. The teaching approach is a personal choice ... on a micro level, the way people approach in classrooms”* (A-002)

In terms of curriculum design, academic staff always take into consideration stakeholders’ demands from students and industry when determining relevant teaching topics, and delivery methods depending on their expertise. In response to changing industry needs and emerging trends, academic staff always adapt their programs to a changing context by adding subjects that align with industry requirements. As participant B-002 emphasised, *“we review programs every two or three years, considering macro requirement like sustainability, circular economy, and big data”*. This responsive approach ensures that students are equipped to meet the contemporary challenges posed by the industry.

In the initial step of the translation process as problematisation, academic staff have to identify problems involving in their curriculum design. Academic staff understand that, nowadays universities pay more attention to especially student enrolment, funding and the cost of running program to improve profitability. The expansion of HE witnessed a trend of *“commercialisation”* as universities sought to generate profits by improving student enrolment. *“What you saw was HE expansion but also the commercialisation...generating income by maximising student number”* (B-002). The decisions related to course provision and operation are substantially influenced by cost and expenses consideration, according to the responses from participants. This holds particular importance in Scottish universities. Traditionally, hotel schools have been equipped with facilities such as training restaurants to provide students with practical training. However, the high costs associated with maintaining these facilities led universities to question the feasibility of offering courses with such

significant expenses. Institution A, known for its renowned hospitality education and high enrolment, made a cost-driven decision to close its hotel school, primarily due to the exorbitant operational costs.

“The cost of the trading restaurant was actually very high, the material cost and labour cost of running effectively a restaurant within an academic department ... The telescope was very good and had a very good reputation in research, it was not doing as well as the BS and university was expecting, and also the cost of the practical element. I think it was all of those things together that led to the decision to close the hotel school as a specialist department”.
(A-001)

A reduction in student enrolment combined with budget constraints are two main reasons leading to changes in course offering. For instance, practical kitchen training has been discontinued, as universities face difficulties in securing funding for kitchen upgrades and maintenance,

“That [the name of institution A] had kitchen. One of the reasons for the closure of the hotel school is, the kitchen needed to be upgraded and replaced because they were quite old and university did not want to fund that and the department was unsuccessful in attracting funding for replacement kitchen from other external sources”. (B-002)

Universities pay attention to student enrolment as it affects both the financial aspects, including profitability, and the expenses associated with program administration.

“In our university, you have to make the case to the university of management for the courses, and if I am really unfair on them, I would say, for them it is all about numbers of student and viability of courses. At a school level, you have got to make the case for hospitality in the same way that schools make the case

for media studies or fashion. Unless you are getting student numbers and the classes are large enough, we cannot run courses". (C-002)

Institution D also highlighted how the number of students significantly affect the feasibility and profitability of programs. If a program fails to attract sufficient students, universities must assess its viability. In some case, they may opt to discontinue specific courses or merge them to maintain feasibility. According to participant D-001, *"it largely comes down to student numbers, if a program is not attracting students, we have to look at whether that program is feasible"*.

Similar to the study by Lugosi and Jameson (2017), the findings show that academic staff find challenges in producing hospitality knowledge for HHE, i.e how to design teaching curriculum to fit into the BS context while still keeping the identity of HHE as a vocational subject. Evidently, as becoming part of BS, the curriculum for HHE underwent changes to ensure parity with other business subjects. A participant B-002 expresses this *"the argument is that if we are part of BS, we have to offer a degree with the same quality as other business degrees"*. The challenges of establishing the academic worth of practical training were noted, especially in comparison with traditional academic subjects as accounting. Participant B-002 elaborated, *"it is difficult for us to argue learning how to develop skills in a kitchen is worthy of academic credit equal to sitting in a classroom learning how to do accounting"*. This shift has influenced the reduction in practical training and industrial placement in the hospitality program, as pointed out by the same participant,

"The other change has been a move to reducing industrial placement....students can choose whether to do that or something else. So there has been a real cut in practical skills and requirements to gain industry experience". (B-002)

7.4.3.2 Interestment

Regarding this step, academic staff have to negotiate with other actors in the process of designing curriculum, in this case they are leaders of schools. Evidently, there are differences in what leaders and academic staffs focus on for this matter. Deans or vice principals mainly focus on financial matters. *"Deans, principles and*

vice principals, all these people have got their eye on the financial bottom line all the time” (B-003). Their perspective can significantly impact the provision of teaching modules, particularly those involving practical training. Meanwhile, academic staff focus on the relevance of the program to students’ learning. *“My experience as an academic staff, I focused on the academic benefit for students and for the degree quality” (B-003).* For instance, when selecting subjects from BS offerings for hospitality curriculum, a course leader decided against including a globalisation module, deeming it not sufficiently relevant to students’ learning and career prospects. Instead, the course leader focused on subjects like finance and entrepreneurship, which were considered more valuable for future employment. *“BS runs a whole range of modules ... I look at them and choose the ones that I think are more relevant to my students within hospitality” (D-002).*

When academic staff have ideas of what can be taught in order to bring academic benefits for student learning, they need to discuss with leaders. However, if these teaching ideas is costly in terms of module operation or provision, leaders might reject these ideas. This dynamic underscore the tension between academic quality and financial constraints.

“There are cases that we may come up with ideas things we want to do and we get turned down at a higher level for maybe financial or resource reasons and I personally value the academic quality side of it. And for me, it is about how we make this degree appropriate for the students, valuable for the students, that they are learning something that they are going out with an understanding of the discipline and an ability to work in management within that discipline”.

(B-003)

7.4.3.3 Enrolment

Enrolment involves the alignment of actors’ interests with the network to understand what interest is more important.

Section 7.1 presents findings about how external factors influence the provision of HHE via the perceptions of academic staff. At a macro level, how the government views the industry’s role can significantly impact the number of student

enrolment and courses provided at universities. Interestingly, the findings indicate that recently, the government does not well recognise the industry's vital contributions to job creations and economic profitability, resulting in a decline in student enrolments. Stakeholders' demands, including those of students and the industry, still play a central role in deciding the relevance of HHE. Academic staff all agree that they closely look at recruitment trends, changing types and scales of industry and students' feedback to decide what topics for teaching in each module. The aim is to provide up-to-date knowledge that aligns with current trends and issues that the industry is facing. In addition, professional groups such as CHME tend to have less influence in shaping the provision of HHE. Some institutions as institution B used to strictly adhere to CHME guidelines. However, currently universities tend to look at these benchmarks for skill equivalence to design programs according to different levels. Section 7.2 illustrates the competitive landscape of university education which drives institutions to focus on their market position for competition.

To this point, academic staff understand the impact of management gaze in this negotiating process. The findings indicate that universities now pay more attention to internal factors (i.e profit and cost) than external factors (i.e stakeholder demands) when it comes to decide the provision of HHE. Notably, institution A provides a prime example where they decided to close its hotel school, which once attracted a substantial number of students. The reason was due to an excellent review conducted as part of an internal audit to assess research quality across different departments in institution A. At that time, this university prioritised research quality over student numbers, aspiring to evaluate its academic ranking toward a more research-intensive university. This perspective is shared by participant A-001, who discussed the university's decision to close a hotel school in 2005, despite its previous success:

“Probably the most recent history of [the name of institution A] delivering hospitality management as a program, both the most influential and perhaps the least influential is industry. The reason why I say that is, when the decision was taken to close the hotel school...To a large extent, the decision was driven by the internal decision of the university and pragmatism, rather than industry or student demands ... That is not to say there is not some influence with

student demand, obviously because they probably would not retain it...It is never quite been the same as it was when we had a definite identity within a specific department”.

Participants suggest that universities often make pragmatic decisions focused on cost-saving measures. One staff member pointed out that the decision to close hotel schools can be seen as a practical choice driven by the expense of running such programs. However, these decisions, while pragmatic, have faced criticism from industry and students, especially when the hotel school was thriving in terms of student enrolment. The universities chose a practical approach by integrating hospitality into the BS, maintaining the program’s name but not necessarily its identity. According to participant A-001,

“In the period after hotel schools was immediately. It became a much more pragmatic decision. We kept a name degree because that kept some people happy as closing hotel school upset people ... One level, the university must have thought it just made sense to just finish. But strangely enough, the reason why they did not do that was industry and the outcry from people in the industry. But we ended up carrying on with the name degree, but it has never quite been the same. In that sense, even though industry probably made sure that degree continued as a name degree strange do it”.

In parallel, institution B assessed the academic rigor of vocational education, striving to ascertain if it could meet the academic standards compared with other established subjects in BS. The assessment challenged the demonstration of vocational education of HHE, especially in comparison to subjects such as accounting. Ultimately, the university decided to reduce these modules or outsource them from colleges. Other universities have carried out such internal review, with their focus varying between different factors. For example, institution D considered the cost of running associated with operating on-campus facilities used provide for vocational training, particularly restaurants for hospitality programs.

If Farooq (2018) argues that HEIs are not solely profit driven business but rather have responsibilities toward stakeholders (see section 2.5.3), universities in Scotland now have autonomy to in decision-making and self-managing as public units which is relevant to their own history of establishment and visions. Such findings are similar to Field (2013)'s result. In a sense, at an institutional level, universities have their autonomy to make academic decisions, including moving the location of programs among schools or changing degrees. The findings also illustrate that, under the impact of neoliberalism, universities in Scotland also run for profit. Even though the model can be different with that in England following students fee and profit-making mechanism as stated by participant A-003, universities in Scotland are driven by market competition and managerialism similar as in England.

7.4.3.4 Mobilisation

Mobilisation involves being prepared for action, with the focal actor assuming the role of representative for network actors and mobilising them into action. Departments manage and deliver teaching and research activities. Academics at department level have their autonomy to decide curriculum topics and teaching pedagogy styles.

Academic staff' decision on curriculum design has to balance out external stakeholders' demand (i.e students, industry, government, professional groups) and internal factors (i.e university strategies on ranking, quality, and profit) to uphold program quality. According to participant B-003:

“Because it keeps our quality. How much is a challenge to achieve that and to make sure we are reaching that properly. You were asked to be evidence based. We have to show that we have looked at external market, we have expertise to do what we want to do among staff. We have communicated engaged with the student body to find out what they think of what we are planning or that we are reacting to things that have come through from them ... We have looked at what other universities are doing to justify why we are doing this or doing something different. We have to explain why what our businesses for that”. (B

One staff member emphasised the importance of being student-focused, underlining the significance of engaging with students and responding to their feedback.

“I have not mentioned students up till now, but it is really important that we are student-focused and we are responding to their feedback. If we are doing something because we think it is an improvement that we engage with the student body. First of all, to see what their thoughts are on it”. (B-003)

Academic staff, while having some influence over program content, are often constrained by the university’ predetermined models, leaving limited room for flexibility. As illustration of this limitation is provided by a senior staff member from institution A, *“some class and programs, you did not have too much flexibility because of accreditation”* (A-003). Interestingly, the findings above show that the position where HHE is located has increasingly influence in the provision of HHE programs and the practice of academic staff in designing curriculum. One outstanding example is that, apart from generic business and management modules, both business and management degree in hospitality programs introduce subjects such as leadership and sustainability. The incorporation of leadership and sustainability into the core curriculum of HHE has become a dominant part and established practice within BS. These subjects are integrated into the core of every degree offered within BS, reflecting the commitment to providing students with a comprehensive education that aligns with industry demands and contemporary challenges. These subjects are essential to address critical gaps in the hospitality and tourism industry, such as leadership skills and sustainable business practices. The provision of leadership subjects serves the purpose of addressing gaps in the HT industry, focusing on competencies such as leadership skills and sustainable business practices, as participant A-002 elucidated. The goal is to *“fill in the leadership gap that usually happens”* in the industry and provide students with the skills necessary to management business sustainably. This addition of leadership subject into teaching curriculum for hospitality is reflective of universities’ commitment to aligning their offerings with the evolving needs of the industry.

At institution B, sustainability is a standalone module designed for fourth-year students, which specifically crafts into the knowledge and skills required to manage hospitality businesses sustainably. Participant B-003 explained,

“We have a fourth-year module with specific about sustainability in hospitality. We also have contemporary issues modules for all three of our subject areas, enabling students to explore real-time industry developments. This approach aims to provide students with a deep understanding of management of hospitality operation, which they do not get from a generic business management degree”.

Academic staff recognise the importance of these aspects in the development of some industries such as the tourism sector. As participant A-004 highlighted,

We are realising sustainability is becoming really important for tourism. The unique positioning of our department, which has historically focused on management and leadership, allows us to seamlessly provide these emerging aspects.

Similarly, participant B-003 explained the strategy adopted by their institution, *“we introduce sustainability hospitality because it is such a huge thing these days”.*

Leadership and sustainability become core subjects for all business and management degrees provided in BS. They are embedded in the curricula across various programs, ensuring that students gain a well-rounded understanding of the principles underpinning management and leadership. This approach guarantees that they are well-prepared to excel in their future roles, whether within the hospitality and tourism industry or in other professional spheres.

In addition of leadership and sustainability has emerged as a central feature of HHE programs. It is noteworthy that leadership has transitioned from being a generic management subject to an applied subject with specific relevance to the hospitality industry. In line with this, sustainability has become an integral component of all HT courses, effectively imbibing a culture of sustainability throughout the curriculum.

Institution D, for example, integrates leadership as a generic management subject, imparted across various degree programs in the BS, including those in the field of hospitality. As explained by participant D- 002, *“our own management leadership is more generic subject, it needs to be more applied in hospitality.”*

In generally, academic staff have to follow structure (i.e credit system and educational model) in BS.

“There is a certain level of credits ... as a management course, which will include management modules ... what happens if I want to make any significant changes ... I have to go to school academic board ... there is a regulation that says we have to have a minimum number of credits for management”. (D-001)

As shared by academic staff, following credit system and BS education model seem more important as the stakeholder demand (i.e industry and students) is changing and hard to follow.

“Following the guidelines of faculty at the moment seems to be the most important thing ... what drives decisions ... what we can practically do to make sure that we meet the basic requirements” (A-004)

7.5 Chapter of Summary

This chapter explores the process of providing degrees and designing curricula, focusing on the factors that influence knowledge production in the hospitality field. It delves into the decision-making processes at the department/ academic community level regarding curriculum design aimed at fostering knowledge production. The next chapter summarises the theoretical contribution of this thesis based on the research findings.

Chapter 8: Theoretical Contribution to Disciplinary and Postdisciplinary Thinking to Hospitality in Business School

The theoretical contribution of this thesis constitutes a pivotal exploration into the dynamics of hospitality knowledge production in BS. Previous chapters (5, 6, 7) discuss the findings in relation to literature review. This chapter focuses on theoretical implications to disciplinary and postdisciplinary thinking toward hospitality in BS.

Theoretical contributions can be in four types, theory synthesis, theory adaptation, typology, and model (Jaakkola, 2020, p. 21). The theoretical contribution of this research falls into the category of theory synthesis. It involves summarising and integrating existing knowledge about the research phenomenon. In this case, the thesis acknowledges tourism research has extensively examined knowledge system since the early 1980s. Whereas the field of hospitality studies has traditionally emphasised curriculum approach, skills and competencies to meet the industry demand for job-ready graduates over the nuanced exploration of its own knowledge production in specific context such as universities.

This thesis aims to leverage the comprehensive insights garnered from tourism studies on its knowledge system to construct a robust theoretical framework for understanding hospitality knowledge production in BS context. Drawn on seminal works such as those by Tribe and Liburd (2016) on tourism knowledge system, alongside with institutionalised knowledge production perspectives by Airey *et al.*, (2015); Ateljevic *et al.*, (2007); Belhassen and Caton (2009); Munar (2016); and Ren, Van der Duim and Jóhannesson (2018), the thesis integrates theories of disciplines, concepts of knowledge force field and knowledge network. This integration is crucial for comprehending the social construction of knowledge at an institutional level, specifically at school and department/ academic community level where operational knowledge network plays pivotal roles yet are less understood. Moreover, the thesis further employs ANT to seek deeper understanding about hospitality knowledge production department and academic community level.

8.1 The Status of Hospitality Management Education in Business School

8.1.1 Knowledge Force Field for Hospitality in Business School

Following Tribe and Liburd (2016), knowledge force field includes person, ideology, position, government and global capital (see section 3.4.3.3).

The government impacts the process of hospitality knowledge production in four chosen universities through funding which directly influences the provision of vocational education and the need to add more academic education into the curriculum. Such impact consequently drives universities to change their degree provision of hospitality programs. For global capital, monetary influences drive changes in HE, making universities run for profit, which significantly impact the purpose of university education. That is to produce knowledge to meet the demand of the market to gain profit, not to just produce knowledge for itself.

At a national level, it is apparent that ideology (i.e neoliberalism and consumerism) exerts powerful influence on knowledge production at universities in Scotland, mirroring trends observed in England. This impact manifests in the form of university managerialism, characterised by entrepreneurialism and competition. Universities increasingly run as business entities which aim to produce knowledge for profit. It profoundly influences the perspective of leadership in institutions, thereby impacting the goals set for educational programs, including HHE and the practice that academic staff must adhere to for producing hospitality knowledge for teaching. The degree provision for HHE, consequently is market-driven that requires the knowledge production to meet stakeholders' demand such as students and industry.

At a school level as BS, the impact of position (i.e schools) plays an important part in knowledge production for hospitality. Credit system and business education models set by BS influences academic staff on how to design teaching curriculum and activities. It decides what knowledge to be included, in this case, it favours the management aspect of hospitality.

At the department and academic community level, persons such as academic staff or leaders have different interests in knowledge production for HME in BS. Evidently, the impact of management gaze influences over the practice of academic staff. Previous studies (i.e Tribe and Liburd, 2016) indicated that in tourism research, elders or influential figures within academic tribes act as gatekeepers in determining what constitutes legitimate knowledge and research directions. However, drawn from

the findings, this practice is not visible in BS. The findings from section 7.4.1 indicate that leaders of universities and schools act as the elders whose ideas have a significant impact on the process of hospitality knowledge production. They determine what knowledge is produced, and for what purpose via setting strategies, degree provisions and the purposes of educational programs.

The research findings above make a significant contribution by reinforcing and extending existing literature on knowledge force field knowledge. The findings related to ideology, government and capital force aligns with Barnett's (2010) concept of the entrepreneurial university, Ayikoru *et al.*'s (2015) exploration of neoliberal impacts on HT education, Lugosi and Jameson's (2016) analysis of challenges posed by government and capital forces to the provision of HHE in universities. Besides, the findings related to two forces, position (i.e BS) and person (i.e. academic tribe) can be seen as new insights that the thesis contribute to the existing literature on HHE and knowledge production at specific contexts. They highlight the contextual status of HHE at specific institutional context that is well unexplored before.

8.1.2 The Status of Hospitality Management Education in Business School

This section summarises emerging trends for HME in BS based on the findings in chapter 5. Overall, HHE in BS has undergone major changes in vocational, specialised education and the approach of HME. The nature of hospitality knowledge has been modified to fit into BS context. The table 8 below summarises the difference between the findings and the literature.

