

**How Can Doctorates in Business Administration  
Contribute to the  
Development of Strategists?**

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requirements of the  
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## DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Signed ..... (Candidate)

Date .....

## STATEMENT 1

This thesis is the result of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated.

Other sources are acknowledged by references. A bibliography is appended.

Signed ..... (Candidate)

Date .....

## STATEMENT 2

I hereby give consent for my thesis, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and inter-library loan, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

Signed ..... (Candidate)

Date .....

## **ABSTRACT**

The emergence of the Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA) in the United Kingdom (UK) in the past twenty years has heralded a significant departure in the approach to doctoral level business research. Key to the development of the DBA is its focus on engagement with organisations. This study explores a specific aspect of this engagement, a DBA's potential contribution to the development of strategists.

The thesis is based on fourteen in-depth unstructured interviews with key respondents in the DBA community, namely, students, academic staff and staff from quasi-governmental agencies. Care was taken to select a purposeful sample of respondents who represented the range of informed perspectives on DBAs and their potential relationship with the development of strategists.

An inductive approach to analysing the interview transcripts was initially applied. This was done to explore the subject from as wide a perspective as possible. This inevitably produced some findings that may appear peripheral to the central research focus of this work but are in themselves worth reporting. The thesis also developed a conceptual frame consisting of key characteristics of strategists drawn from the extant literature. This frame formed the basis of a deductive analysis of the interviewee texts in order to form a perspective focused on the research aim and attendant research objectives.

The study identifies that there are a number of different forms of DBA and the structures of the award are still evolving. Several assumptions about the recruitment of students, such as numbers, age and experience and the relationship between the DBA and the Masters in Business Administration (MBA) are questioned.

The evidence in this study indicates that the DBA can have a positive influence on strategists' key skill sets. Critically, DBAs can improve the reflective and reflexive abilities of individuals, particularly in the strategically important areas of creativity, analytical skills, communication, and strategic thinking. This,



however, has not been identified by the key stakeholders within academia or outside the sector. The findings of this study might have important implications for those delivering DBAs, those intending to take a DBA, the organisations within which DBAs are placed and for government and sponsors of this form of high-level research. Thus, this study contributes to both practice and knowledge.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is for Glynwen and Fflur.

Fflur – both your Mother and Father are now doctors.

Glynwen, so neat, proud, intelligent and beautiful. All I wanted.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AACSB	The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business
ABS	Association of Business Schools
AMBA	Association of Masters in Business Administration
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DBA	Doctorate in Business Administration
DClinPsy	Doctorate in Clinical Psychology
DProf	Professional Doctorate
EUA	European Universities Association
EdD	Doctorate in Education
EngD	Doctorate in Engineering
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HEFCW	Higher Education Funding Council for Wales

HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
IPA	Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis
MBA	Master in Business Administration
MD	Doctorate in Medicine
MPhil	Masters in Philosophy
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
Pr.DocBuiltEnvir	Professional Doctorate in Built Environment
ProfD	Professional Doctorate
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
UCAS	Universities and Colleges Admissions' Service
UK	United Kingdom
UKCGE	United Kingdom Council for Graduate Education
USA	United States of America

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# 1 INTRODUCTION

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This thesis explores how DBAs can contribute to the development of strategists. This thesis intends to contribute to both practice and knowledge. The potential contributions are for two constituencies. The first is higher education in the context of doctoral education and, in particular, a professional doctorate, the Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA). The second is that of the strategic management.

This study is potentially important and will have resonance with the reader for a number of reasons. Firstly, the DBA is a relatively new form of doctorate with a limited amount of research into DBAs and, to date, many of the studies into this form of doctorate have been based outside the United Kingdom, predominantly in Australia (O'Neill and McMullen 2003; Maxwell 2008). Secondly, there is a paucity of research into strategists and their development. There is an enormous amount of academic literature related to strategy and strategic management (See Chapter 8: 'A Strategist'). As will be shown, however, there is a scarcity of literature that examines the people who create, develop and assist in the implementation of strategy, strategists. Thirdly, although there is a significant amount of circumstantial evidence, such as course literature, academic and discussions in conferences, that consider the possibility of a link between strategists and the DBA, this connection has not been explicitly considered. This is important if the DBA, a doctorate that has its *raison d'être* in improving the practice of businesses, is to gain recognition and credibility in both the business and academic communities.

The research methodology adopted in this study uses both inductive and deductive approaches. The inductive analysis is firmly grounded in the interpretivist tradition (Burrell and Morgan 1979; Lee 1991). The research is based on interviews with key members of the DBA community in the UK, including:

members of leading organisations involved in developing policy in regards to the development of DBAs; DBA lecturers, and DBA students. The research uses the inductive findings to explore the research aim and objectives using a deductive approach.

The study does not make claims to present conclusions that can be generalised. It is intended, however, that the work may contribute to the growing interest in management education at the highest level and the evolving body of knowledge in strategic management. In particular, this work has the potential to engage both the doctoral community and business in examining their contributions to the development of a key resource in any organisation, strategists. The research has also been influenced by the growing number of highly regarded academics calling for greater engagement between academia and practice (Mintzberg 2004; Pettigrew 2005; Van de Ven 2007). This call for greater engagement is the product of recognition of a need to improve business efficiency and effectiveness (Boyer 2001; Hodgkinson 2001). It should be accepted that academic work and managerial practice differ in context, process and purpose (Van de Ven 2007), however, the call could also be considered as an appreciation by academia that a failure to engage with practitioners, particularly in respect to business research, will result in reduced funding from business and the state. The dual divides between academia and practice in terms of relevance and rigour might be overcome from a deeper form of research (Hodgkinson 2001). Doctoral research in the form of the DBA could be the vehicle to bridge this divide.

The conceptual framework developed in this study and presented in the Conclusion of the Review of Related Work has drawn on established literature in strategy, strategic management and management more generally. The framework is presented as a set of characteristics that a strategist might be expected to possess (See Table 1: Characteristics of a Strategist). These characteristics were explored in interviews with key respondents from the DBA community. The interviewees were not aware of the focus of the study and were asked to discuss the impact of DBAs on management. An inductive approach was taken to initial

data analysis. This allowed themes to emerge in the research. The deductive approach then applied allowed focus on the research frame developed from the literature.

As will be discussed, the DBA is evolving. There are a range of programmes that are considered as DBAs. They vary in their structure, delivery and assessment. Although discussed in this work, where possible generic issues with the DBA are presented. Therefore this work will tend to examine ‘the DBA’, rather than a specific form of the qualification.

The study is UK focused, but draws upon literature and experiences from outside the UK. In the thesis the terms ‘business’ and ‘organisations’ are used interchangeably to describe any organisation that offers products or services (including government) to the public. The term ‘institution’ denotes a higher education (HE) establishment.

### **1.1 Contribution to Practice and Knowledge**

Unlike a traditional doctorate, commonly known as a Doctorate in Philosophy (PhD), this study, as a DBA thesis, as well as intending to contribute to knowledge, may also contribute to practice. As the Association of Business Schools (ABS) 2005 DBA guidelines highlight, the DBA is a qualification that,

*“2.2 ... is therefore a professional practice doctorate and is concerned with researching real business and managerial issues via the critical review and systematic application of appropriate theories and research to professional practice.”*

The study’s potential contribution to practice will be in two areas: Firstly, it may inform the development of DBAs. They are an evolving class of professional doctorate. Relatively novel, the DBA can be delivered in a variety of forms and assessed in many ways. This work may enlighten the development of practice in HE. Specifically, it may inform key stakeholders in the evolution and



advancement of the award in all its guises. Secondly, the research will, for the first time, examine the relationship between doctorates and the development of strategists. This may contribute to practice in HE and organisations. It is argued in this work that strategists are vital components in the development of organisations. The work of a strategist is, however, usually aggregated, in organisational development policies and in the supporting academic literature, within leadership theory. This research suggests that the characteristics and abilities of strategists can be distinct from those of leaders. This work will explore whether these characteristics can be enhanced by a programme of study such as the DBA. This work may also assist organisations develop policies and procedures to identify and develop strategists. For some time government in the UK and elsewhere have been calling for improved practice in the interconnections between HE and business (For example see Roberts 2002) to address what has become known as the relevance gap (Starkey and Madan 2001) – the gap between academic research and relevance to the wider society (business). This study may also be of interest to government who fund research and have a key influence over the structures in HE.

The study's contribution to knowledge will build upon the contribution to practice. In fact, the debate around what constitutes academic knowledge and professional knowledge (practice) is on-going and fractious (Scott and Lunt 2000). This study takes the view that a contribution to practice is directly applicable to an organisation and a particular context. A contribution to knowledge may have a wider application in developing theory in government and business and academic communities. This study's first contribution to knowledge is in the area of advancing our understanding of doctoral education. The second contribution is in developing our comprehension of the relationship between doctoral education and business. The third contribution is in the development of theory in strategy, strategic management and those that conceive and assist in the implementation of strategy, strategists.

## 1.2 The Relevance of the Topic

There is a growing interest in professional doctorates in the UK and internationally both in academia and government (See Harris 1996; Dearing 1997; Bourner et al. 2000; Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001; Roberts 2002; Economic and Social Research Council 2006; Maxwell 2008; Brown and Cooke 2010). Academia's interest in professional doctorates comes from a number of perspectives (Scott et al. 2004). Firstly, it could be argued that universities have developed professional doctorates, such as the DBA, in response to government pressure to engage with the needs of the business community. Secondly, DBAs have been seen as a means of accessing a new stream of high fee paying students. Thirdly, universities have identified DBAs as a means of engaging far closer with business to improve academic access, and therefore outputs and outcomes in the form of research publications.

In an increasingly market driven economy that is global in nature, the government wants to ensure that the UK can maintain and grow its competitiveness across all sectors. In a knowledge-based economy such as the UK (Tasker and Packham 1994; Jessop et al. 2008), HE has been identified as a key driver in competitiveness through product and service creativity and innovation (Porter 1986; Morley 2001; Salmi 2003; Gustavs and Clegg 2005). Governments have been concerned with how to more effectively engage the research and teaching activities in HE with business and to provide value for money from the significant amounts of public expenditure on research in universities (Nolan 1995; Dearing 1997; Salmi 2003). It has been argued that this has been a driver for the development of professional doctorates (Bourner et al. 2001).

The DBA is designed for those with significant business experience. There is an understanding that students will normally have already gained a Masters in Business Administration (MBA) (or equivalent qualification), together with a sufficient amount and level of business and management experience appropriate

to the research being undertaken (Association of Business Schools 2005). These individuals are often regarded as business leaders or strategists.

A strategist is defined in this work as a strategic thinker and communicator, someone who critically and holistically reflects on the fundamental issues facing an organisation.

Please note that a strategist is not necessarily a title attributed or an appointed position in an organisation. Strategists, as will be discussed in detail, come in many different forms. This study explores the influences on the individual of a high level educational qualification.

There is no more important area in business and management than the understanding of how the fundamental decisions in organisations are made. This does not suggest that strategists are necessarily decision-makers themselves. Strategists inform leaders, decision-makers, etc. In some circumstances they might be the one and the same, however, often, particularly in larger organisations, they may be different. Central to this work is that strategists are the 'cerebral' core of an organisation's strategic development.

By understanding the person, the strategist, who develops strategy in organisations, we might be able to better understand how strategic decisions are made. Organisational perspectives and decisions are not made in a vacuum. Even in the most sanitised business environments strategic judgements are informed, influenced and affected by human idiosyncrasies (De Wit and Meyer 2004; Johnson et al. 2007). There are a myriad number of factors that influence how individuals behave, think, formulate and make decisions, including gender, cultural background, religion, business environment and educational background. It is the last factor, in this far from comprehensive list, that is the focus of this study.

The relevance of strategy and strategists has long been recognised. Both notions have, however, a wide range of interpretations. At the extreme, existentialists would argue that we can only understand strategy and strategists as individuals because they are lived and experienced reality and not objective phenomenon that can be observed and understood in terms of a biological, psychological, or other scientific theory of human nature. Perhaps, there is some merit to this perspective. It is argued in this study that there are phenomena that underpin the development of both strategy and strategists that can be identified. There is a growing interest in behavioural aspects of strategic management (Whittington 1996; Mintzberg and Rose 2003; Jarzabkowski 2005; Johnson et al. 2007). Key to this perspective on strategic management, which has become known as the practice school, is an examination of strategists themselves and how strategy is developed and implemented at a human level. Strategy research has tended to be descriptive in nature ('know what'). Awareness, however, of the necessity for micro level understanding of the subject requires researchers to examine strategizing in the contexts of 'know how', 'know when' and 'know where' (Balogun et al. 2003). This takes strategy and strategic management from macro, industry economic study, to an approach grounded in studies of human interaction. This is where this study is founded.

It seems timely that there is an examination of a possible relationship between an evolving and increasingly important aspect in the production of business knowledge, the DBA, and strategic practice in organisations. The subjective nature of the study should not alienate the reader, as it is an attempt to explore the areas of research in an inclusive, yet critical manner. When assessing the worth of the research the reader should, of course, judge the validity and rigour of the approach. The reader should, however, look beyond the methods taken to identify the wider messages that the author is attempting to portray.

### **1.3 The Author as an Agent in this Research**

The motivations of the author of this work for undertaking this study are varied. Primarily the author has been involved in higher education at the post-graduate level for over a decade. The author is also a strategy practitioner – a strategist – involved in organisations both in and outside of higher education.

The author undertook a first undergraduate degree in human geography. This course of study exposed the author to rational models of human behaviour, social and economic development. The author then became an army officer in the British Army where, at a comparatively early age, the author was involved in reasonably high-level strategic decision making and commanding (in a traditional sense) over one hundred and fifty personnel and assets worth millions of pounds. After a successful period in the military, the author returned to higher education, taking a MBA. This allowed the author a period to reflect and be reflexive upon the process of strategy and strategic decision-making. It was a formative period in the author's personal academic development. The MBA was followed by a career as an investment banker working in the City of London in a leading international merchant bank. Again, the author, at a relatively early age as exposed to strategic decision-making at the highest level. The author operated in some of the key sectors in the development of the UK economy in the 1990s and developed an acute awareness of the importance of individuals and process in strategic development. This consciousness was honed with the knowledge and understanding garnered whilst undertaking the MBA programme. The experience of the MBA and a naturally inquisitive nature led the author back to higher education in the capacity as a lecturer in strategic management and eventually undertaking a DBA.

The personalities and different forms of decision-making that the author had been exposed to over the periods in the military and merchant banking, as well as experiences as a lecturer, researcher and consultant in higher education led the author to focus on strategy and the people involved in developing and

implementing strategy, strategists. The context of the DBA was almost fortuitous, in that the lecturer was located in an institution that had recently introduced a DBA programme and was invited to join the course of study. As a professional educator involved in higher education, in the context of business and management, the author is intensely interested in the development of the people who inform or make strategic decisions and implement strategy and how a programme such as a DBA can impact those individuals.

#### **1.4 The Methodology and Methods Employed**

The methodology employed in this study is a qualitative, interpretivist one. The method of data analysis engages both an inductive interpretivist technique and a deductive approach. Over-riding this approach, however, is the ontological stance of the author, as a critical realist. Fundamental to this position, and the posture assumed in this thesis, is that there exists a reality independent of our representation of it. The reality and the representation of reality operate in different domains – an intransitive ontological dimension and a transitive epistemological dimension. The focus of a realist is on uncovering the real mechanisms and structures underpinning phenomena. Whereas, a critical realist will recognise that the evidence will be value-laden and a product of the social actors involved in the knowledge creation process. A critical realist views reality as an intransigent notion, whilst values are transient. Consistent with this position, the data collection method involved semi-structured interviews with key respondents selected using purposeful sampling. A total of fourteen interviews were conducted. The interviews were carried out over a period of four months. Although the interviews were informed by themes that emerged from the literature, the initial data collection approach taken was essentially an inductive one, where the interviewer asked broad questions relating to the research aim. This allowed emergent themes to be identified. The interviewees can be categorised as: two respondents from leading agencies (governmental or quasi government organisations), one of who was also a member of staff at an HE institution; ten key staff in the delivery of DBAs on six DBA programmes; and six

students from four programmes who have successfully completed the DBA. Of the six students, three have become faculty and have been classified as staff/students for the purposes of this study.

The analysis of interview texts initially adopted an inductive approach based on grounded theory conducted using thematic qualitative analysis. This allowed findings to emerge from the data. The data was then analysed using a deductive method based on the research question and objectives that were identified from the literature. Findings are presented and analysed using direct quotations from the texts interspersed with the author's interpretations. The discussion critically appraises the themes and research objectives that emerged from the literature and the findings that surfaced from the interviews.

### **1.5 Aims of the Study**

The central question that this thesis explores is:

“How can DBAs contribute to the development of strategists?”

Research objectives emerged from the literature around the central research question. These objectives require critical empirical examination in order to inform a coherent discussion. These research objectives are:

1. How the institutional rationale for the development of DBAs might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.1)
2. How the motivations of individuals undertaking a DBA might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.2)
3. How the different forms of DBAs might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.3)

4. How the approaches to teaching and learning on DBA programmes might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.4)
5. What is the impact of DBAs on the students studying them from the perspective of developing strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.5)
6. How the future development of the DBA might impact the development of strategists taking the programme? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.6)

A rationale for the inclusion of these objectives is presented in the Methodology and Methods Chapter.

## **1.6 Scope of the Study**

In any study of this nature there will be distinct and some less distinct boundaries. The complexity and depth of the areas of doctoral education and strategists can be overwhelming. This study does not pretend to provide a definitive review of both topics and the relationship between them.

Strategy and strategic management has been an incredibly fertile area of academic research for many years (See the chapter – ‘A Strategist’). The amount of study into strategists, however, is surprisingly limited, a fact that is not really recognised in the literature. The author of this work does not pretend to be a psychologist. Thus, this study does not explore in any real depth the motivations and machinations of strategists themselves. Nor does the study examine the nature of strategy and strategists in organisations. By taking a very narrow and focused perspective on strategic management the study, nevertheless, hopes to inform the growing body of literature on the subject. The study also does not examine the possible positive or negative influences of the DBA on strategists and organisational performance. Addressing this aspect, at this time, within the



constraints upon this thesis would have been inconsistent with the aims of the study.

In terms of doctorates (See the later chapter – ‘The Doctorate, Professional Doctorates and the Doctor of Business Administration’) an overview is provided and a focus on professional doctorates is undertaken. It is recognised that this element of the study has limitations. For example, the study could have examined underpinning doctoral pedagogy in far more detail. The sparse amount of information on DBAs, especially in the UK, has been an issue in this research. In particular, UK wide data on the forms of DBA and the nature of DBA students would have been useful.

Despite these limitations, the researcher is confident that the approaches to data collection and analysis in this study are consistent with the aim of the study and the ontological and epistemological stance adopted by the author.

### **1.7 Synopsis of the Thesis Structure**

The study consists of five elements:

1. Introduction
2. Review of Related Work
3. Methodology and Method
4. Findings and Discussion
5. Conclusions

The Review of Related Work consists of three chapters. The first chapter examines the extant literature on strategy, strategic management and strategists. The second chapter deals with the literature on doctorates, professional doctorates and the DBA in particular. Both chapters start with an overview of the relevant extant topic literature and then focus on critical examinations of the literature. The final chapter of the literature review summarises the two bodies of literature and highlights areas for examination. This forms the study’s conceptual frame.

The concluding chapter identifies possible relationships between the DBA and strategists. It highlights the key questions that have emerged from the literature that form the basis of the investigation and discussion. As there is no real body of literature that has examined this relationship before the bridges connecting these two extant literatures are not always clearly defined. The researcher has attempted to guide the reader in as a clear a way as possible through the literature to signpost the possible relationships between the DBA and strategists.

The Methodology and Methods chapter is a detailed examination of the philosophy underpinning the research design and the actions taken in data collection and analysis. Some time is spent detailing each aspect of the methodology and methods applied in this study. This is to give the reader confidence in the rigour in terms of the study's validity and reliability. The chapter also highlights limitations of the method applied.

The Findings and Discussion chapter includes 'factual', albeit the researcher's interpretation of the facts, account of the study's research. Themes are identified from the interview texts using an inductive approach through the identification of emergent themes, master and super-ordinate themes. As far possible, this was done whilst trying to avoid any potential researcher bias. The chapter also includes discussion that examines the research findings in terms of the extant literature and theoretical frame presented around the central research question and objectives. The focus of the discussion is on how the DBA contributes to the development of strategists. The discussion, however, also explores other emergent themes that may not have direct bearing on the study but will inform wider discussions on the topic. The Conclusion incorporates three elements: A Critical Assessment of Own Work; Further Areas for Research; and, Concluding commentary. This chapter offers a reflection on the relationship between the different literatures and the findings from the fieldwork.

## 1.8 Summary

This introductory chapter has provided an overview of this research thesis and a generalised prologue to the subjects of DBAs and strategists. It has sought to place in context the position of this research relative to the background in which it has been written. The thesis now presents a review of the extant literature on strategists and DBAs.

## 2 A STRATEGIST

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### 2.1 Introduction

“To understand strategy we need to know more about strategists” (McNulty and Pettigrew 1999, p.47)

The above quotation might appear self-evident, however, if the literature surrounding strategy and strategic management is examined, this relationship is rarely made. In the context of business there are a plethora of texts on strategy and strategic management, for example Porter (1980), Mintzberg and Westley (2005) and Johnson et al. (2007) to name but a few. There are, nevertheless, very few texts analysing, in any depth or with academic rigour, strategists themselves (Whittington 2003; Mantere and Whittington 2007). Numerous biographies exist on great strategists from a range of disciplines (Handel 2001), for example military (McNeilly 2001) and business (Welch and Welch 2005). There is, however, a paucity of research into what actually constitutes the phenomenon that has become known as the strategist. As Henry Mintzberg (1998) states,

*“If we are really serious about understanding strategic vision as well as how strategies form under other circumstances then we had better probe into the mind of the strategist.”* (p.8)

This work addresses this apparent lacuna.

This chapter examines the extant literature in respect to our understanding of term ‘strategist’ and identifies characteristics that can be associated with the phenomenon. A strategist is defined in this work as a strategic thinker and communicator, someone who critically and holistically reflects on the fundamental issues facing an organisation. To understand how this definition has been derived it is necessary to investigate the sizeable and continually evolving

body of literature that has developed around the concepts of strategy and strategic management which appears in the following sections.

The chapter will begin by describing the evolution of the concepts of strategy and strategic management and defining the terms. Thereafter it will explore the processes that have been observed in strategic management in terms of context and content. The chapter will then define strategists and characteristics that strategists might exhibit or possess. This section of the chapter will differentiate between leadership and strategist as much of the literature that examines what might be understood by the term strategists is found in research into leadership. The section will also examine other functions in organisations and their possible input into the development of strategy. Within this discussion strategy will be considered as a group or individual activity. Finally, the chapter will conclude by examining the cognitive abilities and processes that underpin strategists and how these may be nurtured.

It is intended that the structure adopted in this chapter will allow the reader to comprehend the basis of the definition of a strategist. The chapter will also provide the theoretical frame that the author of this work has developed in order to critically assess whether the doctoral qualification in business administration impacts upon the development of strategists. This might appear, at times, a ramble through the jungle of concepts and theories that go to make-up the body of literature that might be classified as pertinent to this study. The eclectic and evolving nature of the subject, however, makes this approach inevitable. The structure adopted attempts to place the term 'strategist', in context and examines different aspects and perspectives on the phenomenon.

## 2.2 Strategy and Strategic Management

### 2.2.1 Development of Theory: Rational to Complexity and Chaos

There is no unified definition of a strategist. In order to establish the essence of what is understood by the term, it is necessary to explore the two most closely associated concepts, strategy and strategic management. Strategy and strategic management are often used interchangeably, but they can be, in particular circumstances, fundamentally different.

The terms strategy and strategist derive from the Greek *stratēgos*, which refers to a military commander during the age of Athenian Democracy, the art of the general, one who is skilled in strategy (De Wit and Meyer 2004). Much of what is understood as strategic theory has been garnered from the predecessors of the great multinational corporations, the military. Several of those that we recognise as the first to articulate what can be recognised as strategic theories were either great military leaders themselves or observers of military strategy and statehood, for example, Sun Tzu, Thucydides, von Clausewitz, de Jomini, Machiavelli, Mao Zedong and Corbett. Early writers on strategy, such as von Clausewitz, view strategy as an art, whereas others, such as Sun Tzu take a far more rational perspective on the endeavour (De Wit and Meyer 2004; David 2006). This dichotomy has been a recurring theme in the development of the subject. Clausewitz's (1997) approach is realistic in that it describes the complex and uncertain manner in which events unfold in war. This perspective takes into account both the frailties of human nature and the complexity of the physical and psychological world.