Table 8: Differences between HHE in the literature and the research findings

Literature	Findings
1. Vocational education	
Ladkin (2000); Morrison and O'Mahony (2002); Alexander, Lynch and Murray (2009): there should be a move from technical skill to management skill education	Focus on management skills to prepare graduates for managerial positions

Tews and Van Hoof (2011): A traditional vocational subject, a “ <i>workforce training program</i> ”	Being seen as a sub-management subject and an academic subject in BS
Baum (2012): a focus on practical training to attract industry and students	Vocational education focuses on management education, providing students with general business and management knowledge and expanding hospitality management for broader employability
Lugosi and Jameson (2017): a reduction or even the cessation of traditional practical and hands-on education; having uncertainty about vocational hospitality subject in HE	• The loss is necessary and pragmatic development • To differentiate the level of education in university and college education • Need to be equal to other management subjects in BS such as accounting
2. Specialised education	
Nailon (1982), Slattery (2002); Jones (2004); Alexander, Lynch and Murray (2009) Tews and Van Hoof (2011): a standalone hospitality degree in separated hotel schools	• Become a faculty degree in BS • Become a pathway degree in BS • BS provide joint degrees integrated with other subjects such as accounting, HRM, and marketing
Slattery (2002, 2003): a specialised education in hospitality	Specialised in business and management in hospitality
Brotherton and Wood (2000): hospitality is seen as similar as other business and management subjects in BS, only the context is different	Hospitality is integrated with business and management subject, not separated or isolated as in hotel schools
Airey and Tribe (2000), Lugosi <i>et al.</i> (2009), Lashley, 2013):	Has critical thinking, analysis in teaching curricula

advocate for critical thinking, reflective and creative thinking	
Jones (1996), Brotherton and Wood (2000), Dale and Robinson (2001), Lashley (2008): call for differentiation among tourism and hospitality	• Hospitality is now seen as sub-management subject • Highlight the private and social aspects of hospitality to make it different with other services including tourism
Pritchard and Morgan (2007); Wood (2015a, b): concerns about the dominant of HME, worrying about the narrow scope of hospitality management	Teaching private and social aspects of hospitality, not narrowing to hotel and catering
Jones (2004), Morrison and Lynch (2007), O'Mahony (2015): the commercial aspect of hospitality is limited to key services like food, drink, and accommodation.	• HME is expanded to encompass a broader service industry, not limited to hotel and catering • Teaching different types of hospitality services, ranging from corporation, same and medium-size, to private business
Lugosi (2009); Lehto <i>et al.</i> , (2022) call for a move from hospitality management toward hospitality studies to enhance the generation of hospitality knowledge	• Hospitality management is the main approach for HME in BS. • There is a transition to hospitality studies when social sciences, arts or humanity are taught in BS. However, knowledge from social sciences focus on improving customer services. While knowledge from arts and humanity sciences focus on the impact of hospitality in people' lives and culture.

	• There is no sign of teaching theoretical hospitality knowledge such as security in relation to host-guest relationship.
--	---

Source: From the author's data analysis result

This following section explains the theoretical contribution of the research to disciplinary and post-disciplinary thinking to hospitality knowledge production in BS. The focus is on the intellectual, social and organisational characteristic of disciplinary approach to hospitality.

8.2 The Intellectual Characteristic of Hospitality Knowledge

8.2.1 Mode 1 Knowledge Production

Gibbons *et al.*, (1993) introduce mode 1 and 2 knowledge production. The findings above show that mode 1 remains dominant to generate knowledge for HME in BS. Mode 1 defines subject area and mode of knowledge inquiry based on hierarchical, homogeneous, and discipline-based boundaries. The hierarchical aspect is evident in the structured academic framework- business and management degree in hospitality- impacting the disciplinary approach to generate hospitality knowledge. The homogeneous aspect is reflected in the choice of HME approach and focus on business and management aspect of hospitality over philosophical aspect. It leads to the academic status of hospitality subject as similar as with other business and management in BS.

In educational institutions, disciplines are associated with the subjects taught to students, although not every subject at university qualified as a discipline (Jacobs, 2014, p. 9). Regarding the intellectual characteristic of discipline, numerous scholars (Meyer, 1977; Post, 2009; Weingart, 2010; Trowler; 2014) have supported to view disciplines as a means to categorise knowledge in an educational context, setting the practices of how knowledge is obtained, validated, applied, safeguarded, and perpetuated. It defines legitimate boundaries for subject areas with the associated body of knowledge, disciplines play a crucial role in shaping the modes of knowledge production (Brooker and Joppe, 2017) among academic communities at faculty or department level (Darbellay, 2019 a, b).

Evidently, discipline still becomes the main source to define subject areas for HME in BS. Knowledge generated for hospitality courses comes from business, social

sciences, arts and humanities sciences. There is a move away from solely traditional hospitality disciplinary boundaries toward greater integration with other sciences to create hospitality knowledge. There is an integration in generate knowledge from these sciences, which lies in the dominant approach of HME. Whatever knowledge created to teach HME, it has to fit into the dominant hospitality management approach because hospitality is seen as a sub-management subject in BS, not like cultural subjects in other schools. There is no sign of using a multidisciplinary approach because there is an integration among all disciplines used to generate knowledge taught for HME. The focus on management aspect of hospitality to fit into management style in BS means, there is a base for an integration. There is no sign of a transdisciplinary approach as the finding shows that hospitality management and hospitality studies are the main approach to generate knowledge for HME.

The findings show that there are differences between knowledge creation for hospitality as a discipline in research and for hospitality as a subject in BS. These differences are summarised in table 9. In general, in hospitality research, scholars as Lugosi (2009) suggest incorporating hospitality management and hospitality studies to develop the intellectual independence of hospitality discipline. This practice is not the same in the educational contexts as in BS. The interdisciplinary approach is presented as a practical solution to help HHE fit into BS, highlighting the need for flexibility and integration.

Table 9: Differences between hospitality as a discipline in research and hospitality as a subject in BS

Hospitality as a discipline in research	Hospitality as a sub-management subject in BS
Lashley, Lynch and Morrison (2007), Lynch <i>et al.</i> , (2011): The introduction of three-domain framework helps to hospitality as a social lens that encompasses social relations, spatial configurations and power structures.	Teaching three aspects of hospitality helps students understand hospitality as a service industry. However, the service is different with others such as accounting based on the private and social aspect linked with host-guest relationship.

Morrison and O’Gorman (2008): provide examples of using social sciences to study hospitality. Anthropology observes hospitality practices in specific cultural contexts; archaeology studies historical hospitality structures; and gender studies delves into the role of sociability and physical attractiveness in the hospitality industry. Philosophy endeavours to uncover the reality and principles that underlie hospitality as a phenomenon while social history investigates the social role of hospitality, particularly community formation.	Social sciences are used to understand customer behaviours, the culture impact on the provision of hospitality services. The aim is to improve the management aspect of hospitality.
Lugosi (2009): embraces an interdisciplinary approach where hospitality management moves toward hospitality studies, utilising disciplines such as history, gender studies, philosophy to understand hospitality.	Embrace an interdisciplinary approach with broader business and management subject to improve the status of hospitality subject, to make it equivalent to other business and management subjects in BS.

Source: From the author’s data analysis result

Trowler (2014) underscores the distinction between discipline as research and discipline as curriculum, highlighting the need to consider diverse sites of disciplinary practice within universities. The findings indicate that education is viewed as business, with students becoming customers paying for the knowledge production process. The practice of interdisciplinary approach for hospitality in BS highlights a response to the interests of external stakeholders rather than purely academic motivations. The approach is driven by market demand rather than expanding knowledge for its own sake.

As Airey (2005) observes, interdisciplinary knowledge for tourism research is not easy to be created because it requires a longer process within the academic

community and depends on the maturity of tourism as an academic field. Interestingly, the evidence of using interdisciplinary approach in this study demonstrates how hospitality can be successfully integrated into business and management subjects in BS. This approach challenges the traditional notion of maintaining rigid disciplinary boundaries for hospitality as a separated subject. It allows for a more fluid and integrative approach for hospitality subject in BS. This is unlike the research context where scholars have worked to develop hospitality as a distinct academic discipline, separating from other disciplines as tourism as in study by Echtner and Jamal (1997) and Tribe (1997). The interdisciplinary approach is not to make hospitality separated with other subjects in BS, not as a serious field of scientific inquiry as hospitality scholars (i.e Morrison, 2002) aim to make. As stated by Tribe (2006) and Lugosi (2009), there are existing gatekeepers and institutional forces for perpetuating particular notions of hospitality research. The findings indicate that the location of HHE in BS is an important challenge impacting the approach to generate hospitality knowledge.

8.2.2 Mode 2 Knowledge Production

The knowledge generated for HME in BS is not purely scientific knowledge. Hard science related to food and drink production is not evident in teaching curriculum for HME. The findings from section 6.3 indicate that problem-based knowledge is the primary knowledge for teaching HME compared to value-based, web 2 or indigenous knowledge generated via mode 2. Such knowledge is generated in university context and provided to students via teaching activities such as consultancy projects, placements, field trips and guest speaker sessions. For students in year 1 and 2, stimulated games are used to replace practical training modules in some institutions. Students are presented with artificial circumstance to manage a hotel or restaurant, making decisions related to service quality and customer satisfaction. In year 3, students engage in live projects where they act as consultants for real organisations, addressing specific issues in the hospitality industry. They collect and analyse data and propose practical solutions. These projects are typically linked with local companies such as bars, event venues or hotels.

Academic staff have closed links with industry and the society to create knowledge. Evidently, teaching activities such as placement, field trips and guest

speakers provide students with up-to-date information about industry developments, ensuring that they remain informed about the evolving hospitality landscape. To this point, the approach to generate knowledge for teaching HME in BS is consistent with the works of Tribe (1997, 1999) and Gibbons *et al.*, (1994). These scholars underscore the influence of extra-disciplinary knowledge in HT, drawing from variety of sources, including “*industry, government, think tanks, interest groups, research institutes and consultancies*” (Tribe, 1999, p103). Similar as observation by Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons (2001), knowledge generated via mode 2 requires academic staff to go beyond disciplinary boundaries to incorporate ideas from external stakeholders as industry or non-academic organisations. Based in the finding in section 7.1 (knowledge force field), table 10 below explains details of mode 2 knowledge production for hospitality in BS as compared with the literature.

Table 10: Summarise the difference between mode 2 knowledge production in literature and from the findings

Mode 2 of knowledge production from literature	Mode 2 of knowledge production for hospitality in BS from the findings
Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons (2003): mode 2 knowledge is socially robust	• Meet the demand of industry for management and business knowledge and competencies • Meet diverse demands of students who seek education for employability • Meet the requirement Scottish national curriculum for skill equivalence • Meet the requirement of CHME for skill equivalence • Maintain the identity of HHE for vocational education

	• Universities provide specialised knowledge which is different with others for competition
Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons (2003): Application, relevance, contextualisation for knowledge production	• Provide students with applied knowledge to solve real-world problems • Provide knowledge relevant to the view that hospitality is a sub-management subject • Knowledge is seen as a product to meet the demand of all stakeholders • A balance between academic and applied education
Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons (2003): Knowledge production is dispersed outside the academy in broader social contexts and occurs in diverse centres both in academy and community	• Knowledge is produced in universities • Academic staff considers industry and student demand, courses provided by other universities, leaders' perspective, internal excellent review • Universities control the quality of knowledge production via excellent review, credit and ranking • Academic staff tried to balance all the demand of stakeholders

Source: From the author's data analysis result

Up to this point, mode 2 knowledge production for hospitality in BS demonstrates a shift toward socially robust practices where academics staff balance multiple stakeholders' demands. Unlike traditional curriculum approach influenced mainly by industry perspectives (i.e. Koh's curriculum approach in section 4.1.1), this mode integrates broader social needs, emphasising transdisciplinary collaboration and practical application in education. While the relevance of HHE remains important, its focus expands beyond industry and students' demand. Internal factors now play a larger role in shaping the quality of this knowledge, which is rigorously controlled to enhance university competitiveness.

8.2.3 A Transition to Post-disciplinary Approach

Mode 1 still remains important to generate hospitality knowledge. However, the findings indicate a transition to postdiscipline to create knowledge. Coles, Hall and Duval (2005, 2006) acknowledges this transition allows for greater openness, plurality and complexity in knowledge production for hospitality in BS. The findings indicate the sign of openness and complexity.

The openness is evident in the efforts of academic staff to transcend their hospitality disciplinary boundaries to embrace mode 2 knowledge production. They not only integrate research into their teaching (see section 6.2.4) but also develop a close link with the industry and practitioners to update themselves with what is happening outside the academic world. This allows them to incorporate current industry issues into teaching topics, providing up-to-dated information for students. Students are then required to use theories and concepts learnt in class to analyse these issues. The findings in section 6.4 highlight a balance between academic and applied education for HME in BS.

Darbellay (2019 a, b) outlines four scenarios for transforming from disciplinary to post-disciplinary (see section 3.5.2). Evidently, the openness in generating knowledge to teach HME in BS suggests scenario 2 is likely taking place in BS. Scenario 2 represents a high level of disciplinarisation based on a very strict definition of what constitutes a discipline. Clearly, there is a strong emphasis on disciplinarisation (i.e business and management approach) to determine what knowledge is taught for a hospitality subject in an academic school as BS. In this rigid framework, hospitality discipline comprises sub-disciplines. Simultaneously, there is

a framework of commercial, private and social dimension of hospitality taught to expand the scope of HME. Industry knowledge is also utilised to generate problem-based knowledge about hospitality. This is to mitigate the internal homogeneity of hospitality subjects as compared with other established subjects in BS. The transition toward postdiscipline initiates a process of change by directly impacting the disciplinary boundaries for producing knowledge for hospitality subject.

Pernecky, Munar and Wheeler (2016) argue that postdisciplinarity can address complex issues that exceed the explanatory capacity of a single discipline. The findings in section 7.3 highlight that knowledge is now seen as a product universities provide to satisfy the demand of different stakeholders. Evidently, academic staff are primarily concerned with shaping the program identity, particularly in terms of vocational education and enhancing students' employability. They wrestle with whether vocational education for HHE can be viewed equally to that of other subjects as accounting, and how to develop management education as the vocational focus of HHE. In contrast, the leadership prioritises the cost-efficiency of programs operations, closely tied to student enrolment and program quality. Students, on the other hand, seek knowledge and skills that will enable them to pursue different jobs, further study or apply for management roles. Hospitality scholars in BS continue to enhance the relevance of HHE lying in vocational education. At the same time, they must understand the market demand for knowledge production and the institutional impact, such as leadership, on the knowledge production. This multifaceted approach reflects the complexity of balancing academic rigour, market needs, and institutional priorities.

8.3 The Social Characteristic of Hospitality Knowledge

Evidently, the hospitality academic staff community in BS makes up a small group as compared to the community of other established subjects (see section 4.6.1). They typically hold advanced degrees such as Master of philosophy, MBA or doctoral degrees. The doctoral degrees span various fields, including hospitality and tourism, educational research and pedagogy, human resource management, human geography and highland games. The area of specialty by these academic staff are classified into general categories of academic disciplines, fields and subjects. Some participants' specialities can be further categorised into sub-areas such as HRM, marketing, human geography, critical hospitality education. Regardless of hospitality academic staff's

intension to expand scope of hospitality knowledge taught for HME, they have to follow the whole BS which favours business and management approach to teach subjects. In means, the academic validity of hospitality subject is less decided by traditional hospitality academic community as a department but more toward the school level such as BS.

In terms of the social constructs of disciplines, each discipline has its unique knowledge properties, which shape its cultural characteristics among disciplinary practitioners (Becher and Trowler, 2001). The findings indicate an adaptive movement among academic staff in BS, who have worked to fit into BS contexts and accept changes. In this sense, hospitality academic staff have to blend their culture with the BS. Such findings provide a counter-narrative to concerns of Lugosi and Jameson (2017) about losing identity and uncertainty about the future of HHE in BS. It highlights the proactive strategies employed by academic staff to integrate and thrive within BS, offering a new perspective on adaptability and resilience in academic settings.

As stated by prevision section (section 2.5), teaching and research practices in HEIs in the UK are subjective to dynamic changes in terms of funding and competition. Knowledge production in universities is driven by market demand from external stakeholders as students, industry and governments. Continuing observation by Zhang (2019), the socialisation of academic disciplines make it not fixed entities, rather, as a dynamic space relationally shaped by the interactions between disciplinary knowledge, disciplinary culture and its academic tribe. It is true for hospitality academic community when its dynamic is driven by management gaze, credit system and educational model belonging to BS.

8.4 The Organisational Characteristic of Hospitality Knowledge

The third way to understand disciplines can be linked with the organisational and institutional aspect (Chettiparamb, 2007). According to Jacobs (2014, p. 27-28), discipline is seen as “*a broadly accepted field of study*” institutionalised “*as a degree-granting department*” in universities. However, in BS, hospitality discipline does not have much impact on the mode of knowledge production for hospitality. Seen from the knowledge force field, the position (i.e schools and departments) plays an important role in deciding what knowledge to teach for HHE. Besides, the transition

to post-disciplinary thinking to hospitality (section 8.2.3) reveals the losing impact of hospitality discipline.

Schraub (2013) highlights that academic legacy tends to prioritise certain perspective over others, influencing the dominant views within the field. For hospitality knowledge production at university level, there exists the academic legitimacy where scholarly work is increasingly influenced by corporate-like structures that emphasise annual output and performance metrics. This trend, noted similarly by Morrison (2018) and Schweinsberg (2024), reflects “*instrumentalised*” approach to academic practice, driven by power dynamics that can constrain academic freedom in teaching and research. The findings once again emphasise the impact of management gaze, which shape mode 1 of knowledge production for hospitality.

According to Schraub (2013, p. 71), academic freedom is “*content-neutral*” and does not judge the correctness of views. The findings indicate that, hospitality academic staff have autonomy in decide teaching curriculum for hospitality in terms of teaching topics, and actively engaging in research to generate knowledge for teaching. However, they cannot just add any hospitality knowledge especially in terms of philosophical or ethical knowledge to the existing business and management degrees in hospitality. The findings in section 7.5 indicate that the curriculum design for HHE in BS has become a nuanced and multifaceted process. Academic staff are now required to meticulously balance external and internal factors, effectively engaging in a balancing act to ensure program quality. This involves assessing the relevance of subjects and teaching content to meet the demand of students and industry while considering other factors such as university strategies of ranking and competition. A balancing act is an example of how academic staffs address complex issues related to such knowledge force field involved in hospitality knowledge system in BS. Unlike being the content neutral as observed by Schraub (2013), academic freedom in this case is political driven under the impact of academic legitimacy.