Bowman et al. (2002) identify three groups of academic styles in the field of strategic management in the past forty years. The earliest researchers and institutionalists, such as Alfred Chandler (1962) emerged in the 1960s. They concentrated on developing awareness of the work that strategists undertook, however their approaches were eclectic. The 1970s and 80s were influenced by writers such as Porter (1980) who came from the rational, reductionist economics

tradition. More latterly, in the late 1980s and 1990s writers in the field of strategic management have grounded their approach in more sociological and behavioural paradigms, informed by works by researchers such as Simon (1955), March and Simon (1968), Pettigrew (1985) and Argyris (1983).

The first business policy course was delivered in Harvard in 1912 (Greiner et al. 2003), but strategic management, in the context of business, did not emerge as a serious field of study until the 1960s (Coulter 2005), with the writings of Chandler (1962), Ansoff (1965) and Andrews (1971). The early strategic theorists were close to practitioners in organisations such as such as the Boston Consulting Group, Bain and McKinsey (Pettigrew et al. 2002). Influential writers in the 1970s such as Schendel and Hofer (1979) and Porter (1985) advocated a more analytical, economics-based and positivist perspective (Pettigrew et al. 2002). These writers, along with individuals such as Ansoff (1965) and Langley (1989) have sided with Sun Tzu, adopting a rational perspective on the subject. Perhaps, Handel's (2001) view of the impossibility of arriving at a unified view of strategy as an art or a science because every strategic situation is different due to the range of factors that can impact upon the direction of an organisation is a more realistic one. The latter part of the part of the last century and the opening years of the new millennium, can be described as the "... post-Porter era" (Pettigrew et al. 2002, p.79), and have seen a far more eclectic range of perspectives on strategy emerge (Whipp 1996). Contemporary writers such as (Mintzberg 1998; Handel 2001; Mintzberg et al. 2003; Whittington 2004; Whittington 2006; Jarzabkowski et al. 2007) tend to side with von Clausewitz's view that strategy is largely an artistic phenomenon. Ohmae (1982) states, "...successful business strategies result not from rigorous business analysis but from a particular state of mind." (p.4) This positions strategy as a sociological and psychological phenomenon. Hitt et al. (1998) and Hoskisson et al. (1999) who have produced comprehensive reviews of the field until the end of the last century believe that Porter's industrial organisational economics approach, which focused on industries rather than the firm and certainly not individuals, has been supplemented, some might even argue replaced, by more sociological perspectives on strategy. Pettigrew et al. (2002)

supports this critique of the industrial organisational perspective, believing it to be reductionist and deterministic in nature. The perspective taken on the development of strategy has important implications in the study of strategists.

### *2.2.2 Swings of the Pendulum: The 'Evolution' of Theory*

Hoskisson et al. (1999) describes the changes in theory, research and methods in strategic management as swings of a pendulum, from outward to inward looking. The internal focus on process, policy and planning in the 1960s was replaced with the external perspective of industrial organisational economics in the 1980s. The mid 1980s and 1990s external industrial economics approach was replaced by a more internal focus with a preoccupation on resources and competences (Wernerfelt 1984; Prahalad and Hamel 1990; Barney 1991; Prahalad and Hamel 1994; Grant 1996). Alongside development in the conceptual paradigms that have influenced the writers on strategy there have also been changes in practice (Abrahamson 1996). Strategic management dominated financial planning before the 1960s. Long range planning, with a focus on the functions of the firm became the vogue in the 1960s in organisations. In the 1980s strategic management was adopted, which utilised strategic planning and implementation (Bowman et al. 2002). It appears that there is a relationship between developments in practice and theory.

Perhaps, the most constructive and comprehensive narrative in terms of reflecting on the understanding of strategy and strategic management, and therefore strategists, has been offered by Henry Mintzberg. Mintzberg (1987b) proposes that strategy can be viewed from five perspectives, the 'five Ps'. Mintzberg rejects a single definition of strategy and views the phenomenon as potentially an amalgam of a number of different approaches. The first of Mintzberg's 'Ps' is 'strategy as a plan'. This is the traditional view of strategy, where strategy consists of an intended course of preconceived actions or a set of established guidelines. Mintzberg also recognises strategy as a ploy, where strategy is a 'manoeuvre' intended to gain competitive advantage. The third 'P' is strategy as



a pattern and stream of actions from which unintended strategy emerges (Mintzberg and Waters 1985). Mintzberg identifies strategy as a position. A position can be adopted by an organisation in respect to its competitors. This can be in terms of factors such as geographic or market position. The final 'P' is strategy as a perspective, where strategy can be identified, not as a position taken in the external marketplace, but rather as a function of internal organisational activity. In fact it might be the perspective of those recognised as an organisation's strategists, which is the perception of the way they think. Mintzberg's five Ps is a useful method of examining different manifestations of strategy in action. Mintzberg's analysis is based on first-hand experience of working with some of the World's largest corporations. His framework is all encompassing, allowing the different approaches to strategy that are seen in organisations to be appreciated for what they are – real and meaningful strategic processes. Mintzberg refined the 'five Ps framework' in his text with Joseph Lampel, the Strategy Safari (1998). In this book they identified ten schools of strategic management, ranging from planned through to a school they called 'configuration' which is a smorgasbord of the other nine schools. The configuration school is really at the centre of Mintzberg and Lampel's position – that strategy can adopt many and all guises.

Perspectives on approaches to strategy and management that have embraced organisational ecology and evolutionary biology have been proposed (Carroll 1988; Hannan and Freeman 1989). These perspectives might imply that strategy has nothing to do with choice but are resultant from genetics and evolutionary forces (Noorderhaven 1995) and is a product of the complex, if not chaotic, environments in which they exist (Stacey 1993; Beinhocker 1997; Pascale et al. 2000). In certain circumstances this viewpoint might have resonance with strategy that we observe in practice. Some strategic decision-making can, however, be observed as exhibiting what Noorderhaven describes as a "... modicum of intentionality." (1995, p.5) This may result in intended realised, or unrealised strategy development (Mintzberg and Waters 1985). Stephen Cummings (2002) proposes a very different perspective of strategy and the

development of theory in the field. Cummings (2002) suggests that strategy as a definite premeditated action, that is a plan or position adopted by an organisation, are "... a myth – a modern invention to make prevailing views of the first half of the twentieth century seem more worthy." (p.7) Cummings places his argument in the power-politics discussion proposed by post-modernist such as Foucault (1980) in the latter part of the twentieth century. The view of strategy that Cummings posits is one where strategy is not a top-down process with pre-conceived actions. These, Cummings claims, are meta-narratives proposed by those wishing to give the appearance of control over environments and organisations which they have minimal influence over. At best, the positivist, modernist frameworks and theories such as plans are tools for "... orientation and animation..." (Cummings 2002, p.216). Cummings believes that the simplistic models of strategic situations put forward by modernists like Ansoff (1965) and Porter (1980; 1985) oversimplify the complex networks of relations that are found in even the most basic of strategic situations. Cummings does not reject modernist models, frameworks or theories, but questions their predictive or real value. Cummings sees them as tools in a 'strategists' repertoire' to focus action in whatever direction. Watson suggests (2003) that strategy has been dominated by the systems-orientated social science perspective. Watson advocates that this view has paid too little attention to the micro processes that support macro changes. Crane (1999) supports this view and states,

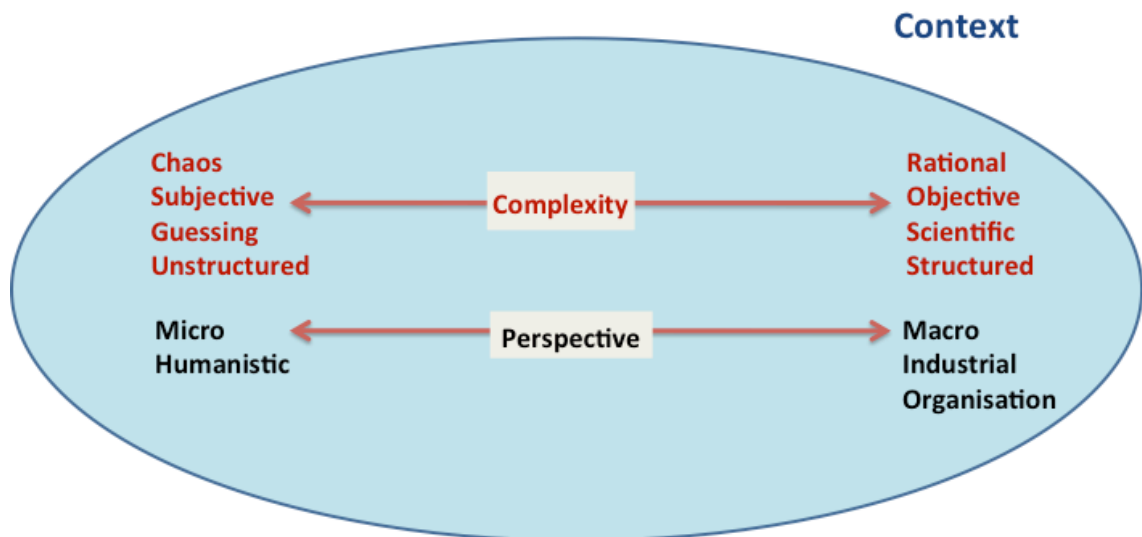
*"There is an urgent need for practising business researchers to scale the barricades of positivism's epistemological roadblocks and thereby develop a more pluralistic approach, and hence a better informed understanding."*  
(p.246)

Crane's frustration can be seen in the field of strategy, from which the practice perspective has emerged. The practice approach draws upon a range of sociological frameworks (Pozzebon 2004; Schwarz 2004). Giddens's (1987) theory of structuration which expounds the interaction of agents on, and with, organisational structure, has been applied to the study of the impact of middle managers on strategy. This clearly focuses on multi-stakeholder perspectives.

It is argued that strategy research has undertaken a practice turn in the recent past (Chia 2004). This change of direction is away from what is known as modernist, positivist influences on researchers' ontological and epistemological frames that indulge in meta-narratives at the macro scale of organisational activity. The turn has been towards a practice, micro level of analysis, which is grounded in the actions and behaviours of individuals and groups. Strategy as practice adopts a more interpretivist, or perhaps realist, approach to the study of strategy. Whittington (2004) sees the 'practice turn' across a range of fields more traditionally associated with management, such as technology (Dougherty, 1992; Orlikowski, 2000), accounting (Hopwood and Miller, 1994) and organisational structure. The practice turn proposes that strategy is not an attribute of organisations but an activity undertaken by people (Johnson et al. 2003). Whittington (2004) makes the position clear, he states, "Strategy is something that people do. From this perspective, strategy can be seen as a social practice" (p.62). This perspective is where this thesis is grounded. It locates strategy as the products of individuals, strategists.

Perhaps, today the pendulum has swung some way back to an internal focus on what people actually do and it might be argued that some of the practice writers (Clegg et al. 2004; Whittington et al. 2004; Samra-Fredericks 2005; Jarzabkowski and Wilson 2006; Johnson et al. 2007) are examining contexts at an extreme moment in that swing, where strategic management can only be considered from an individualistic perspective. The figure below (Figure 1: Strategic Management - The Spectrum of Approaches) depicts the range of views on strategic management along a single continuum.

Figure 1: Strategic Management - The Spectrum of Approaches



The terms strategy, strategic management and strategists appear omnipresent. Pettigrew, Thomas and Whittington (2002) amongst others (Barry and Elmes 1997; Abrahamson and Fairchild 1999; Carson et al. 2000; Fink 2003; Clark 2004; Pettinger 2004) make the important point that all areas of management are subject to fads. The swings of the pendulum could be considered in terms of trends in management. Strategy is, however, particularly prone to fashionable trends and linguistic manipulation because of the influence of senior executives, consultants and academics. Authors such as Abrahamson, Pettigrew and others see this as a strength because theories adopted are exposed to constant review by practitioners and academia. Pettigrew et al. (2002) state, “The fact that the field of strategic management has constantly pivoted between the concerns for theory and practice has in some sense kept the field honest and alive.” (p.9) The multidisciplinary nature of the subject area (Walton 2004) can be a positive aspect as it allows open and eclectic perspectives to develop. At the same time the broad church of views that have developed are problematic, Walton (2004) comments, “... is the difficulty of creating and maintaining a coherent body of theory that can serve as an intellectual spine around which the field can be organised.” (p.93) What is apparent is that our understanding of business strategy and strategists are evolving concepts. Conceptual confusion, or conceptual diversity, has not prevented the development of research into strategy, and fundamental areas of

agreement amongst strategy researchers have been suggested (Chaffee 1985; Thomas and Pruett 1993). Despite a lack of agreement over precise definitions and content, there appears to be a reasonably widely accepted conceptualisation of strategy that has enough constancy to allow it to be discussed, studied, and taught.

Strategic studies are an unusual academic field in that it is a multidisciplinary subject that links the sciences with the humanities. Strategies are often discussed in very specific terms but strategic decisions are actually influenced by a wide variety of factors such as culture, technology, ethics and several other elements (Walton 2004). The eclectic nature of the subject is advantageous as it allows researchers a blank canvass to approach the subject from whichever perspective they desire. This has some draw-backs when trying to establish subject boundaries, as Walton states (2004),

*“... it is very difficult to delineate the intellectual borders of strategic studies. [This makes it difficult in] maintaining a coherent body of theory that can serve as an intellectual spine around which the field can be organized.” (p.93)*

A question that some academics, and perhaps practitioners, ask is whether strategy is anything different from everyday management? (Mintzberg 2004; Feldman 2005) Often the two get confused and it is difficult to detach the operational from the strategic. Johnson et al. (2005) are unequivocal in their belief that, “Strategic management is different in nature from other aspects of management.” (p.15) They view strategic management as dealing with the complex, the ambiguous and unexpected. Therefore, a strategist will need a set of skills that deal with this type of environment and organisational setting. Johnson et al. (2005) state,

*“The manager who aspires to manage or influence strategy needs to develop a capability to take an overview, to conceive of the whole rather than just the parts of the situation facing an organisation.” (p.15)*

### 2.2.3 Defined – Strategy and Strategic Management

Johnson et al's (2005) definition of strategy draws upon the range of perspectives on the subject outlined above. They state,

*“Strategy is the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term, which achieves advantage in a changing environment through its configuration of resources and competences with the aim of fulfilling stakeholder expectations.”* (p.9)

It should be noted they do not define strategic management or strategists in this definition. In their view, ‘long term direction’ is a defining feature of strategy. Although defining long term is difficult as it is a context specific term. The strategic time horizons in one industry might be fifty years, whilst it might be six months in very fast-moving sectors. Strategic decision-making deals with the “scope of an organisation’s activities” (p.7). It is a holistic perspective. Thus, those informing and making strategic decisions must be aware of all the different constituent elements that make-up their organisation. Johnson et al also suggest that strategy involves gaining ‘advantage’. This is a contentious point and one that has its roots in the traditions of strategy from the perspective of profit making organisations. This view is rather a dated one, as the reflections on strategy and strategic decision-making are now far more eclectic, for example in not-for-profit organisations, such as charities and government, are included in mainstream strategic theory. Advantage in profit making organisations is even a difficult concept, as companies measure competitive advantage in a myriad of ways. Some of which might be counter-intuitive. ‘Strategic fit’ of an organisation’s resources to the environments in which it operates is also seen as characteristic of strategy. Some writers (For example Michael Porter, 1985) have suggested that organisations need to position themselves in order to maximise their resource configuration. Others (Wernerfelt 1984; Barney 1991; Barney 1992; Prahalad and Hamel 1994; Priem and Butler 2001; Kor and Mahoney 2004) have proposed the strategic characteristic of developing ‘resources and competencies’ so as to maximise competitive advantage. Fundamental to strategy is the characteristic of matching the strategy so as to meet the ‘values and expectation’ of stakeholders.

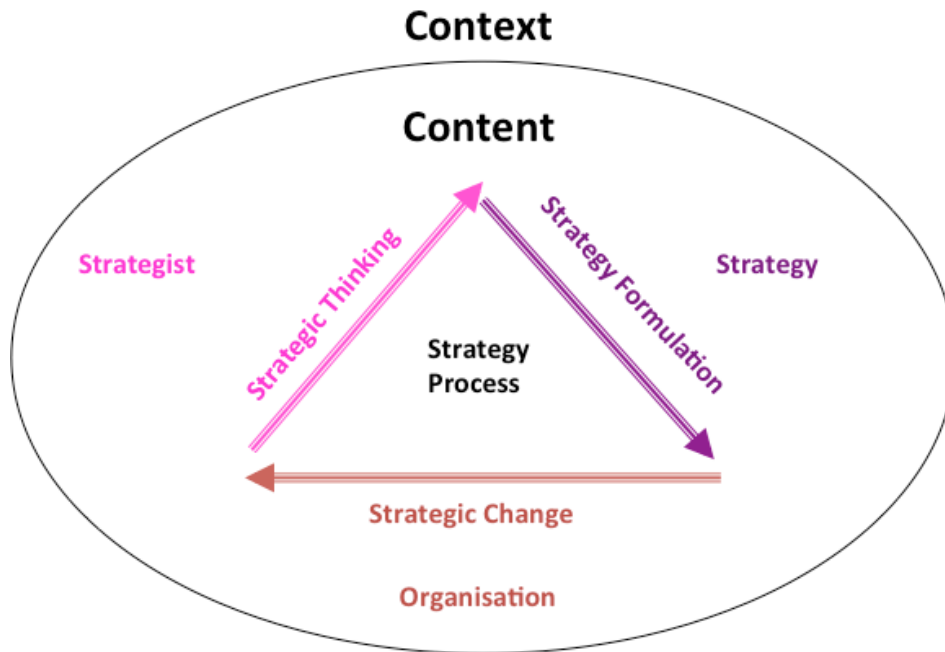
This final element identified by Johnson et al is the characteristic that is influenced by a sociological perspective. It should be noted that the definition provided by Johnson et al is of strategy, not strategic management. The latter term implies some positive management action, whereas the former might involve a range of non-proactive forms of strategy. Building upon Johnson et al's definition, strategic management could be considered as a set of pre-conceived management actions that result in setting the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term, which achieves advantage in a changing environment through its configuration of resources and competences with the aim of fulfilling stakeholder expectations.

It is how these pre-conceptions are formed and enacted that is central to this work – the mind and actions of the strategist.

### **2.3 Context, Content and Process**

Traditional texts on strategic management have often depicted the strategy process as a linear one, consisting of analysis, formulation and implementation (De Wit and Meyer 2005). De Wit and Meyer (2005) emphasise that context, content and process which they see as the dimensions of strategy and organisational purpose are not different parts of strategy and they are inter-related and to an extent are co-dependent.

Figure 2: Aspects of the Strategy Process – Thinking, Formulation and Implementation: Thinking and Doing

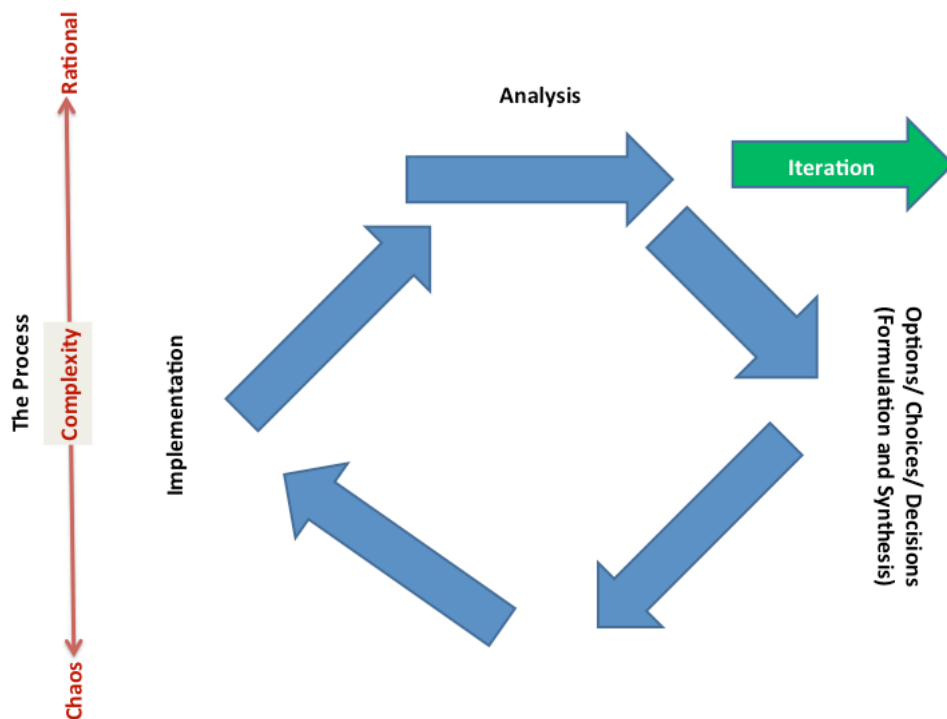


The above diagram (Figure 2: Aspects of the Strategy Process – Thinking, Formulation and Implementation: Thinking and Doing, adapted from De Wit and Meyer 2005, p.8) draws attention to three dimensions of strategy: process, content and context. Context refers to the external and internal influences on the strategic process. The content of strategy is the constituent elements of a strategy, the ‘what’ of the strategy process. Process is the manner in which strategies emerge. As discussed earlier (Swings of the Pendulum: The ‘Evolution’ of Theory), processes range from the rational planned to opportunistic and emergent. The degree that the process is pre-conceived is important. Strategic processes at whatever level involve, in a variety of forms, strategic thinking, formulation and change. De Wit and Meyer (2005) link the thinking stage most closely to strategists. The framework depicted above (Figure 2: Aspects of the Strategy Process – Thinking, Formulation and Implementation: Thinking and Doing) is adapted from De Wit and Meyer, in that the context is shown as the all-encompassing determinant of strategy. It is therefore important to take as wide a perspective on the contextual issues as possible. Some of these issues will be ingrained into organisational culture and not be apparent or even considered as an influencing factor in traditional ‘outside-in’ strategic processes. The breadth of



the perspective taken will inform the view on what constitutes a strategist. In a similar vein to De Wit (2005) and Johnson et al. (2005) developed a normative strategic management model based on a simplification of the strategic management process. This model identifies three phases in the strategic management process: situation assessment; strategic analysis of options; and strategic implementation. But again, there is a realisation that these elements are co-dependent and inter-related. The diagram below (Figure 3: Strategic Processes) depicts the phases. It should also be noted that strategy develops in an iterative way (Johnson 1987), with strategic decisions being continually re-evaluated and strategy amended accordingly. The reasons for re-evaluation are numerous but can probably be aggregated down to issues concerning changing context and issues due the frailties of human decision-making (Simon 1991; Chung and McLarney 1999). The diagram below highlights the range of different approaches that strategists exhibit when they develop strategic thinking, from rational to chaotic.

Figure 3: Strategic Processes



### 2.3.1 *Where Does Strategy Happen? Micro and Macro*

The dominant systems-orientated social science tradition has placed rational, macro level analysis at its core (Porter 1987). Watson (2003) believes this perspective has failed to take account of the micro processes that underpin strategic action. The ‘bounded nature’ of rational decision-making has been previously recognised (Simon 1957; Cyert and March 1963; March and Simon 1968; Watson 2003). Underpinning the notion of bounded rationality is that in decision making rationality of individuals is limited by the information they possess, the cognitive limitations of their minds, and the limited amount of time they have to make decisions. The political dimension to strategic decision-making has also been acknowledged (Pettigrew 1973; Child 1984; Johnson 1987). Watson (2003) suggests that too little time is spent understanding influences on individuals such as the values, emotions, identities, interests and personal projects that make strategic decisions. Watson states,

*“We need to understand better the part that is played in the steering and shaping of organizations by the personal priorities, identities and values of the strategy-makers themselves.” (p.1307).*

Watson (2003) highlights the significance of the micro processes that make up the lives of strategists and the impact of the processes on organisational strategy. In this context, Watson introduces the notion of strategic exchange and proposes that strategists are amongst the resource-dependent constituencies with which organisations have to exchange. This is important and builds upon the insights of writers such as Whittington (1996; 2002). Importantly, in relation to this study, Watson emphasises the importance in understanding, “... the role of strategists’ personal life strategies in processes of organizational strategy-making.” (2003, p.1306) This study is based in micro level analysis of the development of strategy, focussing on individuals.

## 2.4 So What is a Strategist?

### 2.4.1 A Definition and Characteristics

Von Clausewitz (1997) believed that what strategists think was very much linked to how they conceive issues and the context in which their ideas were formed. Context is a construction in the mind of the strategist. Several writers have proposed that this construction, perception or even vision is influenced by the educational background of strategists (Liedtka 1998; Doh 2003). It is argued in this work that the educational background of a strategist can significantly influence their strategic decision-making (See later section on ‘Nurturing Strategists: Can Strategy Be Taught?’).