Knowledge network for hospitality in Business School

Evidently, the process of hospitality knowledge production becomes complex because of the involvement of both human, academic tribes (i.e teaching staff) and leaders, and non-human actors as credit and ranking system. They all create a network system, as stated by Tribe and Liburd (2016), which impacts hospitality knowledge

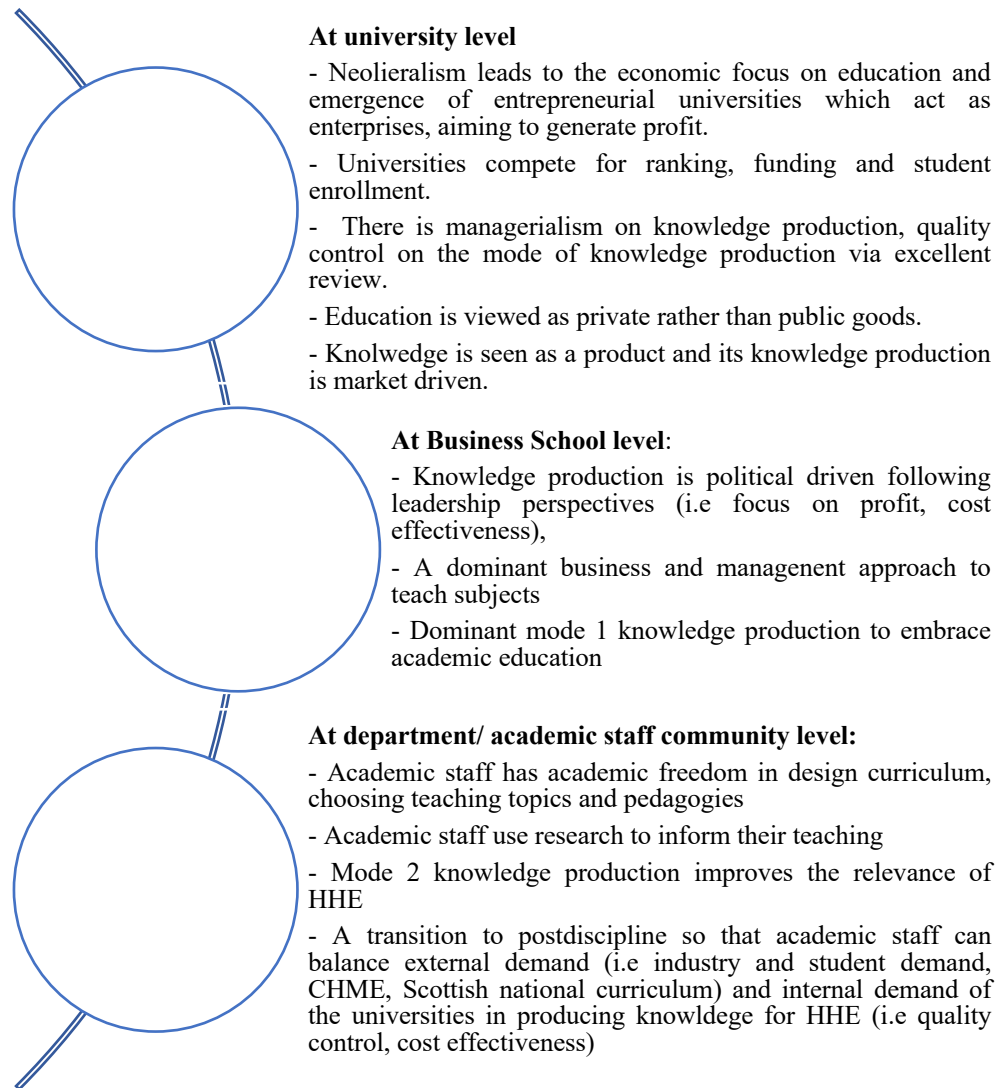
system in BS. Each factor leads to certain way of knowing knowledge, resulting in multiple ways of knowing that traditional knowledge production from traditional academic boundary cannot address.

Drawing from ANT literature, primary actors assume pivotal roles as drivers within the translation process (Tomazos & Murdy, 2023). They define their own interests and roles while also assigning roles to others. This process involves persuading others to adopt their roles defined for them, thereby establishing the primary actor as a translator. However, the findings indicate that the primary actor of academic staff in BS does not exclusively define all roles. Hospitality academic staff in BS define their roles as main actors in curriculum design and define their interest which is to maintain the relevance of HHE as a vocational subject in HE. Yet, their role remains heavily institutionalised based on the findings in section 7.4.3.1 and 7.4.3.2. They do not reinvent the knowledge system but rather adapt their roles to the interest of other actors, especially leaders in BS. It means, the knowledge network for hospitality is driven by management gaze, and the structure more than the culture of academic tribe.

All key actors (i.e academic staff and leaders) find space to pursue their interests in the context of producing knowledge for HHE in BS. Hence, this study posits that knowledge production for HHE in a setting is created by the actions of several small translators who interpret their role and their interaction to suit their needs, thus calling future research to question the representation of knowledge production as an exploitative structure of asymmetrical power. The findings in section 7.4.3.3 and 7.4.3.4 show that academic staff do not create a network but find a way to fit into the existing network. They carry out a balancing act which is necessary between, for instance, engaging with stakeholders, accounting for producing knowledge at department/academic community level and enacting an institutional academic environment which might embrace neoliberalism.

Based on the findings, the researcher draws figure 8 to illustrate the knowledge system for hospitality in BS. Thanks to using disciplinary thinking to understand hospitality knowledge production in BS, the thesis provides a comprehensive understanding of what hospitality is, where it comes from and its construction at institutional, school and department/ academic staff community level.

Figure 8: Hospitality production in Business School



Source: The author adopted from the research findings

The term “*profit*” used in figure 8 is employed in a conceptual sense, following Barnett’s framework (2011), to describe the influence of neoliberalism on universities as entrepreneurial entities. In the context of UK universities, which are generally not-for-profit organisation, profit should be understood as surplus rather than financial gain. This direction is important to accurately reflect the nature of financial outcomes in the HE sector. The limitation of these broader characterisation is further discussed in chapter 9, where specific cases and variations are explored in more detail, acknowledging that the neoliberal influence manifests differently across institutions.

To this point, the purpose of the figure 8 is to provide a broad characterisation of hospitality knowledge system at national, school and department/ academic community level. It provides insights into how hospitality knowledge is produced at these levels. However, it is essential to consider Alejziak's (2019) caution regarding the use of tourism knowledge system by Tribe and Liburd (2016) to this research topic. Alejziak references Lewin's observation that:

"Force field theory cannot be called a theory in the common meaning, because it is hard to consider it either correct or incorrect, and it is best characterised as a method: i.e. a method of analysing casual relationships and building scientific constructs" (Lewin, 1953, p. 292).

The thesis applies Alejziak's caution by asserting that figure 8 reflects a logical model employed to explain the contextual picture of HHE in BS in Scotland. This figure does not imply its role in shaping a scientific theory but to provide a contextual framework for understanding the HHE landscape in the location of BS.

8.5 Chapter of Summary

This study aims to explore hospitality knowledge production in BS. Having discussed the key findings, this chapter will discuss theoretical implications in terms of disciplinary and post-disciplinary thinking to hospitality knowledge production in BS, specifically at university, school and department/ academic staff community level. The thesis at hand brings a distinct contribution to the field of HHE and its knowledge production at institutional level (i.e. BS) by integrating both disciplinary and post-disciplinary perspectives. The primary originality of this research lies in the adoption of disciplinary thinking to explore hospitality knowledge production across intellectual, social and organisational dimensions. This lens not only explore how hospitality knowledge is structured within traditional disciplinary boundaries but also delves into the dynamic interactions that shape its production within institutional and academic community settings.

Furthermore, the integration of post-disciplinary perspective enhances the understanding about the social construction of hospitality knowledge that disciplinary boundaries cannot fully explain. Lastly, the adoption of ANT as a methodological tool

helps the thesis examines how diverse actors- such as academic staff, leaders and non-human entities (i.e credit, ranking)- contribute to and shape the hospitality knowledge networks in BS. This approach allows for a nuanced understanding of how hospitality knowledge is negotiated, constructed and transformed within hospitality academic communities in BS.

Chapter 9: Conclusions

9.1 The Purpose and Summary of the Research

According to Jaakkola (2020, p. 20), the development of an argument involves the analysis of goal setting, structuring, and logic of argumentation. The impetus for this thesis emanates from the historic development and recent relocation of HHE in BS. These changes have brought significant issues to the identity of hospitality as a vocational subject and specialised education in an academic educational context as HE. The relocation of HHE into BS represents a novel challenge the dominance of HME that require in-depth more exploration, forming a critical aspect of the research interest in this thesis. The changing context of HE in the UK driven by neoliberalism questions the knowledge production of hospitality in universities.

This primary aim of this thesis is to gain a comprehensive understanding how hospitality knowledge has been produced in BS, centring on the changing provision of hospitality degrees, curriculum design and the adaptation of HME. The establishment of three research objectives has been rooted in the recognition of a noticeable gap within the body of existing research literature. The existing body of work has made significant contributions to the understanding of hospitality knowledge evolution in the UK. It has encompassed various themes, including theoretical debates, descriptive overviews of HHE, empirical work on academic challenges, performance of hospitality in academic assessments, studies of the state of publication in hospitality field, and critical analyses of hospitality subject in HE. However, there remains a noticeable gap in the existing researcher literature-a comprehensive exploration into the philosophical inquiry about hospitality knowledge production within universities, especially within the context of BS. The prevailing theoretical approach to study hospitality knowledge production is a functional approach, cantering on curriculum which primarily debates the choice between vocational or liberal education for HHE. The research gap in the philosophical thinking toward hospitality knowledge requires a comprehensive exploration of hospitality knowledge production in universities.

Chapter 2 provides a contextual picture of HHE in wider university education in the UK. It delves into historical debates about the development of vocational education, specialised education and the dominant HME approach for HHE in university level. Moreover, it introduces the three domains of hospitality as a

conceptual framework to theorise hospitality knowledge hospitality research. The last part of this chapter delineates the backdrop of university education in the UK driven by neoliberalism. Subsequently, the focus shifts to university education in Scotland, examining its influences on knowledge production in university and the role of vocational education in Scotland.

Chapter 3 provides a robust theoretical framework to explore the production of hospitality knowledge in BS context. It touches on important concept – discipline, discipline models such as “*Interdiscipline model*” by Jafari and Richie (1981), “*the Indiscipline of Tourism*” (Tribe, 1997, 2000, 2004), and “*Tourism knowledge system*” (Tribe and Liburd, 2016). It is followed by limitation of disciplinary thinking in creating knowledge alongside with the introduction of postdiscipline as a transformative wave to move beyond traditional disciplinary thinking. This thesis uses tourism knowledge system model to explore what hospitality knowledge is, and seek to examine where its knowledge come from, its mode of knowledge production and consequence of such modes. The chapter also discusses the dynamic of knowledge system and its the social construction in an institutional context, focusing on the impact of management perspective on knowledge production, a linguistic process to discuss what knowledge is legitimate and who decide. The chapter then points out in understanding how knowledge network operates in practice, namely within university and department level. To fulfil this theoretical gap, the thesis adopts ANT to study how actors such as academic staffs and university and department leaders negotiate with each other, how the linguistic process shift power to some individuals or non-human actors in the process of knowledge production at department and university level. It can explain how different actors can exert influence on knowledge production process, or how different factors come together to influence this process.

The research methodology chapter starts with the choice of social constructivism to explore hospitality knowledge production through social interactions among academic tribe (i.e academic teachers and leaders) within the knowledge network driven by knowledge force field such as people, positions, ideology and so on. Social constructionism allows the research to focus on the contextual environment of the researched participants, such as curriculum design at department level, taking into account social, historical and cultural impact on knowledge production for

hospitality. Given the research aim and objectives, the exploratory research design was adopted to conduct inductive research to gain in-depth understanding about lived experiences and viewpoints of academic staff in the process of producing knowledge for HHE in BS. Case studies and purposeful sampling were chosen to select participants and institutions with the utmost relevance of the research objectives. Consequently, four institutions and 13 participants participated in the research. The researcher used semi-structured interviews, reflective diaries and field notes to collect data. Thematic analysis, following six phases was employed to analyse the data.

Chapter 5 presents findings related to the current development of HHE in BS in terms of vocational education, specialised education, and academic subject to understand what hospitality knowledge is. Chapter 6 provides findings related to the sources and dimensions of hospitality knowledge in terms of disciplines, mode of knowledge production, and the boundaries that define its scope. Chapter 7 presents findings and discussion in relation to research objective 3 which is to understand how hospitality knowledge is constructed in institutional contexts as BS. The focus of the chapter is the provision of degrees and curriculum design process to identify what forces impact knowledge production for hospitality and how decision-making process take place in terms of curriculum design for knowledge production at department levels.

Chapter 8 discuss theoretical implications based on the research findings. It discusses theoretical contribution in terms of discipline and postdiscipline thinking to hospitality and its knowledge system at institutional context as BS.

9.2 Contribution to the body of knowledge

This section summarises the research findings and their theoretical implications, organised around three research objectives as set in chapter 1.

RO 1: To explore what hospitality knowledge is

The thesis enhances the understanding about HHE in BS by broadening the scope of HME approach. It highlights how vocational education in HHE focuses on management education to expand the field of hospitality management. Unlike traditional hotel schools, where hospitality is often treated in isolation, HHE in BS integrates itself with business and management subjects. The specialised education of

HHE emphasises the unique private and social dimensions of hospitality, distinguishing it from other service sectors such as tourism.

RO 2: To examine where hospitality knowledge comes from

The use of discipline helps the thesis to confirm the dominance of mode 1 in generate academic knowledge for HHE in BS. Mode 1 knowledge production integrates insights from business, social sciences, arts and humanities to expand HME approach in BS. The integration reflects the expansion to teach commercial, private and social dimensions of hospitality for HME. The hierarchical nature of business and management degrees influences the production of hospitality knowledge, favouring a business-approached over more philosophical or theoretical perspectives. As a result, the academic status of hospitality subject aligns more closely with business and management disciplines. The thesis also highlights a notable difference between knowledge production for hospitality as a distinct discipline in research and as a subject in BS. The findings suggest that education is increasingly treated as a business with students viewed as customers investing in knowledge production process. The interdisciplinary approach to produce hospitality knowledge responds to market demand rather than purely academic interests. This practical approach aims to integrate hospitality into the prevailing management framework, focusing on business aspects rather than advancing scientific framework for hospitality, contrasting with the approach taken in hospitality research to improve the theoretical advancements of hospitality knowledge.

The study highlights a significant shift in the creation of hospitality knowledge toward mode 2 practice, characterised by a close linkage between academic staff and industry. This approach leads to the production of problem-based knowledge and socially robust practices, reflecting a broader integration of multiple stakeholder demands. Unlike traditional curricula approach primarily shaped by the industry perspective, mode 2 knowledge production incorporates a wider range of social needs from industry and students, university strategies, academic tribe. It emphasises transdisciplinary collaboration and practical application, extending beyond mere industry and student demands. The knowledge production for hospitality is increasingly subject to internal factors (i.e ranking, metric) that influence what knowledge is legitimate. The knowledge quality is now rigorously controlled by

management gaze to enhanced university competitive. This indicates a move from a purely industry-centric approach to one that also address broader social and practical considerations. Consequently, the creation of hospitality knowledge now balances student and industry requirement with internal factors such as metric, ranking, profit, thereby contributing to a more comprehensive and socially responsive educational framework.

The findings reveal a shift toward postdiscipline in knowledge creation for greater openness and complexity. Academic staff are moving beyond their hospitality disciplinary boundaries to embrace mode 2 knowledge production. They integrate research into their teaching while developing a close link with the industry and practitioners to stay current with external developments. The openness facilitates the creation of knowledge as products that meet diverse stakeholder demands. Additionally, the complexity of producing hospitality knowledge reflects a high level of disciplinarisation, where a strict definition of disciplines guides what is taught. Scenerio 2, indicating a significant focus on disciplinarisation, shows that business and management perspectives heavily influence the knowledge imparted in hospitality subjects within BS. This approach underscores a strong emphasis on business and management frameworks in shaping academic content.

RO3: To understand how hospitality knowledge is constructed

The study reveals that the production of hospitality knowledge in BS is complex due to the interplay of various actors, including academic staff, leaders, and non-human elements like credits and ranking systems. These actors collectively form a network that influences the hospitality knowledge system. The use of ANT helps the research find out, primary actors such as academic staff still play a crucial role in this network by defining their roles as curriculum designers and persuading others to align with their interest. While hospitality academic staff are central in curriculum design and aim to maintain the relevance of HHE in vocational and specialised education, their role are influenced by institutional management gaze and metrics rather than reinventing the knowledge system. The findings suggest that knowledge production for HHE results from the actions and interactions of multiple actors, each adapting their roles to serve their interests. This highlights the contribution of using ANT as a methodology to study knowledge production in educational research.

9.3 Limitations of the research

This research has several limitations that need to be acknowledged.

One major limitation is the contextual specificity of the findings, focusing on HHE provided by BS in Scotland. The study's scope is therefore constrained to these specific institutional contexts, potentially limiting to other types of institutions. Hotel schools offering standalone degrees in HHE or colleges offering hospitality education may operate under different educational frameworks and missions, leading to varied approach in knowledge production and delivery for HHE that this study does not encompass.

The study centres on four chosen universities in Scotland that were former polytechnics and transitioned to university status (see university profile in section 4.6.1). These universities have specific historical background of transitioning from vocational education to university level hospitality education. The findings may be potentially extended to universities in England which follows a similar historic trend (i.e former polytechnics transitioning to universities), extrapolating these findings to different educational levels (i.e college-level hospitality education) would be problematic. Each educational level and institutional type may have unique characteristics and challenges that influence the production and dissemination of hospitality knowledge.

Although ANT provides a valuable lens for understanding knowledge production networks, it also has limitations. ANT focuses heavily on local interactions and does not always account for broader structural factors or historical contexts that may influence knowledge production for HHE.

The use of qualitative research such as case studies and semi-structured interviews is a possible methodological limitation. While these methods provide rich, detailed insights into the lived experience and perspective of participants in BS, they are inherently subjective and context - dependent. This means the findings reflect the specific viewpoints and circumstances of the participants involved rather than offering universally applicable conclusions.

There is a potential for research bias in interpreting and analysing the qualitative data. The subjective nature of the researcher's involvement in the interpretation process may introduce biases or preconceived notions that could influence the findings. Efforts were made to mitigate this limitation by the practice of the researcher reflexivity to reduce bias and preconceived notions.

Lastly, the research is constrained by the availability and accessibility of participants. The number of participants from each university is not the same. University A had more participants joining than the remaining universities. All participants in the interviews have relatively rich experience in teaching and designing HHE programs in BS. A majority of them were senior lectures and hold different job titles and responsibilities including teaching, research, program coordinators, administration in their faculties or schools. These experiences were good sources for providing lived experience and contextual information. However, they are not a big academic tribe in BS. The study relied on a specific group of academics in BS in Scotland, which may not fully represent the broader population of individuals involved in HHE. The findings should be interpreted with caution, considering the limited sample size and potential biases that may result from the selection process.

9.4 Recommendations

Future research in the field of HHE can build on the findings of this study and address the limitations to further advance knowledge and understanding in this area. Several potential avenues for future research are suggested as below:

1. Explore interdisciplinary integration: Future research should investigate how traditional disciplinary boundaries can be effectively integrated with post-disciplinary approaches. This includes examining methods to blend discipline-specific knowledge with emerging, interdisciplinary perspective to address complex real-world problems in HHE and beyond.
2. Examine contextual adaptations: Researchers should explore how post-disciplinary frameworks are adapted across different institutional contexts. Understanding how various educational environments- such as BS versus specialised hospitality education- implement and benefit from post-disciplinary thinking can offer valuable insights for broader application.

3. Assess impact on curriculum development: investigate how adopting post-disciplinary approaches influences curriculum design and pedagogical strategies in HHE. This research could assess how flexibility and openness in curriculum development affect the relevance and applicability of knowledge in practical settings.
4. Evaluate knowledge production models: analyse the effectiveness of different models of knowledge production, including mode 1 and 2, within the context of postdisciplinary thinking. This includes evaluating how these models contribute to or hinder innovation and the generation of applicable knowledge in the hospitality sector
5. Stakeholder perspectives: Future research can delve deeper into understanding the perspectives of various stakeholders, including students, industry professionals and other relevant stakeholders. Investigating their expectations, needs, and challenges in relations to HHE can inform program design and foster better alignment between academia and industry.
6. Integrating philosophical and sociological perspectives: Given the dominant business and management thinking for HHE in BS via HME approach, future research can explore strategies to incorporate more philosophical and sociological perspectives into HME. This may involve investigating the potential benefits of adding ethics, philosophy, and social impact considerations into the curriculum.
7. Impact of industry changes: With the hospitality industry rapidly evolving, further research could assess how emerging trends, such as digitalization, sustainability, and changing consumer behaviors, influence HHE. Understanding the implications of these industry shifts can help ensure that education remains relevant and prepare graduates for the future workforce.
8. Longitudinal studies: conducting longitudinal studies can provide valuable insights into the long-term trends and changes in HHE. By tracking program development and curriculum changes over the extended period, researchers can better understand the impact of external factors, such as government policies and industry demands, on program identity and knowledge production.