Much of the extant literature focuses on the science of making strategy, viewing the strategists as a technical architect (Andrews 1971). Reflecting, however, on the critical contribution of writers such as Mintzberg and Pettigrew et al. (2002) state,

*“Strategy was no longer to be seen just as rationally intended purposeful thought. The strategists were no longer to be portrayed as heroic general managers, but might involve actors in and outside the boardroom. Even the unthinkable was articulated, action might precede thought.” (p.12)*

This might imply that strategists could also be historians, who reflect on previous actions. This might be a wayward interpretation. Strategists are thinkers who reflect on situations. The reflective and reflexive processes will be informed by past experience and understanding. What probably differentiates an historian from a strategist is that historians interpret and reflect on the past, whilst the strategist conducts the activities of a historian then articulates a future purpose and direction of an organisation. Strategist should also be reflexive, considering their impact on a particular situation. There is a necessity for individuals to learn from their, or others, actions (Pettigrew 1973; Schön 1983; Parston 1986; Senge 1990; 1997). Underpinning the process of reflexive thought is human cognition. De Wit and Meyer (2005) explore some of the issues around human cognition.

Human cognition can be defined as the human ability to know. Strategists develop cognitive maps, their mental models of the world (Nadkarni and Narayanan 2007; Stacey 2007; Eden et al. 2009). These maps are developed through life experience. Formal or informal education is a significant constituent of a strategist's experience. To strategise, using cognitive maps, strategists have cognitive abilities, their mental faculties. Perhaps, it is not politically correct to say so, but individuals have different cognitive abilities that may be more appropriate in different contexts. The value of an individual's cognitive abilities varies from context to context (Calori et al. 1992; Chung and McLarney 1999).

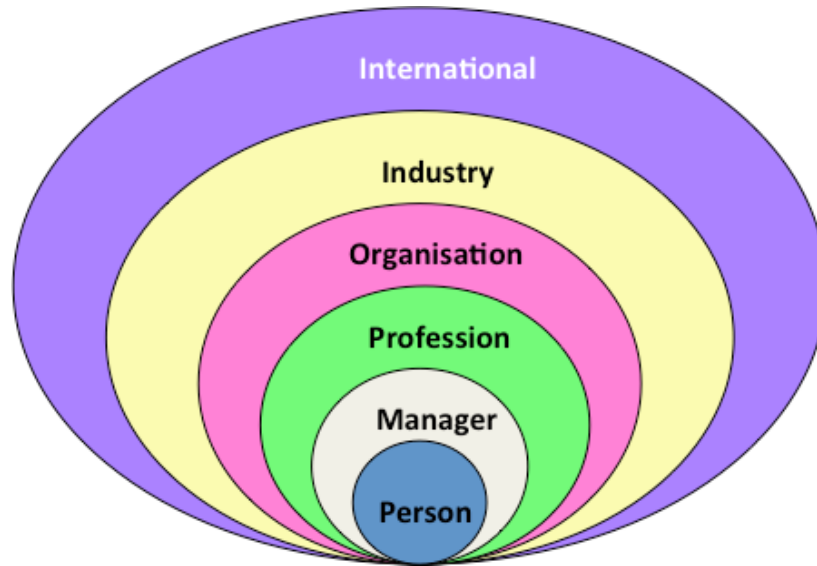
In terms of cognitive activities De Wit and Meyer (2005) propose that there are four general elements: firstly issue identification and sense-making; secondly, diagnosing the structure and causes of issues; thirdly, conceiving solutions to issues; and finally, implementing solutions. De Wit and Meyer (2005) acknowledge that this process is not always a linear one. Building upon writers such as Weick (1995) and Ocasio (1997) practice writers in strategy highlight the impact of interpretation on strategic sense-making and action. There are many examples where an individual's strategic perspective is different from another person's. Essentially, because of people, strategy is a 'messy' business. As discussed earlier, the linear structure depicted by De Wit and Meyer (2005) is often iterative, where different 'stages' of the processes occur at irregular intervals. It can be observed on innumerable occasions that implementation can precede any strategic thought. Management education through courses such as the MBA and the DBA might impact upon all four cognitive areas through the development of cognitive abilities, maps and activities. The variation in approaches to management education leads to different examples of the influences upon the cognitive approaches and abilities of managers (Mintzberg 2004; Deem 2006). The 'messiness' of strategy is increasingly reflected in differing approaches to the subject in universities (See Mintzberg 2004).

In terms of cognitive abilities, it has already been pointed out that people have different mental capabilities. Also, even the greatest strategists cannot be

expected to know everything, to be omniscient. De Wit and Meyer (2005) identify three factors that limit human cognition. Firstly, limited information sensing ability, in that the five human senses have limitations. Secondly, the human brain has limited information processing capability. As a result humans use 'cognitive heuristics', mental short cuts, rules of thumb (Janis 1989) to make sense of the myriad of information that could amass around an issue. The third limitation is individual's limited information storage capacity. The human memory has severe limitations and, again, individuals have to resort to heuristics to attempt to manage this limitation.

Cognitive maps, also referred to as 'cognitive schemata' (Schwenk 1995; Nadkarni and Narayanan 2007), 'mental models' (Day and Lord 1992; Knight et al. 1999), 'knowledge structures' (Walsh 1995) and 'construed reality' (Fickelstein and Hambrick 1996) is the way that knowledge is stored and processed in the mind of an individual (Nadkarni and Narayanan 2007; Stacey 2007; Eden et al. 2009). The 'map' is that person's view of the world, their interpretation of a strategic issue and context. They are a product of an individual's belief system and prioritisation of strategic issues. They are products of education and experience (De Wit and Meyer 2005). Programmes like the MBA and DBA might therefore be vehicles in the formation of strategist's cognitive schemata. This form of individual knowledge tends to be tacit, uncodified, personalised in nature (Polanyi 1966; Nonaka 1991). Tacit knowledge informs intuitive decisions based on assumptions rather than analysis and reasoning. The decisions are a product of shared experience and meaning (Daft and Weick 1984). Cognitive maps result in what has been referred to as group dominant logic (Prahalad and Bettis 1986), common paradigm (Kuhn 1970) or belief system (Noorderhaven 1995). The belief system of an individual is the function of a number of elements. The diagram below (Figure 4: The Contexts of a Strategists: The Foundations of a Belief System) illustrates these elements. A belief system is not only an individual phenomenon, it can also belong to groups as large as disparate as countries. Belief systems can change over time and in different contexts (De Wit and Meyer 2005).

Figure 4: The Contexts of a Strategist: The Foundations of a Belief System



There is a danger that the use of mental maps results in bias and rigidity (De Wit and Meyer 2005). Many of the issues that are seen in research methods can be identified in cognitive maps. There is evidence that people look for facts or truths that support their view (Schwenk 1995). People use interpretative filters that seek out information to confirm their perceptions of the world. Some strategists form cognitive maps that are very compelling. As De Wit and Meyer (2005) state,

*“For strategists, cognitive rigidity is particularly worrying. Strategists should be at the forefront of market developments, identifying changing circumstances and new opportunities before their competitors. Strategic thinking is by its very nature focused on understanding and shaping the future, and therefore strategists must have the ability to challenge current beliefs and change their own mind. They must be able to come up with innovative, but feasible, new strategies that will fit with the unfolding reality.” (p.33)*

The importance of sense-making in cognition is highlighted by Weick (1995). Perhaps this draws on the understanding of the world that philosophers such as Plato advocated, where inquiry, abstract reasoning and learning were required skills of leaders (Schwandt 2005). Strategic thinking could be described as sense-

making as it could be argued that strategy and strategic think resembles many of the characteristics identified by Weick: grounded in identity construction; retrospective; enactive of sensible environment; social; on-going; focused on and extracted cues and driven by plausibility (Weick 1995). These elements differentiate sense-making from understanding, interpretation and attribution. Whipp (1996) criticises the field of strategic management for lacking reflexivity, perhaps as a product of the duality that is observed in the area between academia and practitioners, where the practitioners have little time for “... meaningless navel gazing ...” (Pettigrew et al. 2002, p.11). The DBA, it is argued here, is a vehicle for sense-making, reflection and reflexivity on practice and theory.

Some support the traditional view that a strategist has to be a rational thinker (Andrews 1971; Isenberg 1984; Shoemaker and Russo 1993; Langley 1995). Writers such as Langley (1995) have identified a tension between managers when considering whether to develop strategy rationally or intuitively. De Wit and Meyer (2005) suggest that both rationality and intuition are necessary in management thinking. In fact, they suggest that intuitive thinking is better at capturing the bigger picture. It avoids the ‘paralysis of analysis’ where the exercise of rationality leads to inertia in action (Langley 1995). At the same time it should be realised that intuitive thinking has inherent dangers and is often unreliable. As De Wit and Meyer (2005) state, “Cognitive heuristics are ‘quick and dirty’ – efficient, but imprecise.” (p.34)

It is almost a leap of faith that the reader is asked to accept that strategists exist. Eminent writers such as Johnson, Scholes and Whittington (2005), Pettigrew (1992), Ackroyd (2002) and Coulter (2005) have indicated that strategists require different cognitive abilities from everyday management. Some believe that managers (strategists) were born and not bred (Hartmann 1959). There has been a growing appreciation that management education can contribute to developing the necessary competencies that strategists require today (Starkey and Tiratsoo 2007).

Mantere and Whittington (2007) propose three fundamental tensions in the strategy literature regarding the nature of strategists: individual and community; technical and personal; reflection and action. The first tension, individual and community, engages the debate whether strategy development is an individualistic or a group activity. The second dichotomy examines whether the activity of strategising is a technical activity, focussing on the analytical abilities of individuals, or strategy is the product of an individual's ability to reflect personally on a situation. The third and final tension, reflection and action, identified by Mantere and Whittington, highlights the discussions around whether strategists are critical, reflective thinkers, or whether they must be engaged in the action of implementation in some way. This argument is crystallised in the division between strategy formulation and implementation identified by early writers on strategic management such as Chandler (1962) and Williamson (1975).

The strategist is the individual with the cognitive abilities to conceptualise the future of an organisation in a holistic manner so as to identify the long-term strategies that an organisation might follow. Strategists might, or might not, then go on to make strategic decisions that need to be articulated to the organisation and then implemented. Decision-making and implementation, the latter parts of the strategy process, is where leadership and management will come to the fore. The strategist will reflect on the outcome of the strategies adopted and the iterative process of strategy then continues.

So what characteristics might strategists possess? The table below (Table 1: Characteristics of a Strategist) lists the characteristics identified in this work and provides key references that support the characteristics' inclusion that draws upon the previous review of the extant relevant research. In the table a number of the elements are inter-related. It is recognised that this is not a comprehensive set of factors and that strategists may not require all of these characteristics.

Table 1: Characteristics of a Strategist



<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Holistic thinking</li> </ul>	(Drucker 1954; Ohmae 1982; Steiner et al. 1983; Senge 1990; Kaufman 1991; Mintzberg 1994a; Singer 1996; Stacey 1996; Singer 1997; Liedtka 1998; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Hambrick and Fredrickson 2005; Johnson et al. 2005)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Clear Intent</li> </ul>	(Prahalad and Hamel 1990; Liedtka 1997)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Vision for the future (long term view)</li> </ul>	(Easterby-Smith and Davies 1983; Steiner et al. 1983; Howard 1989; Stumpf 1989; Reagan-Circincione et al. 1991; Mintzberg 1994d; Liedtka 1998; Linkow 1999; Champy and Nohria 2000; Bonn 2001; Beatty and Quinn 2002; Cummings 2002; Bonn 2005; De Wit and Meyer 2005; Gill 2006)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Intuition</li> </ul>	(Agor 1989; Kleinmuntz 1990; Spangler 1991; Papadakis and Barwise 1998; Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Miller and Ireland 2005)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Entrepreneurship (Divergent thinking)</li> </ul>	(Bhide 1994; Goldsmith 1996; Heracleous 1998; Graetz 2002; O'Shannassy 2003)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Break from previous patterns of behaviour</li> </ul>	(Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Kao 1997; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney

	1999; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002).
• Creativity	(Bates and Dillard Jr. 1993; Mintzberg 1994a; Goldsmith 1996; Kao 1997; Liedtka 1997; Amabile 1998; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Ford and Gioia 2000; Bonn 2001; Graetz 2002; Andriopoulos 2003; O'Shannassy 2003; Walton 2004; Bonn 2005; De Wit and Meyer 2005)
• Industry knowledge and expertise	(Ohmae 1982)
• Analytical skills	(Bourgeois 1984; Bourgeois 1985; Pearce II et al. 1987; Dutton et al. 1989; Hitt and Tyler 1991; Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Johnson et al. 2005)
• Ability to forecast	(Sun Tzu in Ohmae 1982; Lo et al. 1998; Lord 2000)
• Ability to influence change	(Schendel and Hofer 1979; Pettigrew and Whipp 1991; Eisenhardt, 199; Hambrick, 2001)
• Manage the communication of culture	(Higgins and McAllaster 2004)
• Communication	(Eisenhardt et al. 1997; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002; Porter 2005)

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Stimulating strategic dialogue in an organisation</li> </ul>	(Cummings 2002; Gill 2006)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Decision-making</li> </ul>	(Schendel and Hofer 1979; Hambrick and Pettigrew 2001; Porter 2005)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Cognitive ability</li> </ul>	(March and Olsen 1976; Schendel and Hofer 1979; Stubbart 1989; Wright et al. 1994; Chung and McLarney 1999; De Wit and Meyer 2005).
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Strategic thinking</li> </ul>	(Mintzberg 1994a; Liedtka 1998; Pellegrino and Carbo 2001; De Wit and Meyer 2005)

Fundamentally, as a number of writers (See Table 1: Characteristics of a Strategist) have explicitly found the ability of strategists to think holistically about strategic issues is essential. Drucker (1954) and Hambrick and Fredrickson (2005) extend this notion of comprehensive thinking and introduce the metaphor of the orchestration in strategic conceptualisation. Ohmae (1982) believes that the strategist must be able to identify strategic issues, which Ohmae then suggests are issues that require a comprehensive and rounded view. Hambrick and Fredrickson (2005) propose that a strategist must have an integrated overarching concept of how an organisation will achieve its objectives. Bonn's posits that at the individual level strategic thinking consists of three inter-related elements: a holistic understanding of the organisation and its environment; creativity; and a vision for the future of the organisation. Bonn's identification of the ability to develop a holistic comprehension of an organisation draws upon work of writers such as Kaufman (1991) and it is suggested by Bonn (2001) and others (Senge 1990; Stacey 1996) that this capacity relies on a systems thinking approach.