9. Comparative studies: Comparing HHE across different countries and regions can offer broader perspectives on how contextual factors influence program structure and content. Such studies can highlight the role of cultural, political, social and economic factors in shaping knowledge production for HHE.

By addressing these areas, future research can contribute to a deeper understanding of how discipline and post-disciplinary thinking can be harmonised to enhance knowledge production and educational practices.

9.5 Last thoughts on the PhD Journey

Before starting my PhD journey in 2018, I had experience teaching several modules undergraduate modules at a university in Vietnam. Before that, I completed a Master's course in International Hotel and Tourism Management at a hospitality school and worked part-time in hotels and restaurants in England. During this period, I primarily viewed education, particularly tourism and hospitality education primarily, as a means to provide learners with the technical skills and knowledge necessary for their future work. Consequently, my research focus was vocational education aimed at employability working on a project titled "*A critical perspective on higher hospitality education at undergraduate level in Vietnam and Scotland*". My plan was to employ semi-structured interviews to gather insights from academic staff teaching in universities, practitioners and policy makers working in TH departments in Scotland and Vietnam. The main objectives of these interviews were to identify the key drivers and examine to what extent these impact the development of undergraduate hospitality programs in Vietnam and Scotland.

Before Covid-19, I began the first phase in Scotland, conducting four interviews with four participants from university A. The data collected from these four interviews revealed significant relationships among the idea of hospitality education, the choice of knowledge and teaching methods, which ultimately impact curriculum design. These initial findings inspired me to explore a theoretical relationship among ideology, epistemology and pedagogy. I subsequently developed a conceptual framework based on ideology, epistemology and pedagogy, which I submitted and present at an online international conference (CAUTHE) in February 2021. Joining this event and receiving valuable feedback in this event encouraged me to rethink about my research approach, pushing me to consider perspective beyond the

curriculum approach and vocational education and question alternative ways to understand knowledge production in universities. While delving deeper into literature, I encountered Tribe's book (2009) about the philosophy of tourism knowledge which posed fundamental questions about the nature, origins and scrutiny of knowledge. Tribe's philosophical questions about knowledge extend beyond pragmatic view of vocational education traditionally associated with tourism education.

In 2020, when Covid-19 pandemic led to global lockdowns, I could not travel to Vietnam to collect data. I faced a decision about whether to continue my research. Tribe's work urged me to rethink my approach, leading me to shift my focus to *"Hospitality knowledge production in Business School: A case of Scotland"*. Adopting case studies allowed me to revise my theoretical framework and interview guides. I used four interviews with university A as a case study 1. The insights from these initial four interviews influenced the revision of interview questions for data collection for case study 2 and additional interviews. Reflecting on my decision, I found case study meaningful as it allowed me to change my research. At the same time, focusing on question knowledge production in university for HHE become more significant, especially in the context of the dynamic changes in HE brought by Covid-19. This pandemic added challenges, making the research more relevant and crucial than ever.

Appendices

Appendix 1: The list of universities providing hospitality related programs at university level

From the Guardian ranking 2020

The best UK universities 2021

theguardian.com/education/ng-interactive/2020/sep/05/the-best-uk-universities-2021-league-table

Find a course
All fields optional

Course Institution Hospitality, event management Scotland Search

Results by course 45 courses across 8 institutions

Hospitality, event management & tourism
8 institutions
View rankings

Glasgow Caledonian Ranked 4th in subject, 77th overall	2 courses BA (hons) international events management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international tourism & events management (optional year abroad) »
Edinburgh Napier Ranked 6th in subject, 62nd overall	11 courses BA (hons) international hospitality management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international festival & event management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international hospitality management & marketing (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international tourism & airline management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international festival & event management with language (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international hospitality management & festival & event (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international hospitality management with language (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) international tourism management (optional year abroad) » + Show more courses
Queen Margaret Ranked 17th in subject, 65th overall	3 courses BA (hons) events management » BA (hons) international hospitality & tourism management » BA (hons) public relations & marketing communications »
Strathclyde Ranked 20th in subject, 15th overall	11 courses BA (hons) hospitality & tourism management & business law (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) hospitality & tourism management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) business enterprise & hospitality & tourism management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) hospitality & tourism management & management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) finance & hospitality & tourism management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) accounting & hospitality & tourism management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) hospitality & tourism management & marketing (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) hospitality & tourism management & human resource management (optional year abroad) » + Show more courses
Robert Gordon Ranked 30th in subject, 43rd overall	3 courses BA (Hons) Events Management (optional sandwich year, optional year abroad) » BA (Hons) International Hospitality Management (optional sandwich year, optional year abroad) » BA (Hons) International Tourism Management (optional sandwich year, optional year abroad) »
West of Scotland Ranked 47th in subject, 120th overall	2 courses BA (hons) events management (optional year abroad) » BA (hons) tourism management »
Highlands & Islands	12 courses HND hospitality management » HND professional cookery » HND coaching & developing sport » BA (hons) golf management » BA (hons) events management » BSc (hons) air traffic management » BA (hons) adventure performance & coaching » BA (hons) hospitality management » + Show more courses

From the Complete university guide (2020)

Tourism, Transport, Travel and

thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/league-tables/rankings/tourism-transport-travel-and-heritage-studies/scotland

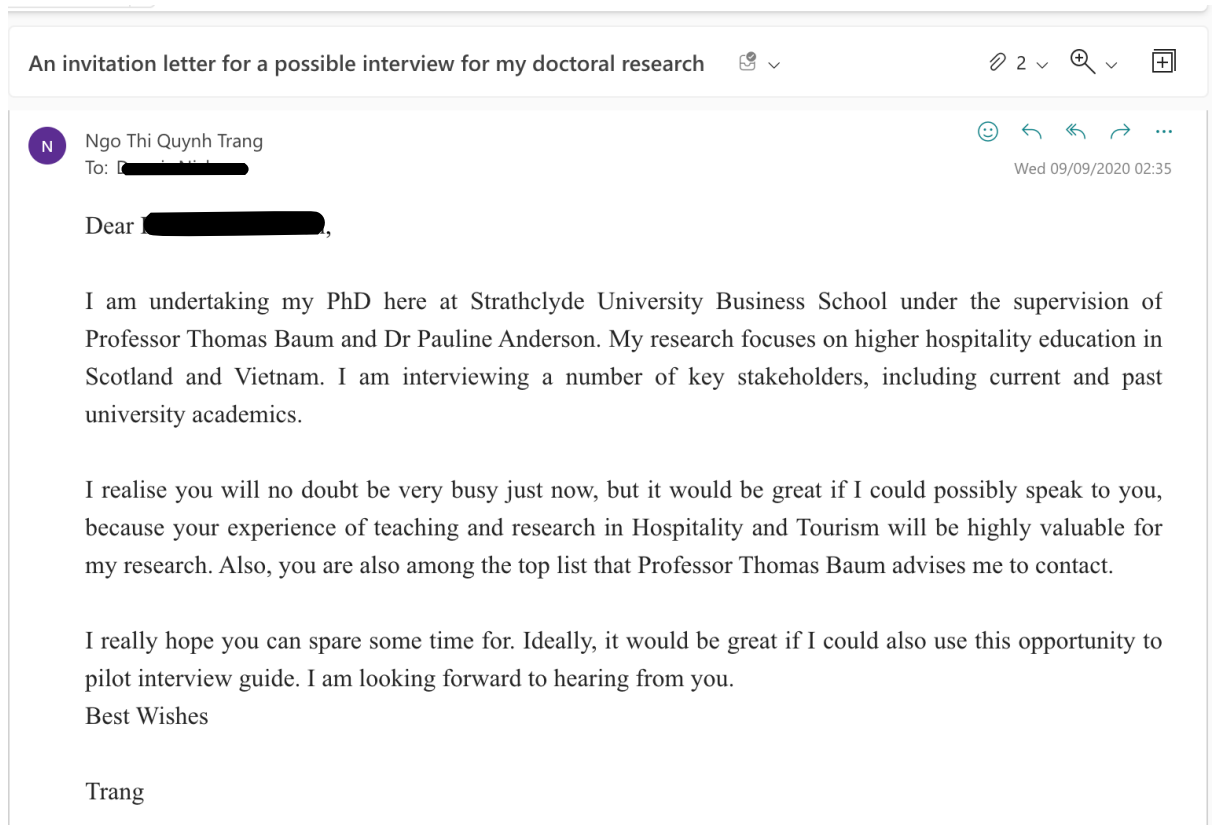
SUBJECT LEAGUE TABLES REGION UNIVERSITY GROUP CLEAR ALL

Want to study Tourism, Transport, Travel & Heritage Studies? [Subject guide](#) [View Courses](#)

Book university open days and virtual events.

QUICK VIEW		FULL TABLE				
University ranking	University name	Overall score	Entry standards	Student satisfaction	Research quality	Graduate prospects
23	University of Strathclyde VIEW COURSES →	88%	n/a	82%	n/a	78%
25	Glasgow Caledonian University VIEW COURSES →	87%	98%	75%	75%	32%
28	Edinburgh Napier University VIEW COURSES →	86%	96%	78%	69%	42%
40	Robert Gordon University VIEW COURSES →	83%	86%	80%	59%	54%
51	Queen Margaret University, Edinburg... VIEW COURSES →	80%	84%	80%	54%	44%
53	University of the West of Scotland VIEW COURSES →	79%	80%	80%	71%	30%
58	University of the Highlands and Isl... VIEW COURSES →	71%	66%	78%	n/a	34%

Appendix 2: Email Invitation to Potential Participants



Appendix 3: An interview guide for the first project before Covid 19

This is a doctoral research project with a view to exploring drivers to the current development of Hospitality education in Scotland and Vietnam at university level. Main questions underpinning the research are:

1. What shapes the development of hospitality undergraduate programs (i.e bachelor degrees) in Scotland and Vietnam; and
2. To what extent these factors affect the development of these hospitality undergraduate programs?
3. How differently these factors can impact the development of these hospitality undergraduate programs in two diverse contexts such as Scotland and Vietnam?

To answer these three questions, multiple case studies are applied in which the researcher will choose four universities, two for Scotland and Vietnam as case studies. Within each case, the research will collect secondary data from document review and primary data from semi-interview (see table 1). Data collected will be used for comparative analysis within case and cross case studies.

Table 1: Research methods and aim for analysis

Aim for analysis	Method to collect data
Stage 1: National level Main aim: identify main factors and stakeholders that impact the development of hospitality education at undergraduate level in Vietnam and Scotland	
Analyse the historical development of higher education and hospitality education at university level in Vietnam and Scotland to identify: - The purpose and function of university education in the two countries - The purpose and education values for hospitality education at undergraduate level in terms of skill and knowledge production - Main stakeholders' interests that hospitality education at undergraduate levels should serve	Secondary data is collected via documents view Data sources: national policy in higher education, university education
Stage 2: Institutional level Main aim: - to explore the local context where universities are located - to identify educational purposes the university seeks to attain for hospitality undergraduate programs	
- Analyse the university's mission and vision for undergraduate education - Analyse the development of Hospitality undergraduate programs: course titles, main modules (management or technical), core subjects (business management/ hospitality/ arts and humanities)	Analysis of documents such as university statements in websites, curriculum
Stage 3: Individual level Main aim: to explore how single institution identifies goals and purpose to develop hospitality undergraduate programs (i.e curriculum, subjects) to serve whose interests and which factors	

- to explore how universities make program decisions (i.e what knowledge is included, and what is not) based on institution size and management and external forces (i.e state funding, course standardisation due to globalisation, student fee) - to explore how universities develop goals and purpose of hospitality undergraduate program to serve whose interests	Semi-structured interview
--	---------------------------

INTERVIEW GUIDE

For academic staff

1. Personal academic and professional background

The first part of the interview will start with some quick questions about academic and professional background.

- Could you please briefly walk me through your educational background and professional background?
- How long have you been teaching and/or research on hospitality-related subjects in your institution?
- Can you please tell a bit more about your experience in developing and designing hospitality programs? What is your role in this process?

2. Hospitality programs at undergraduate level

The second part of the interview will focus on exploring drivers (i.e factors and stakeholders) impacting universities on the process of developing hospitality undergraduate programs.

- When developing the educational purpose of hospitality undergraduate programs, what drivers does your institution/ faculty consider and why?
- Probe: Is there any relation between the purposes of these programs with the idea of higher education and university education, the demand from the industry and students and institutional management?
- Probe: Is there any differences in the aims and objectives of these programs compared with those provided by other Higher education institutions such as colleges?

- Probe: Is there any differences in the aims and objectives of these programs compared with those provided by other institutions in the region and local areas?
- Regarding the choice of titles, modules and core subjects, pedagogies of hospitality undergraduate programs, can you share with me what does your institution/ faculty consider for these decisions and why?
- In the context of globalisation, there is a competition among universities (e.g. ranking, standardised qualifications, student enrolment), how does it impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate programs?
- The government has a role in quality control for university education (e.g. a national curriculum), how does it impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate program?
- In your view, can you tell me a bit more about how students (e.g. student fees, choice of programs) impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate program?
- In your view, how do hospitality industry and professional groups impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate programs?
- Each university has its own characteristics (e.g. historic cultural development, size, management and resources, mission), how do these characteristics impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate program?
- In your opinion, what factors impact your institution/ faculty the most and least in developing hospitality undergraduate programs?

Ending Questions

- Is there any area that you would like to share more information?

INTERVIEW GUIDE

For practitioners/ policy makers

1. Personal academic and professional background

The first part of the interview will start with some quick questions about academic and professional background.

- Could you please briefly walk me through your educational background and professional background?

- Can you please tell a bit more about your experience in skill development for hospitality industry? What is your role in this process?

2. Hospitality Education programs at undergraduate level

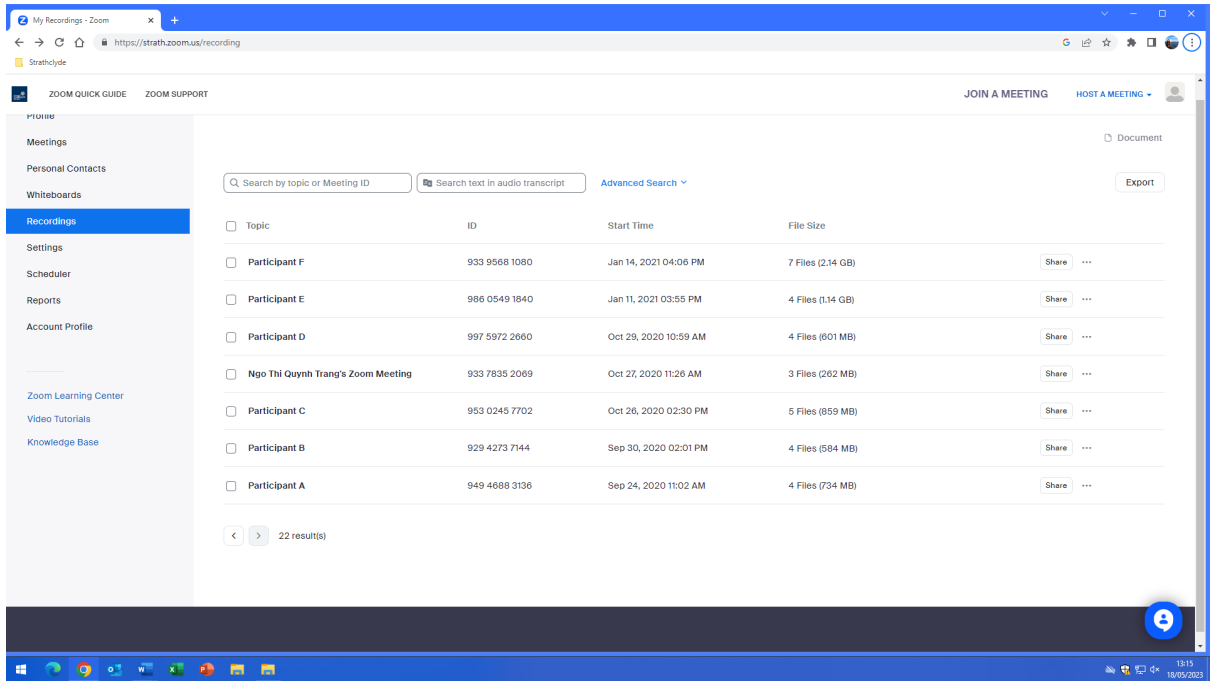
The second part of the interview will focus on exploring drivers (e.g. factors and stakeholders) impacting universities on the process of developing hospitality undergraduate programs.

- In your view, what should be the main purpose of hospitality undergraduate programs and why?
- From your point of view, what should be main modules and core subjects for hospitality undergraduate programs and why?
- Can you share with me your perception about the impact of globalisation on universities when they develop hospitality undergraduate programs?
- In your view, what do you think about the impact of the government (e.g. its role in quality control for university education) on universities when they develop hospitality undergraduate program?
- In your opinion, how do hospitality industry and professional groups impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate programs?
- In your view, what do you think about the impact of students (e.g. student fees, choice of programs) on universities when they develop hospitality undergraduate program?
- From your point of view, what do you think about the impact of university management (e.g. historic cultural development, size, management and resources, mission) on developing hospitality undergraduate program?

Ending Questions

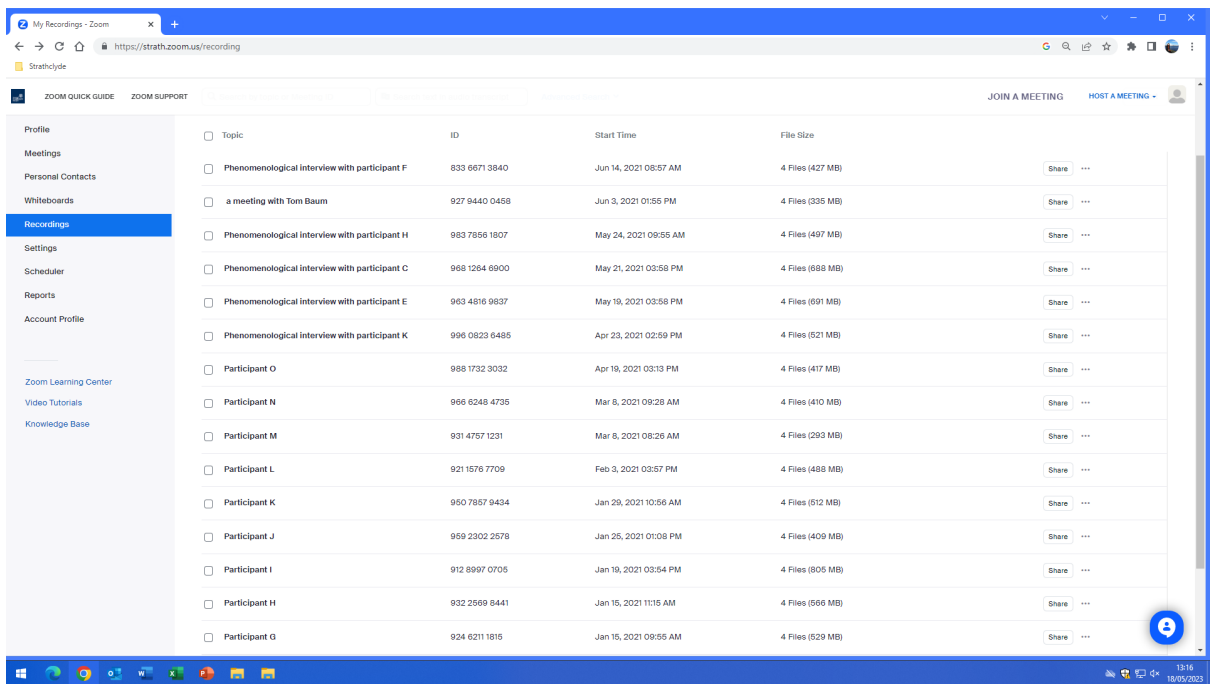
- Is there any area that you would like to share more information?

Appendix 4: List of interviews via Zoom



The screenshot shows the Zoom 'My Recordings' interface. The left sidebar contains navigation options: Profile, Meetings, Personal Contacts, Whiteboards, Recordings (selected), Settings, Scheduler, Reports, and Account Profile. Below these are links for Zoom Learning Center, Video Tutorials, and Knowledge Base. The main area displays a table of recordings with columns for Topic, ID, Start Time, and File Size. There are search filters at the top and an 'Export' button. The table lists recordings for Participant F, Participant E, Participant D, Ngo Thi Quynh Trang's Zoom Meeting, Participant C, Participant B, and Participant A.

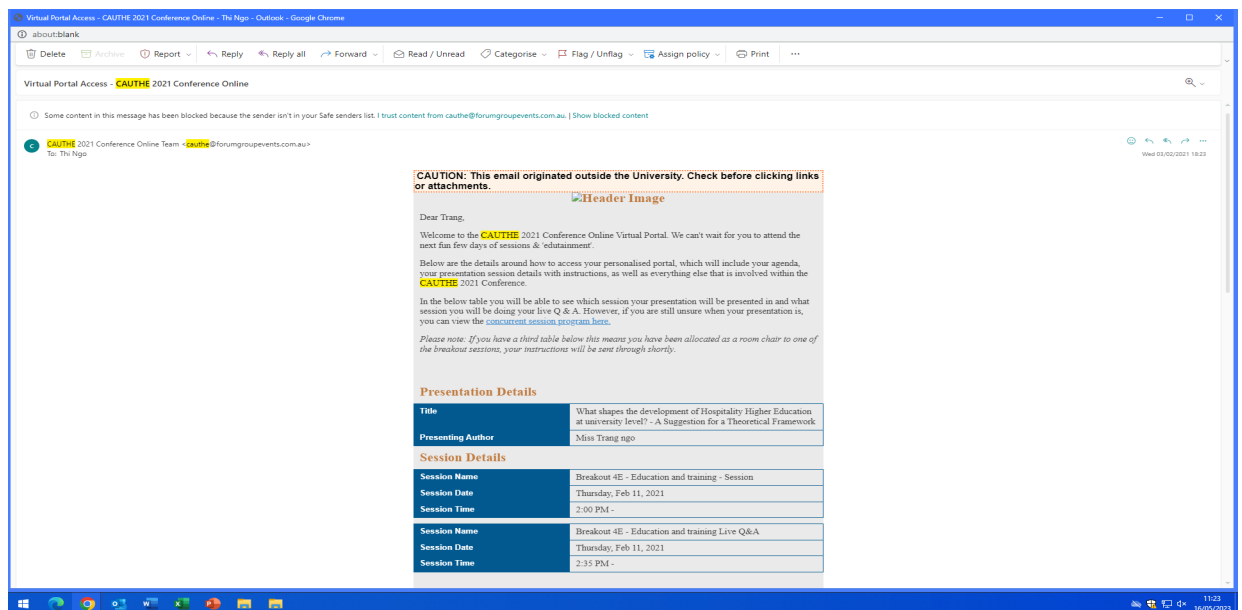
Topic	ID	Start Time	File Size
Participant F	933 9568 1080	Jan 14, 2021 04:06 PM	7 Files (2.14 GB)
Participant E	986 0549 1840	Jan 11, 2021 03:55 PM	4 Files (1.14 GB)
Participant D	997 5972 2660	Oct 29, 2020 10:59 AM	4 Files (601 MB)
Ngo Thi Quynh Trang's Zoom Meeting	933 7835 2069	Oct 27, 2020 11:26 AM	3 Files (262 MB)
Participant C	953 0245 7702	Oct 26, 2020 02:30 PM	5 Files (859 MB)
Participant B	929 4273 7144	Sep 30, 2020 02:01 PM	4 Files (584 MB)
Participant A	949 4688 3136	Sep 24, 2020 11:02 AM	4 Files (734 MB)



The screenshot shows the Zoom 'My Recordings' interface with a different set of recordings. The left sidebar is identical to the first screenshot. The main area displays a table of recordings with columns for Topic, ID, Start Time, and File Size. The table lists recordings for Phenomenological Interview with participant F, a meeting with Tom Baum, Phenomenological Interview with participant H, Phenomenological Interview with participant C, Phenomenological Interview with participant E, Phenomenological Interview with participant K, Participant O, Participant N, Participant M, Participant L, Participant K, Participant J, Participant I, Participant H, and Participant G.

Topic	ID	Start Time	File Size
Phenomenological Interview with participant F	833 6671 3840	Jun 14, 2021 08:57 AM	4 Files (427 MB)
a meeting with Tom Baum	927 9440 0458	Jun 3, 2021 01:55 PM	4 Files (335 MB)
Phenomenological Interview with participant H	983 7856 1807	May 24, 2021 09:55 AM	4 Files (497 MB)
Phenomenological Interview with participant C	968 1264 6900	May 21, 2021 03:58 PM	4 Files (688 MB)
Phenomenological Interview with participant E	963 4816 9637	May 19, 2021 03:58 PM	4 Files (691 MB)
Phenomenological Interview with participant K	996 0823 6485	Apr 23, 2021 02:59 PM	4 Files (521 MB)
Participant O	988 1732 3032	Apr 19, 2021 03:13 PM	4 Files (417 MB)
Participant N	966 6246 4735	Mar 8, 2021 09:28 AM	4 Files (410 MB)
Participant M	931 4757 1231	Mar 8, 2021 08:26 AM	4 Files (292 MB)
Participant L	921 1576 7709	Feb 3, 2021 03:57 PM	4 Files (488 MB)
Participant K	950 7857 9434	Jan 29, 2021 10:56 AM	4 Files (512 MB)
Participant J	959 2302 2578	Jan 25, 2021 01:08 PM	4 Files (409 MB)
Participant I	912 8997 0705	Jan 19, 2021 03:54 PM	4 Files (805 MB)
Participant H	932 2569 8441	Jan 15, 2021 11:15 AM	4 Files (566 MB)
Participant G	924 6211 1815	Jan 15, 2021 09:55 AM	4 Files (529 MB)

Appendix 5: CAUTHE conference, February 2021



Appendix 6: Revised interview question during Covid- 19

INTERVIEW GUIDE

For academic staff

The research focuses on higher hospitality education at university level in Scotland. This interview is conducted via Zoom due to Covid pandemic. The interview will be recorded via Zoom and transcript will be produced via Zoom.

The interview guide receives an approval of Ethics Board in Work, Employment and Organisation, Strathclyde Business School. The interview is anonymous confidential so participants in the interview will not be identified.

Part 1: Personal academic and professional background

The first part of the interview will start with some quick questions about academic and professional background

1. Could you please briefly walk me through your professional background? e.g: How long have you been teaching and/or research on hospitality-related subjects in your institution?
2. Can you please tell a bit more about your experience in developing and designing hospitality programs? What is your role in this process?

Part 2: Hospitality programs at undergraduate level

3. What are the main knowledge domains of these programs?
 - Common knowledge: management, economics, social science
 - technical/ functional skills
 - hospitality knowledge such as cuisine, rooms division, etc
 - arts, humanities, etc
4. What are the main subjects of these programs (e.g. general management and business/ hospitality related subjects)?
5. How are these programs taught in your institutions? What is main teaching/ pedagogy approach for these programs (i.e vocational or theoretical, practical training/ academic, vocational/ liberal training)
6. The purpose of hospitality education at undergraduate level
 - Probe: Is there any relation between the purposes of these programs with the idea of higher education and university education, the demand from the industry and students and institutional management?
 - Probe: Is there any differences in the aims and objectives of these programs compared with those provided by other Higher education institutions such as colleges?
 - Probe: Is there any differences in the aims and objectives of these programs compared with those provided by other institutions in the region and local areas?

Part 3: Drivers

The third part of the interview will focus on exploring drivers (e.g. factors and stakeholders) impacting universities on the process of developing hospitality undergraduate programs.

7. In the context of globalisation, there is a competition among universities (e.g. ranking, standardised qualifications, student enrolment), how does it impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate programs?
8. The government has a role in quality control for university education (e.g. a national curriculum), how does it impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate program?
9. In your view, can you tell me a bit more about how students (e.g. student fees, choice of programs) impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate program?

10. In your view, how do hospitality industry and professional groups impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate programs?
11. Each university has its own characteristics (e.g. historic cultural development, size, management and resources, mission), how do these characteristics impact universities in developing hospitality undergraduate program?
12. In your opinion, what factors impact your institution/ faculty the most and least in developing hospitality undergraduate programs?

Ending Questions

- Is there any area that you would like to share more information?

Appendix 7: Additional interview with participant E in university A

I. Main idea for this interview

1. Education model for business degree in hospitality in university A.

What is the assumption/ philosophy behind that model?

How that philosophy link with HHE approach (hospitality management or hospitality education)

2. University education (for job or for student life-long learning)

How do the educational model of business degree and its philosophy link with university education (for job or for student life-long learning)

All discussion based on the context of university A.

II. Background from the interview and specific questions to ask

1. University strategy

Why did the university focus on quality in terms of research and academic education?

How has it impacted the provision of HHE?

2. University decision

How has the decision to close the hotel school impacted the delivery of HHE?

How has the relocation of HHE into BS impacted the delivery of hospitality programs?

3. Academics staff

How has curriculum been changed to fit with BS?

4. Educational model:

Why is there a change in educational model like that?

How does the new model impact the approach of HHE?

How does the new model help to prepare graduates for managerial jobs in HT industry or wider industry?

4. The idea of university education

How does the idea of university education impact HHE? Should HHE be specialised education or general education approach?

5. Force field factors

How does student demand impact the way universities/ staff develop the programs?

The purpose of HHE, is that for the market value of university education (for university purpose) or for student life- long learning?

Appendix 8: Additional interview with participant F in university D

I. Main idea for this interview

1. Education model for hospitality degree in HT in university D.

What is the assumption/ philosophy behind that model?

How that philosophy link with HHE approach (hospitality management or hospitality education)

2. University education (for job or for student life-long learning)

How do educational model of business degree and its philosophy link with university education (for job or for student life-long learning)

All discussion based on the university context.

II. More questions for interview

1. Knowledge

Where the knowledge come from?

2. Educational model:

Is there any kind of specialist education for hospitality?

What is the philosophy behind this model?

3. Degree

Why there is a change like that for the degree?

What is the main approach for HHE? is that hospitality management or hospitality studies?

4. Pedagogy for HHE in university

Why is applied education adopted?

5. Hospitality management approach

Why is management approach adopted?

6. The idea of HHE program

Does the purpose of HHE focus on employability or student life-long learning?

Appendix 9: Code book generated from N-VIVO

Nodes\\thematic code\\initial code

Name	Description	Files	References
I. The status of HHE			
1. Business degree	Core subjects, competencies and skills	0	0
hospitality subjects		0	0
look at management side of industry		1	2
need to add more hospitality subjects		2	2
provide both tourism and hospitality		1	1
use to be tourism driven		1	3
management subjects		0	0
general management applied in HT		4	7
core subjects to deal with crisis	Leadership, sustainability	2	3
skill		0	0
no technical skill			
generic management skill	Different skill set for wider job options	1	3
management and budget manage kitchens, chefs, manage people, do marketing, selling		1	1

Name	Description	Files	References
hospitality skill to understand people, culture, pressure		1	2
1. Hospitality degree	Core subjects, competencies, skills	0	0
hospitality subjects		0	0
broader aspects of hospitality context and industry		0	0
used to be tourism driven			
hospitality context, social, private domain		0	0
management aspects of hospitality		1	1
management knowledge		0	0
provide more generic management context applied in HT		3	4
skill		0	0
deal with people		1	1
management skill for kitchen, event		2	3
2. HHE approach	Hospitality management and hospitality study approach	0	0
hospitality management approach		0	0
adopt management studies to view business and hospitality context		2	3

Name	Description	Files	References
use management theory to apply in HT context		2	3
view of hospitality discipline as a business activity		0	0
follow management teaching in business school		3	5
having management title for course and subject		3	3
need sociology		0	0
add humanities to management and operation		1	1
add social skill		1	2
3. Pedagogy		0	0
provide knowledge in terms of theory and concepts		1	1
provide specialised knowledge, not similar skills			
university provide degree with management knowledge and theory			
developing understanding what does it mean, what involved in the industry			
no practical training in university		0	0
cut down practical training in kitchen and restaurants		4	9
go beyond specific skill development		3	8
practical skill can be learnt at work, not university		3	5
teaching more theory than practical			

Name	Description	Files	References
specific skill can be out of date, focus on teaching principles			
Applied education		0	
applied education driven by industry, not purely academic driven		4	
mix between practical and theory			
apply theory in practice to improve experience			
promote critical thinking, reflection			
learning activities help students use theory/ concepts to improve experience			
experimental learnings via game activity to practice			
case study, real problems, live projects			
placement to improve management, sale, deal with people			
4. Curriculum approach			
approach			
functional degree	HT degree with specialism in HR, marketing (niche program) A faculty degree		
general degree			

Name	Description	Files	References
generic management applied in HT			
skills are transferable			
market degree			
offer different joint degree, honor degree, niche degree			
business degree			
advantage of this approach			
more successful in careers			
wider job options with business degree			
give more generic business and management context in which to place the hospitality sector			
disadvantage of this approach			
not prepare student for real working condition			
not providing professional qualification in HT			
provide more management than hospitality knowledge			
hospitality degree			
advantage of hospitality degree			
specific hospitality subjects about hospitality context and operations			
balance of management and hospitality			
disadvantage		0	0
need management knowledge relevant for hospitality industry (culture management,		3	3

Name	Description	Files	References
diversity management)			
used to be more management than hospitality knowledge		1	1
5. The purpose of HHE relevant to industry	Education or training		
meet industry demand for the rationale of course		3	7
student employability		0	0
ready for jobs		4	7
hospitality management approach for wider job options		3	6
student learning		0	0
for student learning process, not just qualification		1	1
meeting demand for enrolment, learning value		2	4
tailor to students' needs			
II. Force field 1. Changing environment	Any change for the environment		
accreditation for subject and curriculum benchmark			
Government viewed hospitality as low job status			

Name	Description	Files	References
Industry characteristics			
characteristics			
before narrow to hotel and restaurants			
now broader, dynamic, diversity, different scale (sme, private business, not corporation)			
demand			
more capabilities from graduates			
require business to be innovative, entrepreneurial			
2. Student characteristics			
diversity in background, different demand for qualification, learning activities		0	0
from high school		0	0
used to demand for qualification to work in HT		2	2
international students		2	2
top up qualification for college students, need some academic training		0	0
Students come to business school for management degree			
demand for education			
no need basic practical training as having parttime job			
having wider career demand		0	0
aim for managerial jobs and money motivation			

Name	Description	Files	References
university model for enrolment			
universities do not compete for student number.			
need to attract students			
3. University decision		0	0
decision related to program provision at operational level	Two levels: new course design, validation and subjects/module design	0	0
consider both external and internal factors		0	0
external factors industry demand, student demand		3	6
macro factors economic, political, social context		0	0
what competitors provide		1	1
balancing act		1	3
driven by more internal than external for course provision			
focus on quality (research)			
efficiency (saving cost, make profit)		0	0
look at student number to merge, reduce class		3	4
reduce or remove practical training			
cut down on different joint programs, niche	Provide niche	0	0

Name	Description	Files	References
programs	program to meet diverse demand of students and industry		
trade off decision (cost/ program identity)		0	0
close hotel school when it has high student enrolment			
pragmatic decision			
strategic decision (no practical training)		1	1
move to BS and losing program identity			
focus on University history, ranking to decide market for program	University history, ranking (more from university strategy)	1	1
BS go for general education for global ranking			
retain traditional vocational oriented history to provide vocational programs			
administration impact		0	0
follow a formal school approval		3	4
school formats have loose impact on what topic or subjects to teach			

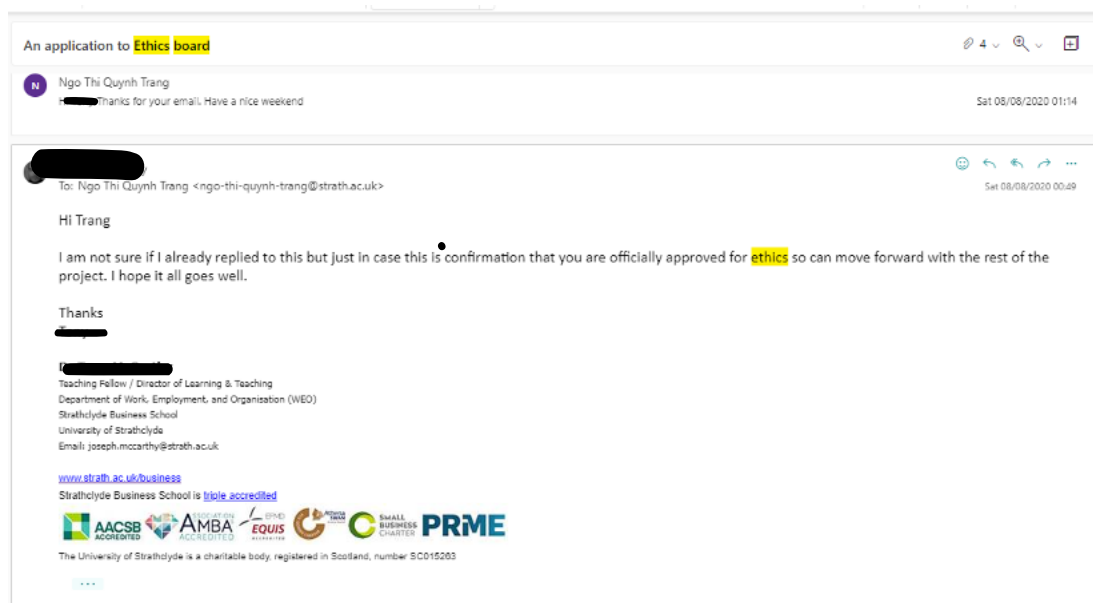
Name	Description	Files	References
follow learning outcome, credits to design class activities		2	3
follow school/ department accreditation and standardisation for quality teaching		1	1
Curriculum	Curriculum space	0	0
look at national curriculum for level of study and skill			
look at HT association for subject and curriculum benchmark			
look at what is happening in industry			
for teaching issues			
core subjects (leadership, sustainability, innovation)			
student			
student number impact the provision of course/ module		0	0
student feedback can impact the choice of class activities, pedagogy			
university strategy			
follow university strategy for program structure, teaching style			
staff			
decide pedagogy, teaching style in classes		1	1
focus on academic aspects, learning outcomes, educational purpose		0	0

Name	Description	Files	References
have autonomy to design the program	Decide what knowledge to teach	2	2
program leaders make certain changes due to demand		0	0
program leader not creating curriculum		0	0
have no power in the program			
4. Specific challenges		0	0
Macro level		0	0
view on hospitality as a vocational job, no need education (from student, parents)		1	1
mismatch on the view on the role of university education	Different stakeholders' view on the role of university education, is that for job preparation for academic training	0	0
employers focus on hospitality, not management in the degree:		0	0
perception about hospitality education among university and industry		2	3
difficult to understand demand from external stakeholders			

Name	Description	Files	References
criticism from industr, academic staff of the lost of practical training			
main hospitality focuses in BS with general business management trend for university			
many universities close down hospitality programs			
Meso level		0	0
awarding academic degree with practice training		2	5
different view of leadership and academic staff for teaching and management	Teaching and course management	0	0
academic staff consider learning value, pedagogy		0	0
leaders consider expense, human resource		1	2
hospitality discipline		0	0
need to be seen as an individual discipline		0	0
need to be seen as equal as other business disciplines		0	0
Micro level		0	0
staff expertise and number		0	0
different types of decision			
leaders consider more on profit, cost, resource	Leaders pay much attention to cost and human	2	4

Name	Description	Files	References
	resource		
staff focus on learning value			

Appendix 10: An approval from the Ethics board of Work, Employment and Organisation Department, University of Strathclyde



Appendix 11: Consent form

Department of Work, Employment and Organisation

Title of the study: “*A critical perspective on hospitality education at undergraduate level in Vietnam and Scotland*”

- ☐ I confirm that I have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet for the above project and the researcher has answered any queries to my satisfaction.
- ☐ I confirm that I have read and understood the Privacy Notice for Participants in Research Projects and understand how my personal information will be used and what will happen to it (i.e how it will be stored and for how long).
- ☐ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time, up to the point of completion, without having to give a reason and without any consequences.