The ability of a strategist to identify a clear intent for the organisation is suggested by writers such as Prahalad and Hamel (1990) and Liedtka (1997) as a virtue that a strategist should possess. This view is questioned by writers. Mintzberg and Waters (1985) suggest that strategy does not actually have to be a deliberate process. Perhaps, a more eclectic ability in terms of identifying intent is having a vision for the future as suggested by a number of writers (See Table 5: Characteristics of a Strategist). Champy and Nohria (2000), Beatty and Quinn (2002) and Gill (2006) propose that formulating the long view is a fundamental function of the strategist.

Several academic authors highlight the importance of intuition in the development of strategy (See Table 5: Characteristics of a Strategist). Intuition is described by Kleinmuntz (1990) as the way managers use their heads rather than formulas. Ohmae (1982) in his seminal text 'The Mind of the Strategists', although set in the context of Japanese management, supports the intuitive perspective. Ohmae does not reject the necessity for analysis, however, Ohmae states, "... successful business strategies result not from rigorous analysis but from a particular state of mind." (p.4) Ohmae considers how strategists can be nurtured to develop a "... group of young 'samurais' ..." (p.5) that would not only be the creative and entrepreneurial force in an organisation, but also be the analysts that test, digest, assign priorities and finally implement strategies. The importance of Ohmae's text is that the main link between strategy and the human mind overt and inextricably inter-related. Ohmae (1982) believes that individuals who can identify critical issues in organisations are rare. Ohmae also, however, proposes that strategic issue identification can be achieved by applying a systematic approach. This is questioned by a number of contemporary writers (Mintzberg 1987a; Johnson and Huff 1997; Mintzberg 2004).

Agor (1989) emphasises the unconscious elements in intuitive decision-making. Intuitive decisions are a mix of experience, knowledge, sense-making, character and context. A number of writers propose that normative and intuitive aspects of organisational decision-making should be taken into account (Einhorn 1972;

Showers and Chakrin 1981; Blattberg and Hoch 1990; Kleinmuntz 1990; Spangler 1991; Papadakis and Barwise 1998; Clarke and Mackaness 2001). Essentially, an intuitive management decision is based on the judgement of the individual making that decision which requires the organisational context in which that individual is operating and the background of the individual to be taken into account (Clarke and Mackaness 2001). Weick (1995), however, suggests that intuition is compressed expertise which allows managers to make decisions without comprehending the process by which they come to conclusions. Blattberg and Hoch (1990) describe intuition as an unquestioning outlook. Some researchers (Jenkins and Johnson 1997) have linked intuition with sense-making in decision-making. Perhaps, the DBA is a vehicle to allow individuals to 'compress' expertise to improve their intuitive capacity. Compressed expertise that allows managers to make decisions without comprehending the process by which they arrived at conclusions. Managers will still, however, require knowledge and experience in order to make intuitive decisions.

Bhide (1994) linked the concept of a strategist with entrepreneurship. This implies a more action and implementation focus than other writers have proposed. Sun Tzu highlighted the need for a strategist to deceive and surprise, whereas Liedtka (1997) focussed on the requirement for imagination. Writers suggest that strategists should be prepared to break from previous patterns of behaviour (Kao 1997; Chung and McLarney 1999; Cummings 2002) which links to the notion of creativity in strategy. Walton (Walton 2004) posits that a strategist has many of the traits of an artist, particularly in terms of creativity. Writers such as De Bono (1996), Ford and Gioia (2000) and Stacey (1996) have emphasised the requirement for strategists to be creative so that original solutions to strategic issues can be found. Importantly, for this study, Amabile (1998) emphasises the importance of how people approach issues. Critically, strategists must escape from what Kao describe as the "...tyranny of the given ..." (1997, p.47). The ability of strategists to break from previous patterns of behaviour, particularly, where the approach was successful is also identified as important by Chung and

McLarney (1999). Senge (1990) purpose that a vision for an organisation is a deep held belief, rather than a neat solution to an organisational problem.

Perhaps, surprisingly few writers explicitly identify the requirement for strategists to have specific industry knowledge and expertise. Both Sun Tzu and Ohmae (Ohmae 1982), however, propose that the ability to forecast, based on in-depth understanding of the strategic environment in which an organisation is operating is an essential requirement of a strategist. Several authors recognise that strategists require sophisticated analytical skills (See Table 5: Characteristics of a Strategist) which will require understanding of business environments. The dangers of environmental misinterpretation are highlighted (Dutton et al. 1989) as a result of cognitive dissonance (Chung and McLarney 1999; Clarke and Mackaness 2001) leading to strategic drift (Johnson et al. 2005), where an organisation's strategy is at odds with the environment in which it operates. Texts assume strategy or strategic management must involve reductionist models, frameworks and theories (See Gill's 2006 chapter on Leadership and Strategy). To make sense of the world in which the strategist operates, because of the cognitive limitations discussed earlier, an amount of model building and reductionism will have to take place. This will only inform organisational strategic discussion, not predict the future of organisations.

The ability to influence change (See Table 5: Characteristics of a Strategist) as it is often identified as a key component of leadership (Hambrick and Pettigrew 2001). Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992) emphasises the ability of strategists to gain political influence for their ideas to gain credence and ultimately be enacted. Thus, if the strategist is not the implementer of strategic change, they must be able to at least influence the strategic leader. The ability to influence change is closely aligned to the ability to communicate.

Several authors (See Table 1: Characteristics of a Strategist) propose that communication is an essential skill of a strategist. Higgins and McAllaster (2004) suggest that strategic communication can be managed through cultural artefacts

such as cars driven by managers, type of computers used by staff (Mac or MS). Gill (2006) and Cummings (2002) emphasise the need for strategists to have the ability to stimulate strategic dialogue in organisations.

Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) suggest that strategists make strategic decisions. This follows the conventional perspective on strategic management. Others (Schendel and Hofer 1979; Porter 2005) firmly place strategic decision-making with chief executive officers. It is argued here, in support of writers such as Pettigrew (1992) that the conceptualisation of strategy is not necessarily undertaken by those making strategic decisions. It could be argued that the division between those that formulate strategy and those that make strategic decisions is an artificial one as both parties will have to conceptualise strategy.

Cognitive ability has been seen as an important element in the make-up of a strategist (See Table 5: Characteristics of a Strategist). When examining the facets and competencies an effective strategist requires cognitive ability is a function of a plethora of factors and cannot be separated as an independent variable. Appropriate cognitive ability varies with context (Chung and McLarney 1999). Most importantly it must be remembered that even the most ‘blessed’ strategists suffer from cognitive limitations (March and Olsen 1976).

Strategic thinking is another catchall term that some writers put forward as a skill required by strategists (See Table 5: Characteristics of a Strategist). This incorporates the requirement for strategists to adopt a strategic perspective is holistic, fundamental and long term. As stated at the outset of this section, it is perhaps strategic thinking that is at the core of ‘being’ a strategist. De Wit and Meyer (2005) suggest that it is essential that there is an understanding of what is going on in the minds of managers when they make strategic decisions and act in particular ways. They (De Wit and Meyer 2005) describe the mind of a strategist as a “black box” (p.27). They suggest that, “Grasping how managers shape their strategic views and select their preferred actions can be used to develop more effective strategy processes.” (p.27) De Wit and Meyer link strategic thinking to

strategic problem solving and strategic reasoning. One person's valid (personally rationalised) reason for a strategic decision might be everyone else's madness. Liedtka (1998) and Raimond (1996) draw our attention to the dichotomy in the literature around analytic and creative aspects in strategy making. Actual practice (Mintzberg and Waters 1985; Whittington 1996; Jarzabkowski 2003; Mintzberg et al. 2003; Johnson et al. 2004; Whittington 2006) would indicate that both modes of thinking are relevant and required by strategists. Analysis aids creativity and creativity aids analysis. Both are necessary for strategic thinking and management. Liedtka (1998) is clear in linking strategic thinking and learning. Liedtka states, “.. a strategic thinker is a learner, rather than a knower. As such, it locates strategic thinking as the outcome of a developmental process.” (p.124) The learning organisation has been the mantra of many organisational specialists for many years (De Geus 1988; Senge 1990; Senge 1997). Learning is underpinned by reflection and reflexivity (Whipp 1996; Pozzebon 2004; Stacey 2007). It is argued by a range of key writers on strategy and strategic management that reflection and reflexive is at the core of being a strategist (For example: Pettigrew 1973; Schön 1983; Parston 1986; Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Senge 1990; Kao 1997; Senge 1997; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002; Mintzberg and Westley 2005). It is argued here that these two activities are at the core of strategic thinking.

Several authors posit strategic thinking as a separate strategic activity (Pellegrino and Carbo 2001). Ohmae (1982) placed strategic thinking in a competitive context and linked creativity and analytical endeavour. Pellegrino and Carbo (2001) suggest that strategic thinking is the prelude to organisational change. Hoskins and Morley (1991) and Hoskins, Dachler and Gergen (1995) call for a relational approach to understanding organisations. This perspective rejects the notion of an organisation as an entity in its own right. It proposes that organisations are social constructs that consist and are formed by human relationships (Watson 2003). Bonn (2001) identifies strategic thinking as a key role of senior executives in organisations whether the organisations in which they operate have formal or informal strategic development approaches. Bonn



suggests that the issues around strategic thinking can be addressed at the individual and organisational levels.

Porter (2005) and others link formal strategic processes such as strategic planning to create an environment that enhances strategic thinking. Pellegrino and Carbo (2001) link strategic thinking as an integral part of strategic planning. In fact they suggest that strategic planning might be superseded by strategic thinking. This view is supported by writers such as Thompson and Strickland (1999) and Viljoen (1994). Mintzberg (1994a) clearly refutes the link between formal strategic planning and strategic thinking. Mintzberg draws the distinction between strategic analysis and synthesis. The latter involves strategic thinking, whereas the former involves the articulation, elaboration and formalisation of existing strategies (Bonn 2001). This view has been supported by a number of writers including Heracleous (1998). Furthermore, Mintzberg (1994a) and others (Heracleous 1998; Bonn 2001) see planning as a process that occurs after strategic thinking. It is argued here that the DBA can contribute to both elements in the development of strategy. The DBA provides generic skills to those that are either strategist or contribute to the development of strategy.