☐ I understand that I can request the withdrawal from the study of personal information that identifies me and that whenever possible researchers will comply with my request.

☐ I understand that anonymised data (i.e data that do not identify me personally) cannot be withdrawn once they have been included in the study.

☐ I understand that any information recorded in the research will remain confidential and no information that identifies me will be made publicly available.

☐ I consent to being a participant in the project.

☐ I consent to being audio and/or video recorded as part of the project Yes /
No

(PRINT NAME)

Signature of Participant: Date:

Reference

- Airey, David (2005) 'Growth and Development'. In D. Airey and J. Tribe (eds.): *An International Handbook of Tourism Education*. Oxford, Elsevier, pp. 13-24.
- Airey, D. (2008) 'Tourism education life begins at 40'. *Téoros*, 27 (1), pp. 27-32.
- Airey, D. (2015) '40 years of tourism studies - A remarkable story'. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 40 (1), pp. 6-15.
- Airey, D. (2016) 'Tourism education: Past, present and future'. *The Business of Tourism*, 17, pp. 11-12.
- Airey, D., Dredge, D., and Gross, M. (2015) 'Tourism, Hospitality and Events Education in an Age of Change'. In D. Dredge, D. Airey and M. Gross (eds): *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism and Hospitality Education*. London: Routledge, pp. 3-14.
- Airey, D. and Tribe, J. (2000) 'Education for hospitality'. In C. Lashley and A. Morrison (eds): *In Search of Hospitality: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, pp. 276-292.
- Airey, D., Tribe, J., Benckendorff, P., and Xiao, H. (2015) 'The managerial gaze: The long tail of tourism education and research'. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54(2), pp. 139-151.
- Alcadipani, R. and Hassard, J. (2010) 'Actor-Network Theory, organizations and critique: toward a politics of organizing'. *Organization*, 17(4), pp. 419-435.
- Alejziak, W. (2019) 'A Scientific Explanation and Understanding of Epistemological Issues in Tourism Research (A Study Based on the Theories of Kurt Lewin and John Tribe)'. *Tourism*, 29 (2), pp.1-18.
- Alexander, M. (2007) 'Reflecting on changes in operational training in UK hospitality management degree programmes'. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19 (3), pp. 221-220.
- Alexander, M., Lynch, P., and Murray, R. (2009) 'Reassessing the core of hospitality management education: The continuing importance of training restaurants'. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 8(1), pp. 55-59.
- Aliyu, A. A., Singhry, I. M., Adamu, H., and Abubakar, M. M. (2015) 'Ontology, Epistemology and Axiology in Quantitative and Qualitative Research: Elucidation of the Research Philosophical Misconception'. In *Proceedings of the Academic*

Conference: *Mediterranean Publications & Research International on New Direction and Uncommon*, pp. 1054-1068.

Althusser, L. (1969) 'Ideology and Ideological State Apparatuses'. In B. Cosin (ed.): *School and Society*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, pp. 242-280.

Althusser, L. (1984) *Essays on Ideology*. London: Verso.

Alvesson, M., and Skoldberg, K. (2000) *Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research*. London, Thousand Oaks, CA and New Delhi: Sage.

Andrews, T. (2012) 'What is Social Constructionism?'. *Grounded Theory Review: An International Journal*, 11 (1).

Ando, H., Cousins, R. and Young, C. (2014) 'Achieving Saturation in Thematic Analysis: Development and Refinement of a Codebook'. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 3(4), pp. 1-7.

Apple, M. (1990) *Ideology and the Curriculum*. London: Routledge.

Aronowitz, S. and Giroux, H. (1991) *Postmodern Education: Politics, Culture and Social Criticism*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Ateljevic, I., Harris, C., Wilson, E., and Collins, F. L. (2005) 'Getting Entangled: Reflexivity and the Critical Turn in Tourism Studies'. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 30(2), pp. 5-18.

Ateljevic, I., Pritchard, A., and Morgan, N. (2007) *The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: Innovative Research Methodologies*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Auerbach, C. and Silverstein, L.B. (2003) *Qualitative data: An introduction to coding and analysis*. NYU press.

Ayikoru, M. (2009) 'Epistemology, Ontology and Tourism'. In J. Tribe (eds.). *Philosophical Issues in Tourism* (pp. 62-79). Bristol: Channel View Publications.

Ayikoru, M. (2014) Neoliberalism and the new managerialism in tourism and hospitality education.

Ayikoru, M., Tribe, J., and Airey, D. (2009) 'Reading tourism education: Neoliberalism unveiled'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36 (2), pp. 191-221.

Barnes, T. J. (2001) 'In the beginning was economic geography – a science studies approach to disciplinary history'. *Progress in Human Geography*, 25(4), pp. 521–544.

Barnett, R. (1990) *The Idea of Higher Education*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.

- Barnett, R. (1992) *Improving Higher Education: Total Quality Care*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.
- Barnett, R. (1994) *The Limit of Competence: Knowledge, Higher Education and Society*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.
- Barnett, R. (2000) *Realizing the University in an age of supercomplexity*. Buckingham: SRHE Press/OUP.
- Barnett, R. (2005) 'Recapturing the Universal in the University'. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 37(6), pp. 785-797.
- Barnett, R. (2011) *Being a University*. Abingdon and New York: Routledge.
- Barnett, R. (2013) *Imagining the University*. London: Routledge.
- Barnett, R. (2016) *Understanding the University: Institution, Idea, Possibilities*. New York: Routledge.
- Baum, T. (2007) 'Human Resources in Tourism: Still Waiting for Change'. *Tourism Management*, 28, pp. 1383-1399.
- Baum, T. (2008) Strathclyde University. Message posted to <https://listserv.heanet.ie/cgi-bin/wa?A2=ind0806&L=DIT-TSM-HOSP-IRL&P=916>.
- Baum, T. (2012) 'Human resource management in tourism: a small island perspective'. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 6(2), pp. 124-132.
- Beard, L., Scarles, C., and Tribe, J. (2016) 'Mess and method: Using ANT in tourism research'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 60, pp. 97-110.
- Becher, T. (1989) *Academic Tribes and Territories: Intellectual Enquiry and the Cultures of Disciplines*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.
- Becher, T., and Trowler, P. R. (2001) *Academic Tribes and Territories: Intellectual Enquiry and the Culture of Disciplines*. SRHE and Open University Press (2nd Edition). Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.
- Belhassen, Y. and Caton, K. (2009) 'Advancing Understanding: A Linguistic Approach to Tourism Epistemology'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36 (2), pp. 335-352.
- Belhassen, Y., and Caton, K. (2011) 'On the need for critical pedagogy in tourism education'. *Tourism Management*, 32, pp. 1389-1396.

- Benali, A. and Ren, C. (2019) 'Lice Work: Non-human Trajectories in Volunteer Tourism'. *Tourist Studies*, 19 (2), pp. 238-257.
- Berger, P.L. and Luckmann, T. (1966) *The Social Construction of Reality: A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge*. Doubleday & Company, New York.
- Berryman, D.R. (2019) 'Ontology, Epistemology, Methodology, and Methods: Information for Librarian Researchers'. *Medical Reference Services Quarterly*, 38 (3), pp. 271-279.
- Beyer, J. M., and Lodahl, T. M. (1976) "A comparative study of patterns of influence in United States and English universities". *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21(1), pp, 104–129.
- Bianchi, R.V. (2009) 'The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: A Radical Critique'. *Tourism Geographies*, 11(4), pp. 484-504.
- Bilodeau, A. and Potvin, L. (2018) 'Unpacking complexity in public health interventions with Actor-Network Theory'. *Sociology of Health and Illness*, 4(1), pp. 165-179.
- Bird, J., Van de Mortel, T., Holt, J., and Walo, M. (2015) 'Academics' perception of continuous and collaborative curriculum review: An Australia case study'. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 24, pp. 18-24.
- Bloomberg, L. D., and Volpe, M. (2008) *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A roadmap from beginning to end*. Sage.
- Bogdan, R. and Taylor, S. J. (1975) *Introduction to qualitative research methods: a phenomenological approach to the social sciences*. New York: Wiley.
- Boyatzis, R.E. (1998) *Transforming qualitative information: thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks CA: Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Botterill, D. (2001) 'The epistemology of a set of tourism studies'. *Leisure Studies*, 20(3), pp. 199-214.
- Braun, V., and Clarke, V. (2006) 'Using thematic analysis in psychology'. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), pp. 77–101.
- Braun, V., and Clarke, V. (2013) *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners*. London, England: Sage.
- Braun, V., and Clarke, V. (2021) *Thematic Analysis: A Practical Guide*. London: Sage.

- Brennan, J., Teichler, U. (2008) 'The future of higher education and of higher education research'. *High Education*, 56, pp. 259–264.
- Brooker, E. and Joppe, M. (2017) 'Rethinking tourism scholarship beyond disciplinary convention'. *Tourism Management Perspective*, 23, pp. 112-118.
- Brotherton, B. (1999) 'Toward a definitive view of the nature of hospitality and hospitality management'. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 11(4), pp. 163-173.
- Brotherton, B. and Wood, R.C. (2000) 'Defining hospitality and hospitality management'. In C. Lashley and A. Morrison (eds): *In Search of Hospitality – Theoretical Perspectives and Debates*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann, pp. 134-156.
- Brotherton, B. and Wood, R. (2008) '*Hospitality and hospitality management*'. In C. Lashley and A. Morrison (2nd eds): *In Search of Hospitality: Theoretical Perspective and Debates*. Stoneham: Butterworth-Heinemann, MA, pp. 134-146.
- Brown, G. *et al.* (1983) *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge university press.
- Bryce, T. and Humes, W. (2013) 'The Scottish Qualifications Authority'. In G.K. Bryce, W. Humes, M. Gillies and A. Kennedy (eds): *Scottish Education. Fourth Edition: Referendum*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, pp. 681-692.
- Bryman, A. (2004) *Social research methods* (2nd eds). Oxford University Press, New York, 592.
- Burns, M., Bally, J., Burles, M., Hotslander, L., and Peacock, S. (2022) 'Constructivist Grounded Theory or Interpretivism Phenomenology? Methodological Choices Within Specific Study Contexts'. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 21, pp. 1-13.
- Burr, V. (1995) *An introduction to social constructionism*. United Kingdom: Routledge Ltd.
- Butowski, L., Kaczmarek, J., Kowalczyk-Anioł, J., Szafrńska, E. (2021) 'Social constructionism as a tool to maintain an advantage in tourism research'. *Tourism Geographies*, 23 (1-2), pp. 53-74.
- Callon, M. (1986) 'Some elements of a sociology of translation; domestication of the scallops and the fishermen of St Briec Bay'. In: Law, J. (eds): *Power, action and belief a new sociology of knowledge?*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

- Callon, M., and Latour, B. (1981) 'Unscrewing the big leviathan: How actors macro-structure reality and how sociologists help them to do so'. *Advances in social theory and methodology: Toward an integration of micro-and macro-sociologies*, 1.
- Carduff, E., Murray, S.A. and Kendall, M. (2015) 'Methodological developments in qualitative longitudinal research: the advantages and challenges of regular telephone contact with participants in a qualitative longitudinal interview study'. *BMC Res Notes* 8, 142.
- Caton, K. (2014) 'Underdisciplinarity: Where are the humanities in tourism education?'. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 15, pp. 24–33.
- Caton, K. (2015). 'Studying Tourism: Where's the Humanity in It?'. In S. Pauline and C. Hsu: *Tourism Education: Global Issues and Trends*. Emerald, pp. 15-39.
- Causevic, S. and Lynch, P. A. (2009) 'Hospitality as a Human Phenomenon: Host-Guest Relationships in a Post-conflict Setting, Journal of Tourism'. *Hospitality Planning and Development*, 6 (2), pp.121-132.
- Chambers, D. (2007) 'Interrogating the 'critical' in critical approaches to tourism research'. In I. Ateljevic, A. Pritchard, and N. Morgan (eds): *The critical turn in tourism studies: Innovative research methodologies*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, pp. 105–120.
- Chandler, J. (2009) "Introduction: Doctrines, Disciplines, Discourses, Departments". *Critical Inquiry*, 35 (4), p. 729-746.
- Charmaz, K. and Belgrave, L. (2012) 'Qualitative interviewing and grounded theory analysis'. *The SAGE handbook of interview research: The complexity of the craft*, 2, pp. 347-365.
- Chettiparamb, A. (2007) 'Interdisciplinarity: A Literature Review'. The Interdisciplinary Teaching and Learning Group, Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies, School of Humanities, University of Southampton.
- Christie, F. and Maton, K. (2015) 'Why Disciplinarity?'. In K. Matin and F. Christie (eds): *Disciplinarity: Systemic functional and sociological perspectives*. London, Continuum, pp. 1-9.
- Clark, B. (1983) *The Higher Education System: Academic Organisation in Cross-National Perspective*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

- Cloke, P. and O. Jones (2004) 'Turning in the Graveyard: Trees and the Hybrid Geographies of Dwelling, Monitoring and Resistance in a Bristol Cemetery'. *Cultural Geography*, 11, pp. 180–208.
- Coleman, P., Jackson, R., Ritchie, C., Roberts, A. and Snelgrove, M. (2002) 'An Evaluation of the Content, Appropriateness and Academic Rigour of Food and Beverage Modules within Undergraduate Hospitality Management Programmes'. *The Welsh School of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Management*, p.22.
- Coles, T.E, Hall, C.M and Duval, D.T. (2005) 'Mobilizing Tourism: A Post-disciplinary Critique'. *Tourism Recreation Tourism*, 30 (2), pp. 31-41.
- Coles, T.E, Hall, C.M and Duval, D.T. (2006) 'Tourism and post-disciplinary enquiry'. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9 (4-5), pp. 293-319.
- Coles, T., Hall, C. M., and Duval, D. T. (2009) Postdisciplinary Tourism. In J. Tribe (eds.): *Philosophical Issues in Tourism*. Bristol: Channel View Publications, pp. 80-100.
- Coles, T., Hall, C. M., and Duval, D. T. (2016) 'Tourism and post-disciplinarity: back to the future?'. *Tourism Analysis*, 21 (Special issue on Post-disciplinarity), pp. 373-387.
- Collini, S. (2012) *What are Universities For?* London: Penguin Books.
- Corbin, J. M., and Strauss, A. L. (2015) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* (4th eds). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998) '*Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*'. London: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003) *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd eds). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. (2013) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4th eds). Sage Publications, Inc., London.
- Creswell, J.W. (2018) *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th eds). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Clark Plano, V. L., and Morales, A. (2007) 'Qualitative research designs: Selection and implementation'. *The counseling psychologist*, 35(2), pp. 236-264.

- Crossley, E. (2019) 'Deep reflexivity in tourism research'. *Tourism Geographies*, 23 (1-2), pp. 206- 227.
- Crotty, M (1998) *The Foundation of Social Research: Meaning and Perspectives in the Research Process*. Sage Publication.
- Dale, C. and Robinson, N. (2001) 'The theming of tourism education: a three-domain approach'. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13 (1), pp. 30-35.
- Darbellay, F. (2016) 'From disciplinarity to post-disciplinarity: tourism studies dedisciplined'. *Tourism Annual*, 21(4), pp. 363–372.
- Darbellay, F. (2019a) 'From Interdisciplinarity to Postdisciplinarity: Extending Klein's Thinking into the Future of the University'. *Issues in Interdisciplinary Studies*, 37(2), pp. 90-109.
- Darbellay, F. (2019b) 'Postdisciplinarity: Imagine the future, think the unthinkable. In T. Pernecky (ed.): *Post-disciplinary Knowledge*. London: Routledge, pp. 235-250.
- Darbellay, F. and Stock, M. (2012) 'Tourism as complex interdisciplinary research object'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39 (1), pp. 441-458.
- Davis, S. (2001) 'The Hawaiiification of Sipsonghanna: orality, power and cultural survival in southwest China'. *TDR: The Drama Review*, 45 (4), pp. 25-41.
- Dale, C. and Robinson, N. (2001) 'The theming of tourism education: a three-domain approach'. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(1), pp. 30-34.
- Deakin, H. and Wakefield, K. (2014) 'Skype Interviewing: Reflections of Two PhD Researchers'. *Qualitative Research*, 14 (5), pp. 603-616.
- Deem, R., Hillyard, S., and Reed, M. (2007) *Knowledge, Higher Education and the New Managerialism: The Changing Management of UK Universities*. Oxford: University Press.
- Delanty, G. (2001) *Challenging Knowledge: The University in the Knowledge Society*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.
- Denzin, N. K. (2001) 'The reflexive interview and a performative social science'. *Qualitative Research*, 1(1), pp. 23–46.
- Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1998) *The Landscape of Qualitative Research: Theories and Issues*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (2000) *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd eds). London, UK: Sage.
- DES (1987) *Higher Education: Meeting the Challenge*. London: HMSO.
- DfEE (1999) *Learning to Succeed: A New Framework for Post-16 Learning*, London: Stationery Office.
- Diefenbach, T. (2009) 'Are case studies more than sophisticated storytelling?: Methodological problems of qualitative empirical research mainly based on semi-structured interviews'. *Qual Quant*, vol 43, pp. 875–894.
- Dredge, D. and Jenkins, J. (2011) *Stories of practice: Tourism policy and planning*. Ashgate Publishing, Ltd.
- Dredge, D., Benckendorff, P., Day, M., Gross, M.J, Walo, M., Weeks, P., and Whitelaw, P. (2012) 'The philosophic practitioner and the curriculum space'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39 (4), pp. 2154-2176.
- Dredge, D., Benckendorff, P., Day, M., Gross, M.J, Walo, M., Weeks, P., and Whitelaw, P. (2013) 'Drivers of change in tourism, hospitality, and event management0 education: An Australian perspective'. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 25 (2), pp. 89-102.
- Dredge, J., Jenkins, Whitford, M. (2011) 'Stories of practice'. In D. Dredge, J. Jenkins, M. Whitford (eds): *Stories of Practice: Tourism planning and policy*. Ashgate, Surrey & Burlington.
- Dwiartama, A., and C. Rosin. (2014) 'Exploring agency beyond humans: the compatibility of Actor-Network Theory (ANT) and resilience thinking'. *Ecology and Society*, 19(3), pp. 28.
- Echtner, C. M. and Jamal, T. B. (1997) 'The disciplinary dilemma of tourism studies". *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (4), pp. 868-883.
- Edelheim, J. (2020) 'How should tourism education values be transformed after 2020?'. *Tourism Geographies*, 22 (3), pp. 547-554.
- Edwards and Roy (2017) 'Academic Research in the 21st Century: Maintaining Scientific Integrity in a Climate of Perverse Incentives and Hypercompetition'. *Environmental Engineering Science*, 34 (1), pp. 51-61.
- Eisenhardt, K.M. (1989) 'Building theories from case study research'. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, pp. 532–550.