Prahalad and Hamel (1994) use the term 'crafting strategic architecture' to describe the processes that Mintzberg and others term strategic thinking. As indicated within this review, different authors have different views on how strategic thinking takes place. Mintzberg, Prahalad and Hamel view it as integral to the planning processes observed in many organisations. Writers such as Stacey and Griffin (1993; 2001; Stacey and Griffin 2005; Stacey 2007) view strategic thinking as a mainly creative, subjective process. Noorderhaven (1995) usefully critiques the normative-rational conceptualisation of the strategy development process (Bourgeois 1984; Huff and Reger 1987; Hitt and Tyler 1991) much loved by those who propose generic management rational tools, such as SWOT, as the panacea for management. His overview highlights the importance of the psychology of decision-making, individual differences, emotions and intuition, cognitive biases and heuristics. This brings the focus of strategic decision-making

away from the process towards the individual decision-makers and the influences upon them. Importantly, in the context of this study and the role of formal education Noorderhaven (1995) states,

*“A person’s education influences his or her knowledge and skills base. Presumably these differences have a bearing on strategic decision-making. ... One consistent finding in studies of the relationship between educational background of managers and organizational behaviour is that a higher educational level of managers is associated with a higher degree of organizational receptivity to innovation.”* (p.67)

Strategic thinking is a term that has become prevalent in strategy literature (Liedtka 1998) and central to this work’s notion of a strategist. For example authors such as Mintzberg use the term to describe a particular way of thinking. Liedtka views strategic thinking as, “...a synthesizing process, utilising intuition and creativity, whose outcome is ‘an integrated perspective of the enterprise.’ ” (Liedtka 1998, p.121) Eden (1990) offers a more overt conceptualisation of strategic thinking in terms of a structure to the process of strategy. Eden describes a strategic options development and analysis project that is structured in terms of thinking about issues, goals, and actions.

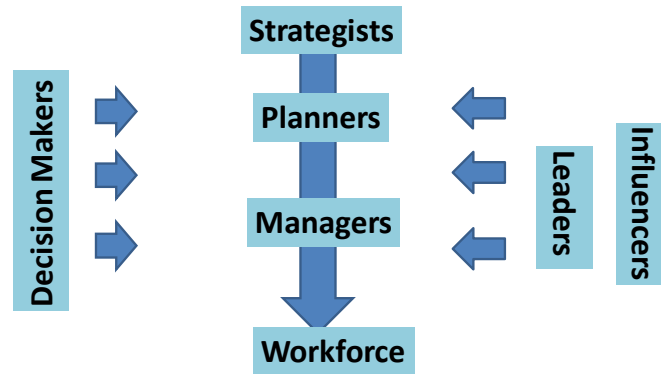
Liedtka and others (Liedtka and Rosenblum 1996; Liedtka 1998) describes the process of shaping strategic conversations. Liedtka places this in the sphere of the strategist and organisational learning. This has resonance with the sense-making and creating (Weick 1995) and the scenario development literature (Wack 1985; Schwartz 1998; Courtney 2003). It is not a great leap to create a link to a formal but student-centred management development programme such as the DBA. It is argued that the elements detailed above and throughout this review indicate that a strategist has one fundamental over-riding requirement, the ability to be a strategic thinker. This necessitates the ability to conceptualise strategic issues holistically, with clear organisational future intent, to be creative, to have industry knowledge and expertise, to possess sophisticated analytical skills, to influence others through skilful communication and organisational dialogue and to be able to make strategic decisions. It is argued here, supported by work of a number of eminent

writers (Drucker 1967; Ohmae 1982; Bass 1985; Liedtka 1998) that the skills of a strategist can be learnt. The basic requirement of a strategist, to be a strategic thinker, it is argued in this work can be nurtured and enhanced through the DBA. Increasingly, the relevance of strategy to practice is being questioned (Bettis 1991; Ghoshal and Moran 1996; Lowendahl and Revang 1998; Baldrige et al. 2004; Jarzabkowski and Wilson 2006). This mirrors criticisms of the traditional doctoral route, the PhD, particularly in respect of its engagement with real business issues.

#### ***2.4.2 Strategists, Leaders, the Executive and Other Players***

The traditional view that strategists tend to be located in upper echelons of the organisation might not actually match practice in organisations (Jarzabkowski, Balogun et al. 2007). When considering strategy and strategists, it is important to recognise that strategy can be the product of all levels of an organisation from network through corporate to business and even functional levels (Pettigrew 1973; Pettigrew 1992; Hambrick and Pettigrew 2001; De Wit and Meyer 2005). Thus, the development of strategy is often a multi-actor or stakeholder process that may involve individuals or agencies outside an organisation. The figure below (Figure 5: Leaders (influencers); Decision-Makers; Strategists; Planners; Managers; Workers) shows some of the key groupings that might be involved in the development of strategy in an organisation. It should be noted that the groupings are not mutually exclusive, therefore a leader might also be a strategist and a planner. The various actors' roles will be dependent on context and individuals' abilities and characters.

Figure 5: Leaders (influencers); Decision-Makers; Strategists; Planners; Managers; Workers



Strategists will have to come to terms with a range of tensions, paradoxes and perspectives, either consciously or intuitively. At the organisational level Bonn (2001) proposes that strategic thinkers facilitate on-going strategic dialogue between the senior executives and to enhance creativity at all levels. Essentially, this observation can be summarised in the need to communicate effectively across all level of the organisation. Eisenhardt et al. (1997) emphasised the need for senior executives to learn from other members of the organisation through continual dialogue.

There is an argument that all employees of an organisation and other stakeholders are strategists (Coulter 2005). To an extent that proposition has some validity. Those most closely involved in formulating and making strategic decisions that might influence the whole organisation over the long term tend to be senior executives or non-executives (Pettigrew 1992; Ackroyd 2002; Pettigrew et al. 2002). Coulter (2005) identifies boards of directors, senior management teams and other key employees as those most closely associated with strategic decision-making in organisations. Strategy can also be viewed as a group or organisational process (van Knippenberg and Hogg 2003). The position taken in this work is one suggested by Sims and Gioia (1986) that organisational activity is always based on individual cognitive processes.

In the 1980s Ireland et al. (1987) called for a more comprehensive understanding of how strategic decision-makers conceptualise issues. Whether strategists can or should be considered as decision makers is an interesting question. Decision-making is seen as a central activity of management (Simon 1957; Noorderhaven 1995). This perception can lead to an overly rationalistic view of decision-making, which avoids the practices in organisations that form strategic decisions. Many of these practices are far from rational, as anyone who has considered their own organisational experiences in any depth will testify. There has been some meaningful research that has helped us better understand strategic decision-making, however, there are still major gaps in our understanding (Huff 1997). Strategists might be decision-makers but they might also just inform decision makers. The widely read strategic management text book, 'Exploring Corporate Strategy' by Johnson et al. (2005) does not have a section that actually examines strategists. Its introductory chapter goes into some depth describing the characteristics of strategic decisions. By clearly establishing that a key element of strategy and strategic management is making decisions, it then describes the processes around strategy in an abstract way, almost devoid of human input. This is somewhat surprising as both Whittington and Johnson have been leading proponents of what has become known as the strategy as practice school in strategic management. The 'practice lens' on the subject takes a behavioural and sociological perspective, supposedly putting individuals and their interactions at the forefront of understanding strategy. The clarity of the lens through which strategy and strategists can be studied is obfuscated by the nature of the activity. Characteristics that have been identified or associated with the practice of strategy differ with diverse parts of an organisation, with alternative types of organisations and with environmental different contexts. Characteristics are also temporal (Mintzberg 1994b) and their interpretation can be influenced and a clear view can be further muddied by fashion, fads and management rhetoric as discussed earlier.

Traditionally the strategist has been seen as the chief executive, the chairman, the executive and non-executive board (Handscombe and Norman 1993; Hellgren and Melin 1993; Poister and Streib 1999; Porter 2005). Pettigrew (1992) classified

these as the managerial elite. Samra-Fredericks (2003) called this grouping when carrying out strategic activities, 'strategists'. The Cadbury Report (1992) describes the function of company directors as setting the direction for the company. This assumption is however questioned. In later work Pettigrew with Hambrick (2001) examine non executive boards of directors, an organisational grouping, which has traditionally been prescribed the role of setting strategy for organisations. Hambrick and Pettigrew question their strategic input. They identify choice, change and control as, "... key aspects of firms' strategic conduct." (p.48) Their study finds that non-executive directors seem to have an impact on these aspects of strategy in organisations. An issue identified by Hambrick and Pettigrew is that little is actually known about the behaviour of board members, the 'corporate elite'. Hambrick and Pettigrew draw upon work by writers such as Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992) and identify political influence as a potential activity for a strategist.

Management, leadership and strategists are terms that are commonly found in literature on strategy and strategic management (See Porter, 2005; Gill, 2006; Johnson, 2007). It will be shown that these terms refer to different aspects of organisational strategic decision-making, although any divisions should be seen as essentially theoretical and artificial. In practice, such classifications can be misleading, as strategy, and therefore strategists, can emerge at any level of the organisation. Northouse (1997) suggests that managers deal with operational, day-to-day issues, whereas leaders focus organisations on the strategic issues. Daft (2002) proposes that leadership is about strategic thinking and setting the vision for an organisation. Other writers on leadership (Bray et al. 1974; Stodgill 1974; Boyatzis 1982; McClelland 1985; Leavitt 1986; Kotter 1990) point to leadership as the craft of persuasion of groups.

There is a growing body of literature that examines the role of middle management in the process of developing strategy in organisation (Bowman and Singh 1993; Dutton and Ashford 1993; Balogun 2003; Delmestri and Walgenbach 2005; Froud et al. 2005). Research shows that middle managers are integral to the

strategic processes formulation, synthesis, choice and implementation. There is evidence that links middle managers to strategic thinking, in what has become known as 'bottom-up' strategy development (Burgelman 1983; Fickelstein and Hambrick 1996; Knight et al. 1999; Bryson 2005). Where strategies are generated is not the preserve of the higher echelons of the organisation.

It has long been recognised that there is a difference between management and leadership (Zaleznik 1977). Leavy (1996) states that in the 30 years of the development of the strategy field, leadership and strategy have been regarded as synonymous. The issue of nomenclature is even more confused as the literature uses terms such as Chief Executive Officer (CEO), president, manager, top leaders, strategic thinkers, managers as proxies for strategists (Mintzberg 1991; Ericson et al. 2001). Radically different strategic perspectives such as the rational-economic, population ecology and contingency, have emerged which assume that leaders have little impact on strategy. The process orientation perspective introduced by writers such as Pettigrew and Mintzberg (Palmer 2000) and more latterly the practice writers in strategy have, however, reaffirmed the importance of leadership in the development of strategy.

Texts on strategy often overtly or implicitly have sections on leadership (Dess et al. 2004; Pettinger 2004) or conversely, texts on leadership often have, overtly or implicitly, sections on strategy (Hickman 1998; Gill 2006). Compared with leadership, the literature around the area of strategists is scant. Northouse (1997) states, "There are a multitude of ways to finish the sentence, 'Leadership is....' " (p.2). The same could be said of 'strategy is ...' and a strategist is ...' as Hambrick and Fredrickson (2005) identified. Daft (2002) identifies over 350 different definitions of the term leadership. In common with virtually all other terminology in management research there appears to be no unifying definition of the term leadership (Rost 1995; Northouse 1997). Bass suggests that certain definitions regard leadership as the focus of a group process. Some writers conceptualise leadership in terms of a personality perspective (Daft 2002; Gill 2006), whilst others define leadership in terms of an act or behaviour, or with

regard to power relationships, or even as an instrument of goal achievement (Bass 1990). Northouse (1997) defines leadership as "... a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal." (p.3) Northouse carefully avoids categorising leadership as a residual trait or a genetic characteristic. Elements of this definition of leadership have resonance with strategy and strategists. 'Influence' is essential if strategies are to be adopted and implemented. Achieving 'a common goal' or goals might be the outcome of an intended strategy developed by a strategist. Thus, it is argued here that it is worthwhile considering some of the multitude of literature in the area of leadership as it might inform our understanding of strategists. It should be noted, however, that this work considers that leadership and being a strategist as different, although closely related, phenomenon. A strategist can also be a leader, some leaders, as will be argued, might not be strategists.

Harung et al. (1995) highlight the following factors that have been identified by key writers (Bray et al. 1974; Stodgill 1974; Boyatzis 1982; McClelland 1985; Leavitt 1986) as characteristics of leaders: Social power motivation; communication skills; critical and creative thinking; self-efficacy and inner locus of control; vision; interpersonal competences to resolve conflicts in a constructive manner; ability to build team spirit in a constructive manner; and fundamentally maturity. Northouse (1997) highlights some of the similarities between leadership and management. For example, both involve influence, working with people and goal management. Leadership can, however, be differentiated from management using a number of characteristics. Northouse refers to Kotter's study (1990) of the differences between management and leadership, where Kotter argues that the two functions are very different. Management, according to Kotter is about order and consistency, whereas leadership's primary purpose is to influence constructive strategic change. Daft (2002) also concurs with Northouse that leadership inherently involves the leadership of change. This does not necessarily include the conceptualisation of strategy. The strategists might not be directly involved in leading change in an organisation.