- Eisenhardt, K. M. and Graebner, M. E. (2007) 'Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges'. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50 (2), pp. 25-32.
- Elwood, S. (2010) 'Mixed Methods: Thinking, Doing, and Asking in Multiple Ways'. In D. DeLyser, S. Herbert, S. Aitken, M. Crang and L. McDowell (5th eds): *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Geography*. London: Sage.
- Evans, M. (1998) 'The researcher as research tool'. In J. Eyles and D. Smith (eds): *Qualitative Methods in Human Geography*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Evans, A. Elford, J. and Wiggins, R.D. (2008) 'Using the Internet for qualitative research'. In C. Willig and W. Stainton-Rogers (eds.): *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research in Psychology*. Sage Publications: London, pp. 315-333.
- Fennell, D. (2013) 'The ethics of excellent in tourism research'. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(4), pp. 417- 425.
- Fairbrother, G.P. (2007) 'Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches to Comparative Education'. In: Bray, M., Adamson, B., Mason, M. (eds): *Comparative Education Research. CERC Studies in Comparative Education*, vol 19. Springer, Dordrecht.
- Farooq, M. (2018) 'Sustainable leadership practices in higher education institutions: an analytical review of literature'. *International Symposium on Chaos, Complexity and Leadership, Springer, Cham*, pp. 235-245.
- Fenwick, T. and Edwards R. (2011) *Researching Education through Actor-Network Theory*. Wiley online library.
- Fenwick, T., Edwards R., and Sawchuk, P. (2012) *Emerging Approaches to Educational Research Tracing the Socio-Material* (1st eds). London: Routledge.
- Fenwick, T. and Landri, P. (2012) 'Materialities, Textures and Pedagogies: Socio-material Assemblages in Education'. *Culture and Society*, 20 (1), pp. 1-7.
- Fernie, S., Pilcher, N. and Smith, K. L. (2013) 'The Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework: what's academic practice got to do with it?'. *European Journal of Education*, 49 (2), pp. 233-248.
- Field, J. (2013) 'Institutional and Curricular Structures'. In: Bryce, T. G. K., Humes, W. H., Gillies, D. and Kennedy, A. (eds): *Scottish Education Fourth Edition: Referendum*. Edinburgh University Press, Chapter 81, pp. 745-754.
- Fidgeon, P. R., (2010) 'Tourism education and curriculum design: A time for consolidation and review?'. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), pp. 699– 723.

- Finlay, L. (2002) 'Negotiating the swamp: The opportunity and challenge of reflexivity in research practice'. *Qualitative Research*, 2, pp. 209–230.
- Fiss, P.C. (2009) 'Case studies and the configurational analysis of organizational phenomena'. In D.S. Byrne, and C.C. Ragin (eds): *The SAGE handbook of case-based methods*, London/Thousand Oaks: Sage, pp. 424–440.
- Flick, U. (2013) *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis*. Sage Publications Ltd.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006) 'Five misunderstandings about case study research'. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), pp. 219-245.
- Fox, S. (2002) 'Studying Networked Learning: Some Implications from Socially Situated Learning Theory and Actor Network Theory'. In C. Steeples and C. Jones: *Networked Learning: Perspectives and Issues*. London: Springer, pp. 77–92.
- Foster, E. and Stephenson, J. (1998) 'Work-based Learning and Universities in the U.K: a review of current practice and trends'. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 17 (2), pp. 155-170.
- Foucault, M. (1988) *Madness and Civilization: A History of Insanity in the Age of Reason* (R. Howard, Translator). New York: Vintage Books.
- Foucault, M., (1991) *Discipline and punish. The birth of the prison*. London: Penguin.
- Foster, E. and Stephenson, J. (1998) 'Work-based Learning and Universities in the UK: a review of current practice and trends'. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 17 (2), pp. 155-170.
- Fullagar, L. and Wilson, E. (2012) 'Critical pedagogies: A reflexive approach to knowledge creation in tourism and hospitality studies'. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 19, pp.1-16.
- Gage, N. (1989) 'The Paradigm Wars and Their Aftermath A "Historical" Sketch of Research on Teaching Since 1989'. *Educational Researcher*, 18(7), pp. 4-10.
- Gerring, J. (2011) *Social science methodology: Tasks, strategies, and criteria*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowotny, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P. and Trow, M. (1994) *The New Production of Knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societies*. Sage Publications Ltd.

- Giddens, A. (1984) *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Polity Press, Cambridge.
- Gill, A. (2012) 'Travelling down the road to postdisciplinarity? Reflections of a tourism geographer'. *Canadian Geographies*, 56 (1), pp. 3-17.
- Gillespie, C. and Baum, T. (2000) 'Innovation and Creativity in Professional Higher Education: Development of a CD-Room to Support Teaching and Learning in Food and Beverage Management'. *Scottish Journal of Adult and Continuing Education*, 6 (2), pp. 147-165.
- Giroux, H. A (2007) *The university in chains: Confronting the military-industrial-academic complex*. Routledge.
- Giroux, H.A. (2009) 'Democracy's Nemesis: The Rise of the Corporate University'. *Cultural Studies Critical Methodologies*, 9 (5), pp. 669–695.
- Giroux, H. A (2014) *Neoliberalism's War on Higher Education*. Haymarket Books.
- Glesne, C. (2006) *Becoming a Qualitative Researcher: An Introduction*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Gomm, R., Hammersley, M., and Foster, P. (2000) 'Case study and generalization'. In R. Gomm, M. Hammersley, and P. Foster (eds): *Case study method*. London: Sage, pp. 98-115.
- Goodson, L., and Phillimore, J. (2004) 'The inquiry paradigm in qualitative tourism research'. In J. Phillimore and L. Goodson (eds): *Qualitative Research in Tourism* (pp. 30-45). London: Routledge.
- Graburn, N. and Jafari, J. (1991) 'Introduction: Tourism social science'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), pp. 1-11.
- Graham J., Grewal I., Lewis J. (2007) 'Ethics in social research: The views of research participants'. Working paper series, number 30, ESRC Research Methods Programme, 2006.
- Guba, E. G., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1989) *Fourth Generation Evaluation*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Guba, E. G., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994) 'Competing paradigms in qualitative research'. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (eds): *Handbook of qualitative research*. Sage Publications, Inc, pp. 105–117.

- Guba, E. G., and Lincoln, Y. S. (2004) 'Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research: Theories and Issues'. In S. N. Hesse-Biber and P. Leavy (eds): *Approaches to Qualitative Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 17-38.
- Gubrium, J.F. et al. (2012) *The SAGE Handbook of Interview Research: The Complexity of the Craft*. SAGE.
- Habermas, J. (1987) *The theory of communicative action* (Vol.2). Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Habermas, J. (1984) *The theory of communicative action*. Boston, Beacon Press.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A. and Johnson, L. (2006) 'How many interviews are enough?: An Experiment with data saturation and variability'. *Field Methods*, 18 (1), pp. 59-82.
- Hall, C. M. (2005). Reconsidering the geography of tourism and contemporary mobility. *Geographical Research*, 43(2), 125–139.
- Hanna, P. (2012) 'Using internet technologies (such as Skype) as a research medium: a research note'. *Qualitative Research*, 12 (2), pp. 239-242.
- Harvey, D. (2005) *A brief history of neoliberalism*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Harvey, D. (2006) 'Neo-liberalism as creative destruction'. *Geography and Power*, 88 (2), pp. 145-158.
- HEFCE (1998) *Review of hospitality Management*. Bristol: HEFCE.
- Hessels, L. K., and van Lente, H. (2008) 'Re-thinking new knowledge production: A literature review and a research agenda'. *Research Policy*, 37(4), pp. 740-760.
- Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2006) 'More than an "industry": The forgotten power of tourism as a social force'. *Tourism Management*, 27 (6), pp. 1192-1208.
- Hollinshead, K. (1999) 'Surveillance of the worlds of tourism: Foucault and the eye-of power'. *Tourism Management*, 20 (1), pp. 7-23.
- Hollinshead, K. (2006) 'The shift to constructivism in social inquiry: Some pointers for tourism studies'. *Tourism recreation research*, 31(2), pp. 43-58.
- Hollinshead, K. (2010) 'Tourism Studies and Confined Understanding: The Call for a new sense Post-disciplinary Imaginary', *Tourism Analysis*, 15 (4), pp. 499-512.
- Hollinshead, K. (2016) 'Postdisciplinarity and the rise of intellectual openness: the necessity for plural knowability in tourism studies'. *Tourism Analysis*, 21 (4), pp. 349- 361.

- Holloway, I. and Todres, L. (2003) 'The Status of Method: Flexibility, Consistency and Coherence'. *Qualitative Research*, 3(3), pp. 345-357.
- Hsu, C. H. C. (2015) 'Tourism Education Scholarship'. In Sheldon, P. J., and Hsu, C. H. C. (eds): *Tourism Education: Global Issues and Trends*, *Tourism Social Science Series*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, 21, p. 1-11.
- Hsu, C. H. C., Xiao, H. and Chen, N. (2017) 'Hospitality and tourism education research from 2005 to 2014'. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(1), pp. 141–160.
- Hu, Y. (2020) 'The Concepts of Disciplines and Interdisciplinarity and Interdisciplinary Inspirations in Teaching ESL/EFL'. *Human Sciences Monograph Series*, 25, pp. 109-133.
- Hughes, M. (2013) 'Book review essay: The territorial nature of organization studies'. *Culture and Organization*, 19 (3), pp. 261-274.
- Hunter, S. L. (1972) *The Scottish educational system*. Pergamon.
- Ings, W. (2022) 'Stepping out of the Ivory Tower: practice-led inquiry and post-disciplinary research (M. Mortensen Steagall, Trans.)'. *The Geminis Journal*, 13 (2), pp. 5-16.
- Inui, Y., Wheeler, D., and Lankford, S. (2006) 'Rethinking tourism education: What should schools teach'. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 5(2), pp. 25–35.
- Israel, M. (2015) *Research Ethics and Integrity for Social Scientists: Beyond Regulatory Compliance* (2nd eds). London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Jaakkola, E. (2020) 'Designing conceptual articles: Four approaches', *AMS Review*, 10 (1–2), pp. 18–26.
- Jacobs, A. J (2014) *'In Defense of Disciplines: Interdisciplinarity and Specialization in the Research University'*. University of Chicago Press.
- Jafari, J. (1990) 'Research and Scholarship: The Basis of Tourism Education', *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 1 (1), pp. 33-41.
- Jafari, J. (2001) 'The scientification of tourism'. In V. Smith and M. Brent (eds): *Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century*, CABI, pp. 28–41.
- Jafari, J. and Ritchie, J.R. B. (1981) 'Toward a Framework for Tourism Education: Problems and Prospects'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8 (1), p. 13-34.

- Jameson, S., Walmsley, A. and Ball, S. (2006) '*A review of hospitality management education in the UK*', Leeds: Council for Hospitality Management Education.
- James, N and Busher, H (2006) 'Creating and enriching interviews in qualitative online research'. Paper presented the British Educational Research Association (BERA) Annual Conference, Coventry, UK: University of Warwick.
- Jahn, R., Bergmann, M., & Keil, F. (2012) 'Transdisciplinarity, between mainstreaming and marginalization'. *Ecological Economics*, 79, pp. 1–10.
- Johannesson, G. (2005) 'Tourism Translation: Actor-Network Theory and Tourism'. *Tourist Studies*, 5 (2), pp. 133–150.
- Jones, P. (1996) *Introduction to Hospitality Operations*. Cassell, London.
- Jones, P. (2004) 'Finding the hospitality industry? Or finding hospitality schools of thought?'. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 3(1), pp. 33-45.
- Jordan, F., and Gibson, H. (2004) 'Let your data do the talking: researching the solo travel experiences of British and American women'. In L. Goodson and J. Phillimore (eds.): *Qualitative Research in Tourism: Ontologies, Epistemologies and Methodologies*. London: Routledge.
- Kallio H, Pietilä AM, Johnson M, Kangasniemi M. (2016) 'Systematic methodological review: developing a framework for a qualitative semi-structured interview guide'. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 72 (12), pp. 2954-2965.
- Kaplan, B., Maxwell, J.A. (2005) 'Qualitative Research Methods for Evaluating Computer Information Systems'. In: Anderson, J.G., Aydin, C.E. (eds.): *Evaluating the Organizational Impact of Healthcare Information Systems. Health Informatics*. Springer, New York, NY.
- Kauppinen, I. (2003) 'Different Meanings of Knowledge as Commodity in the Context of Higher Education. *Critical Sociology*, 40 (3), pp. 393-409.
- Keating, M. (2005) 'Higher Education in Scotland and England after devolution'. *Regional and Federal Studies*, 15 (4), pp. 423-435.
- Kerevan, G. (2013) 'Democratic Intellect or Degree Factory? The Changing Civic and Cultural Place of the University in Scotland'. In: Bryce, T. G. K., Humes, W. H., Gillies, D. and Kennedy, A. (eds): *Scottish Education Fourth Edition: Referendum*. Edinburgh University Press, Chapter 82, pp. 755-767.

- Kemp, N. and Lawton, W. (2021) *A strategic analysis of the Scottish higher education sector's distinctive assets: An update*. British Council Scotland.
- Kincheloe, J. L., and McLaren, P. (1994) 'Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research'. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (eds): *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, pp. 138-157.
- King, N. (2004) *Using Templates in Thematic Analysis of Text*. In: *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications, pp. 257-270.
- Klein, J. T. (1990) *Interdisciplinarity: History, Theory, and Practice*. Detroit: Wayne State University Press.
- Klein, J.T., (2004) 'Prospects for transdisciplinarity', *Futures*, 36 (4), pp. 515–526.
- Klein, J. T. (2010) 'A Taxonomy of Interdisciplinarity'. In: R. Frodeman, J. T. Klein, & C. Mitcham (eds): *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity* (pp. 15-30). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Klein, J. T. (2018) 'Learning in Transdisciplinary Collaborations: A Conceptual Vocabulary'. In D. Fam, L. Neuhauser and P. Gibbs (eds): *Transdisciplinary Theory, Practice and Education: The Art of Collaborative Research and Collective Learning*, Springer, Cham, pp. 11-24.
- Koh, K. (1995) 'Designing the Four-Year Tourism Education: Problems and Prospects'. *Journal of Travel Research*, 24 (1), pp. 68-72.
- Korstanje, M.E., Cisneros, L.C. and Herrera, S. (2016) 'Understanding the indiscipline of tourism: A radical critique to the current'. *Global dynamics in travel, tourism and hospitality*, 208.
- Krauss, S. E., Hamzah, A., Omar, Z., Suandi, T., Ismail, I. A., Zahari, M. Z., & Nor, Z. M. (2009) 'Preliminary Investigation and Interview Guide Development for Studying how Malaysian Farmers Form their Mental Models of Farming'. *The Qualitative Report*, 14 (2), 245-260.
- Krishnan, A. (2009) 'What are Academic Disciplines? Some Observations on the Disciplinarity vs. Interdisciplinarity Debate', *ESRC National Centre for Research Methods, NCRM Working Paper Series*, 03/09.

- Kuhn, T. S. (1970) *Logic of discovery or psychology of research. I. Lakatos and A. Musgrave, eds. Criticism and the Growth of Knowledge*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 1–23.
- Kunwar, R.R. (2017) ‘What is hospitality?’. *The Gaze: Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, 8, pp. 55-115.
- Lapan, S.D., Quartaroli, M.T. and Riemer, F.J. (2012) *Qualitative research: An introduction to methods and designs*. Jossey-Bass.
- Lashley, C. (2008) ‘Studying hospitality: Insights from social sciences’. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 8 (1), pp. 69-84.
- Lashley, C. (2013) ‘Managing the tyranny of relevance: linking with industry – but not too much!’. *WorldWide Hospitality & Tourism*, 5 (3), pp. 233-295.
- Lashley, C. (2015) ‘Hospitality and hospitableness’. *Research in Hospitality Management*, 5(1), pp. 1-7.
- Lashley, C. and Morrison, A. (2000) *In Search of Hospitality: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates* (eds). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, pp. 276-292.
- Lashley, C. and Morrison, A. (2002) ‘In Search of Hospitality: Theoretical Perspectives and Debates’. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14 (2), pp. 98-100.
- Lashley, C., Lynch, P. A. and Morrison, A. (2007) *Hospitality: A Social Lens* (eds). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Latour, B. (1987) *Science in action: how to follow scientists and engineers through society*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Latour B. (1999) *Pandora's Hope. Essays on the reality of science studies*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Latour, B. (1993) *We have Never been Modern*. Hertfordshire: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Latour, B. (2005) *Reassembling the social: An introduction to actor-network-theory*. Oxford: Oxford University press.
- Law, J. (1992) ‘Notes on the theory of the actor–network: ordering, strategy, and heterogeneity’. *Systems Practice*, 5 (4), pp. 379–393.
- Law, J. (2009) ‘Actor network theory and material semiotics’. *The New Blackwell Companion to Social Theory*, 3, pp. 141–158.

- Law, E. and Scott, N. (2015) 'Tourism research: building from other disciplines'. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 40 (1), pp. 48-58.
- Leitch, C. M., Hill, F. M. and Harrison, R. T. (2010) 'The Philosophy and Practice of Interpretivist Research in Entrepreneurship: Quality, Validation, and Trust'. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13 (1), pp. 67-84.
- Lehto, X. Y., Kirillova, K., Wang, D., and Fu, X. (2022) 'Convergence of boundaries in tourism, hospitality, events, and leisure: Defining the core and knowledge structure'. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 48 (3), pp. 407-419.
- Lewin, K. (1953) 'Defining the field at a given time', *Psychological Review*, 50, pp. 292-310.
- Liburd, J. J. (2012) 'Tourism research 2.0'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39 (2), pp. 883-907.
- Lincoln, Y., and Guba, E. G. (1985) '*Naturalistic inquiry*'. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Lindgren, M., and Packendorff, J. (2011) 'Issues, responsibilities and identities: A distributed leadership perspective on biotechnology R&D management'. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 20(3), pp. 157–170.
- Litteljohn, D. (2004) 'The UK research assessment exercise 2001: An analysis for hospitality research', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 23 (1), pp. 25-38.
- Lohmann, G. and Netto, P. (2017) *Tourism theory: concepts, models and systems*. Cabi. Oxfordshire.
- Lykke, N. (2011) 'This Discipline which is not one: Feminist Studies as a Postdiscipline'. In R. Buikema, G. Griffin and N. Lykke (1st eds): *Theories and Methodologies in Postgraduate Feminist Research: Researching Differently*. Routledge: New York.
- Lugosi, P. (2008) 'Hospitality spaces, hospitable moments: Consumer encounters and affective experiences in commercial settings'. *Journal of foodservice*, 19 (2), pp. 139-149.
- Lugosi, P. (2009) 'The Production of Hospitable Space: Commercial Propositions and Consumer Co-Creation in a Bar Operation'. *Space and Culture*, 12 (4), pp. 396-411.
- Lugosi, P., Lynch, P. and Morrison, A. (2009) 'Critical hospitality management research'. *The Service Industries Journal*, 29 (10), pp. 1465-1478.

- Lugosi, P. and Jameson, S. (2017) 'Challenges in hospitality management education: Perspectives from the United Kingdom'. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 31, pp. 163-172.
- Lykke, N. (2010) *Feminist Studies: A Guide to Intersectional Theory, Methodology and Writing*. New York: Routledge.
- Lynch, P., Molz, J. G., McIntosh, A., Lugosi, P. and Lashley, C. (2011) 'Theorizing hospitality'. *Hospitality & Society*, 1(1), pp. 3–24.
- Macpherson, S. (2015) 'Higher Education Governance (Scotland) Bill: Stage 3'. *Scottish Parliament Information Centre (SPICe)*.
- Malamud, O. (2010) 'Breadth vs Depth: The Timing of Specialization in Higher Education'. Working paper. National Bureau of Economic Research. Cambridge. MA 02138.
- Mann, C. and Stewart, F. (2000) *Internet Communication and Qualitative Research: A Handbook for Researching Online*. London: Sage.
- Mannheim, K. (1960) *Ideology and Utopia: An Introduction to the Sociology of Knowledge*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Mason, J. (2002) *Qualitative Researching* (2nd eds). Sage Publications, London.
- Marginson, S. and Considine, M. (2000) *The enterprise university: power, governance and reinvention in Australia*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Marton, S. (2005) 'Academics and the Mode-2 Society: Shifts in Knowledge Production in the Humanities and Social Sciences'. In: Bleiklie, I., Henkel, M. (eds): *Governing Knowledge*. Higher Education Dynamics, vol 9. Springer, Dordrecht, pp. 169-188.
- May, T. (2011) *Social research: issues, methods and process* (4th eds.). Maidenhead, Berkshire, England: Maidenhead, Berkshire, England: McGraw Hill, Open University Press.
- Mayring, P. (2004) 'Qualitative content analysis'. *A companion to qualitative research*, 1 (2), pp. 159- 176.
- Merriam, S.B. (1998) *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009) *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Merton, R.K., Fiske, M. and Kendall, P.L. (1990) *The Focused Interview: A Manual of Problems and Procedures*. (2nd eds). Free Press, New York.
- Meyer, J. W. (1977) 'The Effects of Education as an Institution'. *American Journal of Sociology*, 83 (1), p. 340-363.
- Miles, M.B. and Huberman, A.M. (1994) *Qualitative Data Analysis: An expanded source book* (2nd eds). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Morgan-Klein, B. (2003) 'Negotiating the climbing frame: flexibility and access in Scottish higher education'. *European Journal of Education*, 38(1), pp. 41-54.
- Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., Causevic, S. and Minnaert, L. (2018) 'Ten Years of Critical Tourism Studies: Reflections on the Road Less Traveled', *Tourism Analysis*, 23 (2), pp. 183- 187.
- Morrison, A. and O'Mahony, B. (2002) 'Hospitality: a liberal introduction'. Leeds Metropolitan University, Leeds.
- Morrison, A. and O'Mahony, B. (2008) 'Hospitality studies and hospitality management: A symbiotic relationship'. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27 (2), pp. 214-221.
- Morrison, A. (2018) 'Hospitality research: Legacies and futures'. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, pp. 189–192.
- Murdoch, J. (2006) *Post-structuralist Geography: A guide to relational space*. London: Sage.
- Munar, A. M. (2016) 'The House of Tourism Studies and the Systematic Paradigm'. In A.M. Munar and T. Jamal (eds): *Tourism Research Paradigms: Critical and Emergent Knowledges*. Bingley. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp. 131-153.
- Munar, A. M, Pernecky, T. and Feighery, W. (2016) 'An Introduction to Tourism Postdisciplinarity', *Toursim Analysis*, 21 (4), pp. 343-375.
- Nailon, P. (1982) 'Theory in hospitality management'. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 1, pp.135-143.
- Nadin, S. and Cassell, C. (2006) 'The use of a research diary as a tool for reflexive practice: Some reflections from management research'. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*, 3 (3), pp. 208-217.
- Neumann, R. (2009) 'Disciplinary'. In: M. Tight, K.H. Mok, J. Huisman and C.C. Morphey (eds): *The Routledge International Handbook of Higher Education*. London and New York: Routledge, p. 487-500.

- Neuman, W.L. (2014) *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. (7th eds) Pearson Education Limited.
- Newson, J. A. (1994) 'Subordinating Democracy: The Effects of Fiscal Retrenchment and University-Business Partnerships on Knowledge Creation and Knowledge Dissemination in Universities'. *Higher Education*, 27 (2), pp. 141-161.
- Nowotny, H., Scott, P., and Gibbons, M. (2001) *Rethinking Science: Knowledge and the Public in an Age of Uncertainty*. London: Polity.
- Nowotny, H., Scott, P., and Gibbons, M. (2003) 'Mode 2 revisited: The new production of knowledge'. *Minerva*, 41(3), pp. 179-194.
- O'Connor H, Madge, C., Shaw, R. (2008) 'Internet-based interviewing'. In: N. Fielding, N. Lee, G. Blank (eds): *The SAGE Handbook of Online Research Methods*. London: Sage, pp. 271–289.
- Olmos-Vega, F.M., Stalmeijer, R. E., Varpio, L. and Kahlke, R. (2022) 'A practical guide to reflexivity in qualitative research: AMEE Guide, No. 149'. *Medical Teacher*, 45 (3), pp. 241-251.
- O'Mahony, B. (2015) 'Exploring the impact of the constructs of the three domain approach on private social and commercial hospitality provision'. *Journal of Research in Hospitality Management*, 5 (1), pp. 29-36.
- Ottenbacher, M., Harrington R. and Parsa H. G. (2009) 'Defining the hospitality discipline: A discussion of pedagogical and research implications'. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(3), pp. 263–283.
- Olssenm, M. and Peters, M.A. (2005) 'Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: from the free market to knowledge capitalism'. *Journal of Education Policy*, 20 (3), pp. 313-345.
- Oppenheim, Robert. (2007) 'Actor-network theory and anthropology after science, technology, and society'. In *Anthropological Theory*, 7 (4), pp. 471-493.
- Parker, J. (2002) 'A new disciplinarity: Communities of knowledge, learning and practice'. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 7(4), pp. 373-386.
- Paterson, L. (2003) *Scottish Education in the Twentieth Century*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Patton, M. (1990) *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Patton, M. (2002) *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (3rd eds). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pernecky, T. and Jamal, T. (2010) '(Hermeneutic) Phenomenology in tourism studies'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37 (4), pp. 1055-1075.
- Pernecky, T., Munar, A. A. and Feighery, W. (2016) 'Tourism in a Post-disciplinary Milieu: Final Demarcation Points'. *Tourism Analysis*, 21 (4), pp. 431- 434.
- Pernecky, T., Munar, A. A. and Wheeler, B. (2016) 'Existential Post-disciplinarity Personal Journeys into Tourism, Art and Freedom'. *Tourism Analysis*, 21 (4), pp. 389-401.
- Pillow, W. S. (2010) 'Dangerous reflexivity Rigour, responsibility and reflexivity in qualitative research'. In P. Thomson and M. Walker (1st eds): *The Routledge Doctoral Student's Companion Getting to Grips with Research in Education and the Social Science*. London: Routledge.
- Post, R. (2009) 'Debating disciplinary'. *Critical Inquiry*, 35 (4), pp. 749-770.
- Pritchard, A. and N. Morgan (2007) 'Encountering scopophilia, sensuality and desire: Engendering Tahiti in travel magazines'. In A. Pritchard, N. Morgan, I. Ateljevic and C. Harris (eds.): *Tourism and Gender: Embodiment, Sensuality and Experience*. Oxford: CABI, pp. 158–181.
- Pritchard, A. and Morgan, N. and Ateljevic, I. (2011) 'Hopeful tourism: A new transformative perspective'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38 (3), pp. 941-963.
- Prondzynski, V. (2012) *Report of the Review of Higher Education Governance in Scotland*. The Review of Higher Education Governance, pp. 1-53.
- Quality Assurance Agency (2000) *Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism. Subject Benchmark Statement*. Gloucester: QAA.
- Pulla V. and Carter, E. (2018) 'Employing Interpretivism in Social Work Research'. *International Journal of Social Work and Human Services Practice*, 6 (1), pp. 9 – 14.
- Radice, H. (2013) 'How we got here: UK higher education under neoliberalism'. *ACME*, 12 (3), pp. 407–418.
- Readings, B. (1997) *The University in Ruins*. Harvard University Press.
- Rees, C., Forbes, P. and Kubler, B. (2006) *Student Employability Profiles: A Guide for Higher Education Practitioners*. York: The Higher Education Academy.

- Ren, C., Pritchard, A. and Morgan, N. (2010) 'Constructing tourism research: A Critical Inquiry'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37 (4), pp. 885-904.
- Riessman, C.K. (1993) *Narrative analysis*. Vol. 30. Sage.
- Ritzer, G. (1993) *The McDonaldization of Society*. Thousand Oaks, California: Pine Forge Press.
- Repko, A.F., (2012) *Interdisciplinary Research: Process and Theory* (2nd eds). Sage, Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi, Singapore.
- Riley, R. W. and Love, L. L. (2000) 'The state of qualitative tourism research'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27 (1), pp. 164-187.
- Robison, R.N., Breaky, N.M and Craig-Smith, S.J. (2010) 'Food for thought: Investigating food and beverage curricular in Australia hospitality degree programs'. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 22 (1), pp. 32-42.
- Rubin, H.J. and Rubin, I.S. (2004) *Qualitative Interviewing: The Art of Hearing Data*. (2nd eds) Los Angeles: Los Angeles: Sage Publications Inc.
- Russell, A. W., Wickson, F. and Carew, A. L. (2008) 'Transdisciplinarity: Context, contradictions and capacity'. *Futures*, 40 (5), pp. 460-472.
- Saldaña, J. (2014) 'Coding and analysis strategies'. In P. Leavy (eds): *The Oxford handbook of qualitative research*. Oxford University Press, pp. 581–605.
- Sanderson, M. (1972) *The Universities and British Industry 1850– 1970*, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London.
- Sarker, S. and A. Sidorova (2006) 'Understanding business process change failure: an actor–network perspective'. *Journal of Management Information Systems* 23 (1), pp. 51–86.
- Saunders, M.N.K. (2019) *Research methods for business students* (8th eds). Harlow, England: Pearson.
- Schlanger, J. (1992) 'Fondation, nouveauté', limites, mé moire'. *Communications*, 54, pp. 289 - 298.
- Schraub, D. (2013) 'Academic Freedom versus Academic Legitimacy'. *FIU Law Review*, 9 (1), pp. 71-72.
- Schwandt, T. A. (1998) 'Constructivist, Interpretivist Approach to Human Inquiry'. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (eds): *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and Issues*. London: Sage Publications.

- Schwandt, T. A. (2003) 'Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructionism'. In: N. K. Denzin, and Y. S. Lincoln (2nd eds): *The landscape of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 292-331).
- Schweinsberg, S. (2024) 'Tourism academic legacy: The importance of deciding what to leave behind'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 105, 103729.
- Schweinsberg, S., Sharley, R. and Dacry, S. (2022) 'Competitive positioning of tourism academic knowledge'. *Tourism Management*, 91, pp. 104-502.
- Seitz, S. (2016) 'Pixilated partnerships, overcoming obstacles in qualitative interviews via Skype: A research note'. *Qualitative Research*, 16 (2), pp. 229–235.
- Slattery, P. (2002) 'Finding the hospitality industry'. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 1(1), pp. 19-28.
- Smith, S. M and Rose, M. B and Hamilton, E. E (2010) 'The story of a university knowledge exchange actor-network told through the sociology of translation: a case study'. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 16 (6). pp. 502-516.
- Slattery, P. (2002) 'Finding the Hospitality Industry'. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 1 (1), pp. 19-28.
- Slattery, P. (2003) 'Finding the hospitality industry (Slattery's reply to Brotherton)'. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 2 (1), pp. 119-120.
- Slaughter, S. and Leslie, L.L. (1987) *Academic Capitalism: Politics, Policies, and the Entrepreneurial University*. Hopkins University Press.
- Stake, R. E. (1994) 'Case studies'. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (eds): *Handbook of qualitative research*. Sage Publications, Inc, pp. 236–247.
- Stake, R. E. (1995) *The art of case study research*. London: Sage.
- Stake, R. E. (2000) 'Case Studies'. In N. K. Denzin, and Y. S. Lincoln (eds): *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 435-453.
- Stake, R. E. (2005) 'Qualitative Case Studies'. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (eds): *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Sage Publications Ltd, pp. 443–466.
- Stichweh, R. (2001) 'Scientific Disciplines, History of'. *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences*, pp. 13727-13731.

- Teichler, U. (1996) 'Comparative Higher Education: potentials and limits'. *Higher Education*, 32, pp. 431-465.
- Tight, M. (2019) 'Mass Higher Education and Massification'. *Higher Education Policy*, 32, pp. 93-108.
- Tew, M. J. and Van Hoof, H. (2011) 'In Favor of Hospitality- Management Education'. *Hospitality Review Journal*, 29 (2).
- Thio, S. (2005) 'Understanding Hospitality Activities: Social, Private, and Commercial Domain'. *Jurnal Manajemen Perhotelan*, 1 (1), pp. 1-5.
- Thompson, C. J., Locander, W. B., & Pollio, H. R. (1989) 'Putting Consumer Experience Back into Consumer Research: The Philosophy and Method of Existential-Phenomenology', *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(2), pp. 133–146.
- Tobin, G.A. and Begley, C.M. (2004) 'Methodological Rigour within a Qualitative Framework'. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 48, pp. 388-396.
- Tomazos, K. and Murdy, S. (2023). Exploring actor-network theory in a volunteer tourism context: A delicate balance disrupted by COVID-19. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 56, 186- 196.
- Tribe, J. (1997) 'The indiscipline of tourism'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (3), pp. 638-67.
- Tribe, J. (2000) 'Balancing the Vocational: The Theory and Practice of Liberal Education in Tourism'. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 2 (1), pp. 9–26.
- Tribe, J. (2001) 'Research paradigms and the tourism curriculum'. *Journal of travel research*, 39, pp. 442-448.
- Tribe, J. (2002) 'The philosophic practitioner: A curriculum for tourism stewardship'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29 (2), pp. 338-357.
- Tribe, J. (2004) 'Knowing about tourism Epistemological issues'. In L. Goodson, and J. Phillimore: *Qualitative Research in Tourism: Ontologies, Epistemologies and Methodologies*. Routledge, p. 46- 62.
- Tribe, J. (2005) 'Tourism, knowledge, and the curriculum'. In D. Airey, and J. Tribe (eds.): *International Handbook of Tourism Education*. Amsterdam: Routledge, pp. 47-60.
- Tribe, J. (2009) *Philosophical Issues in Tourism* (eds). Bristol: Channel View.

- Tribe, J; Dann, G. and Jamal, T. (2015) 'Paradigms in tourism research: a trialogue'. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 40 (1), pp. 28-47.
- Tribe, J. and Liburd, J. (2016) 'Tourism knowledge system'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 57, pp. 44-61.
- Trowler, P. (2014) 'Depicting and researching disciplines: Strong and moderate essentialist approaches'. *Studies in Higher Education*, 39 (10), pp. 1720-1731.
- Tuckett, A.G. (2005) 'Applying thematic analysis theory to practice: A researcher's experience'. *Contemporary nurse*, 19 (1-2), pp. 75-87.
- Turner, S. (2000) 'What are disciplines? And How is Interdisciplinarity Different?'. In P. Weingart and Nico Stehr (eds): *Practising Interdisciplinary*. University of Toronto Press, pp. 46-65.
- Turner, D. (2008) *Blueprint for bosses to shape degrees*. Financial Times, p. 1.
- Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H. and Bondas, T. (2013) 'Content analysis and thematic analysis: Implications for conducting a qualitative descriptive study'. *Nursing & health sciences*, 15 (3), pp. 398- 405.
- Walton, J. (2009) 'Welcome to the Journal of Tourism History'. *Journal of Tourism History*, 1, pp.1-6.
- Van der Duim, R. (2005) '*Tourismscape: An Actor-network Perspective on Sustainable Tourism Development*'. PhD Thesis. Wageningen University.
- Van der Duim, R. (2007) 'Tourismscape An Actor-Network Perspective'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34 (4), pp. 961-976.
- Van der Duim, R., Ampumuza, C., and Ahebwa, W. M. (2014) 'Gorilla Tourism in Bwindi Impenetrable National Park, Uganda: An actor-network perspective'. *Society and Natural Resources: An International Journal*, 27 (6), pp. 588–601.
- Van der Duim, V.R. and Caalders, J. (2002) 'Biodiversity and Tourism: Impacts and Interventions'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29 (3), pp. 743-759.
- Van der Duim, R., Ren, C., and Jóhannesson, G. T. (2012) *Actor-Network Theory and Tourism; Ordering, materiality and multiplicity* (eds). London; New York: Routledge.
- Van der Duim, R., Ren, C., and Jóhannesson, G. T. (2017) 'ANT: A decade of interfering with tourism'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 64 (3), pp. 139-149.
- Van der Duim, R., Ren, C., and Jóhannesson, G. T. (2018) 'ANT: A decade of interfering with tourism'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 64, pp. 139-149.

- Van Maanen, J. (1988) *Tales of the field: on writing ethnography*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Vershinina, N. and Rodionova, Y. (2011) 'Methodological issues in studying hidden populations operating in informal economy'. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 11 (12), pp. 697-716.
- Von Prondzynski, F. (2012) 'Report of the Review of Higher Education Governance in Scotland'. The Review of Higher Education Governance.
- Veal, A.J. (1992) 'Definitions of leisure and recreation'. *Australian journal of leisure and recreation*, 52. pp. 44-48.
- Walsh, R. (2003) 'The methods of reflexivity'. *The Humanistic Psychologist*, 31 (4), pp. 51-66.
- Wang, N. (1999) 'Rethinking Authenticity in Tourism Experience'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26, pp. 349-370.
- Wang, J., Helen, A. and Jeremy, H. (2009) 'Job Ready Graduates: A Tourism Industry Perspective'. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 16, pp. 62-72.
- Weingart, P. (1997) 'From Finalization to Mode 2: old wine in new bottles?'. *Symposium: La Finalisation en Science*, 36 (4), pp. 591-613.
- Weingart, P. (2010) "A Short History of Knowledge Formations". In R. Frodeman, J.T. Klein, and C. Mitcham (eds): *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 5-6.
- Weingart, P. and Stehr, N. (2000) *Practising Interdisciplinarity*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Weiss, R. S. (1994) *Learning from strangers: The art and method of qualitative interview studies*. Free Press.
- Wijesinghe, S.N.R., Mura, P. and Bouchon, F. (2017) 'Tourism knowledge and neocolonialism- a systematic critical review of the literature'. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22 (11), pp. 1263-1279.
- Wood, R. C. (2015a) *Hospitality Management: A Brief Introduction*. Sage publications.
- Wood, R. C. (2015b) 'Folk understandings of quality in UK higher education'. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 23 (4), pp. 326- 338.

- Xin, Z., Tribe, J. and Chambers, D. (2013) 'Conceptual research in Tourism'. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 41, pp. 66-88.
- Yazan, B. (2015) 'Three Approaches to Case Study Methods in Education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake'. *The Qualitative Report*, 20, pp.134-152.
- Young, R. and Collin, A. (2004) 'Introduction: Constructivism and social constructionism in the career field'. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64 (3), pp. 373-388.
- Yin, R. K. (1981) 'The Case Study as a Serious Research Strategy'. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 3 (1), pp. 97- 114.
- Yin, R. K. (2009) *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th eds). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Zahra, A. and Ryan, C. (2005) 'Reflections on the Research Process: The Researcher as Actor and Audience in the World of Regional Tourist Organisations'. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8 (1), pp. 1-21.
- Zhang, K. Y. (2019) 'Exploring Critical Conceptual Space in Hospitality Higher Education', PhD thesis. Edinburgh Napier University.