Perspectives on leadership can inform our understanding of strategists. Daft (2002) suggests that leadership is both a science and an art. Grint is unequivocal in his view that "...leadership is art – or rather an array of arts more than a science." (Grint 2001, p.88) In addition, Grint believes that the world that leaders can create is restricted by the "social discourses within which they operate" (p.65). These discourses include the language, the behaviour, the social mores, prevalent in a society at a particular time (2001). Grint states,

*"...it [social constructivism] rejects the idea that we can ever have an objective account of an individual or a situation or a technology – or, in this case, an identity – because all accounts are derived from linguistic reconstructions."* (2001, p.89)

This argument can be applied to strategists. The key role of a strategist is to imagine and communicate possibilities. Gabriel (1999), in a similar vein to Grint, writes about leaders spinning dreams. In this rather fantasy-laden mode of thinking Hassard and Pym (1990) suggest that organisational theorists require a more metaphorical understanding. The necessity for leaders to communicate their vision effectively in post industrial organisations is emphasised by a several authors (Collier and Esteban 2000; Grint 2001). This may be in the form of a 'performance' (Grint 2001). Information may be filtered, so as to 'sell' a vision to followers (Putnam and Borko 2000) or to enforce a 'dominant logic' in the Marxist sense. Leaders are the sellers of dreams, whereas, strategists are the dreamers, the visionaries.

A fundamental question must be asked namely are strategists leaders? Strategists are is not necessarily leaders, although much literature assumes this is the case. It is important not to assume that a strategist is necessarily a leader. Strategists are the strategic thinkers and communicators in organisations. This, it is believed, is currently a shortcoming in the extant literature.

### ***2.4.3 Being a Strategist: An Individual or Group Activity?***

Clarke and Mackness (2001) observe that although organisational decisions might be made by groups, fundamentally, decision-making is an individual process. Watson (2003) refers to early work by Schoenberger (1994; 1995), albeit examining group dynamics in strategy making processes, that considers the power interests and identities of individuals that contributed to the development of managerial cultures and corporate identities in certain United States of America (USA) corporations. Chatman et al. (1986) identify the actions of individuals in organisations as representative of two entities: the individual; and the organisation in which the individual operates. This is the context in which the strategist develops.

Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) observe that little has been said by agency theorists about strategy as a means of control over managers. Agency theory is a much contested area but essentially it examines how agents (individuals or groups) work together when they may have conflicting objectives (Eisenhardt 1989). Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) also propose that the strategy literature has spent minimal or no time assessing the impact of boards on the development of strategy in organisations. This concurs with Finkelstein and Hambrick's (1996) criticism of descriptive and prescriptive strategy literature that has largely ignored the role of senior executives and boards of directors. Bonn (2001) examines strategic thinking at both individual and organisational levels. Bonn establishes that strategy is developed by the individual, albeit often, if not always, as a social process involving others. This study only considers the individual and how they develop strategy.

### ***2.4.4 Nurturing Strategists: Can Strategy Be Taught?***

Bransford et al. (2003) and others argue that mental models of people are most affected by education, experience and age. Writers such as Liedtka (1998), Doh (2003) and Sternberg (2003) clearly believe that management education can contribute to developing the strategic skills. Increasingly, the established

mechanisms for executive management education, for example, the MBA, are widely criticised (Watson 2001; Clegg and Ross-Smith 2003) because of the course designers and deliverers apparent blind allegiance to rational, reductionist, modernist theory that seemingly propose universal answers to business issues. This is perhaps a very jaundiced view of some weaker management classes and perhaps does not represent the reality in many business schools. A range of writers propose that management education must be placed within an enquiring and critical framework (Liedtka 1998; Walker and Finney 1999; Grey 2004; Mintzberg 2004; Grey 2005). Criticality is too readily associated with subjectivity and interpretation. As Walker and Finney (1999) observe it should also involve objective, scientific analysis. Critical thinking should encompass evaluation of skills (knowing 'how') and knowledge (knowing 'what'). This will necessitate reflection and reflexive thought on management action. Reflexive thought is fundamental to being a strategist.

Strategy is affected by the personality of the key strategists and decision-makers such as the CEO (Kets de Vries et al. 1993). It is argued in this work that a fundamental element in the development of the personality of strategists is their education. This has resonance with Noorderhaven's view (1995). In particular, it is proposed that strategists require high-level critical abilities and skills that doctoral education, particularly in the form of a DBA, should provide. This argument takes the discussion about what a strategist is, beyond that of simple identity. It could be argued that a strategist is a social construction (Scott et al. 2004). This work, however, proposes that a strategist is a far more real and tangible entity in an organisation that can be nurtured by high level management education and research. It is argued here that the cognitive abilities of individuals can be influenced by management education in a way that can enhance abilities required of a strategist (Noorderhaven 1995). In particular, within professions such as human resources, procurement, marketing, accountancy, etc., there are clear routes in terms of educational and professional attainment. For the strategist the path they have to follow is far less clearly delineated.

Zaleznik (1977) gives a compelling argument for the design of programmes to develop organisational leaders. Zaleznik highlights the importance of what today is known as mentoring – the one-to-one relationships, that develop elites. The MBA has long been recognised as an elite academic qualification with business-currency (Arnot 2006; Kleiman and Kass 2007). Authors such as Mintzberg (2004), however, have been scathing of established management programmes such as MBAs. Mintzberg is particularly concerned that this type of programme is dislocated with what managers (strategists) actually do in their workplaces. Mintzberg is clearly in the school that sees strategy as an art, where strategy is crafted. Although Mintzberg does admit that science, or rational consideration of issues, does offer some value, but favours insight, vision and intuition over calculation, measurement and science. Mintzberg advocates a contingent approach to all forms of management, where the situation should determine the approach. Moreover, Mintzberg is particularly withering of MBAs taught in a didactic way to those with little or no real management experience as he believes that the participants will gain little or no practical knowledge and understanding of real management from that type of course. He advocates a practice-based programme of study, where real managers, discuss real managerial issues around in-depth reflection on their practice. The role of faculty is not to teach but to facilitate reflection and reflexive thought, through which participants learn.

## **2.5 Conclusion: Strategists**

More detailed conclusions from this chapter will be presented after the chapter on the Doctorate, Professional Doctorates and the Doctor of Business Administration. This chapter has attempted to identify characteristics that strategists might possess. The factors identified are not mutually inclusive. A strategist might possess one or all of the characteristics. It must be understood that the notions of strategy and strategists are subjective and open to much debate and interpretation. The next chapter examines doctorates.

### 3 THE DOCTORATE, PROFESSIONAL DOCTORATES AND THE DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

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#### 3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the literature around the term doctorate and its development in academia. The chapter will particularly examine the extant research on the development of professional doctorates and the drivers for this form of doctoral qualification. It will then go on to examine literature on DBAs. This will provide the reader with an understanding of the location of the DBA in terms of doctoral education. It will also introduce some of the background to changes in doctoral education that have relevance to the central focus of this study.

The UK's Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) defines a doctorate in its 2008 Framework for Higher Education Qualifications in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. It is necessary at this point to reproduce the descriptor verbatim so that the discussion about the DBA is set in context,

*“Doctoral degrees are awarded to students who have demonstrated:*

- *the creation and interpretation of new knowledge, through original research or other advanced scholarship, of a quality to satisfy peer review, extend the forefront of the discipline, and merit publication*
- *a systematic acquisition and understanding of a substantial body of knowledge which is at the forefront of an academic discipline or area of professional practice*
- *the general ability to conceptualise, design and implement a project for the generation of new knowledge, applications or understanding at the forefront of the discipline, and to adjust the project design in the light of unforeseen problems*

- *a detailed understanding of applicable techniques for research and advanced academic enquiry.*

*Typically, holders of the qualification will be able to:*

- *make informed judgements on complex issues in specialist fields, often in the absence of complete data, and be able to communicate their ideas and conclusions clearly and effectively to specialist and non-specialist audiences*
- *continue to undertake pure and/or applied research and development at an advanced level, contributing substantially to the development of new techniques, ideas or approaches.*

*And holders will have:*

- *the qualities and transferable skills necessary for employment requiring the exercise of personal responsibility and largely autonomous initiative in complex and unpredictable situations, in professional or equivalent environments.” (Quality Assurance Agency 2008)*

This ‘descriptor’ clearly identifies key features of a doctorate, in whatever form. The creation of new knowledge is fundamental to being awarded a doctorate. The descriptor goes further and insists that a person granted a doctoral award should also be able to design and implement research projects and communicate their findings to non specialists. Importantly, this descriptor requires the holder of a doctorate to make informed judgements on complex and unpredictable situations that can be applied in professional environments. As will be shown later, these pre-requisites for a doctorate are closely aligned to the characteristics of a strategist. It is argued in this work that the unique position of the DBA emphasises the relevance of the doctoral qualification in the development of the competencies required by strategists.

Historically, a doctorate has been the “gold standard” (Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001, p.61) in respect to awards in UK HE. For the last century the PhD has been the primary vehicle for the delivery of doctoral programmes in the UK (Green and Powell 2005). In the past thirty years, however, the role of the PhD has been questioned from a number of different perspectives (Dent 2002). Perhaps as a result of criticisms of the PhD, but maybe also as a consequence of fundamental changes in perspectives about the production of knowledge in society (Gibbons et al. 1994; Nowotny et al. 2003; van Aken 2005), new and innovative doctoral awards such as the DBA have emerged. Green and Powell (2005) recognise a number of categories of doctorate that are now offered in the UK. It is one class of doctorate, the professional doctorate, which is the focus of this study. In particular this work examines one of the more prevalent professional doctorates, the DBA, and its possible influence on the development of strategists.

This review of the literature on professional doctoral awards and the DBA initially examines the range of recognised doctorates awarded by academia. It then goes on to explore one form of doctorate, the professional doctorate in more detail. Drivers for the adoption of professional doctorates are discussed. The review will then examine DBAs in particular, looking at its prevalence, form and the rationale. This structure will allow the reader to place the DBA in context and it identifies key elements within this award that might impact the development of strategists. It should be noted at the outset, as will be shown, that there are many different forms of DBA. No two DBAs are exactly the same. For the purposes of this research, however, the researcher has tried to take as general a view as possible, identifying generic characteristics of the DBA.

### **3.2 Doctorates – the PhD and Variations on the Doctorate.**

Academia has developed, particularly in the last thirty years, a variety of awards that can be classified as doctorates. There are, nevertheless, elements of fuzziness around each one of these classifications (Phillips and Pugh 2000; Green and Powell 2005). Scott et al (2004) identify three models of doctoral study: Firstly,

the “pure model” (p.20), which has the characteristics of the award that is conventionally understood as the PhD. It is based in a discipline which conforms to the epistemological, methodological and method traditions of that subject area. They state of this model, “Its intention is to influence the practicum in the long term and thus it has no desire to change practice in any immediate sense.” (p.20) The second model has features of the first, but has a looser approach to trans-disciplinary research. The knowledge produced appears more vocationally appropriate and accessible. The third and final model that Scott et al. (2004) identify they name the “servicing model” (p.21), where the notion of universalising truth is abandoned and is contextually specific. The DBA is located in second and third categories. Critical for the development of strategists are links with knowledge production in practice. Alternatively, Green and Powell (2005) recognise seven categories of doctorate that are now offered in the UK, including: the PhD; the Taught Doctorate (also known as New Route PhDs); the Doctor of Medicine; Higher Doctorates; a PhD by published work; Professional Doctorates; and Practice-based Doctorates. Scott et al (2004) believe that the professional doctorate has been the most significant of the new forms of doctoral qualification to have emerged in the UK.

The change in the nature of doctorates to more vocationally orientated qualifications is seen by writers such as Scott et al. (2004) as a fundamental step in the evolution of doctorates. Perhaps, this is indicative of a move of power from the academic elite to a partnership between the profession, workplace and universities. For example, practice-based and professional and doctorates are clearly located in professions and the workplace although grounded in academia. Scott et al. (2004) also assert that the tension between the demands of academic rigour and professional credibility has resulted in a number of different and innovative forms of professional doctorate. They describe the moves for PhDs to become more vocationally-based and more structured as the “professionalization of the doctorate” (p.3). In particular many ‘new PhDs’ have a taught first year focusing on research methodology and methods. The latest manifestations and prescriptions by influential bodies such as the Economic and Social Research



Council (ESRC) had produced what has become known as the 1 + 3 PhD (Scott et al. 2004). The first years (the '1') is a Masters in Research, whilst the remaining 3, are three years of PhD thesis production. Each form of doctorate develops their own list of assessment criteria, some implicit and others explicit (Denicolo 2004). As Denicolo and Park (2010) indicate, criteria of doctoral assessment have traditionally focused on the output (usually in the form of a thesis), as opposed to the doctorateness within it or that gave rise to it. The QAA's current (2008) doctoral descriptor shown above is an attempt to address this criticism, focusing on individual outcomes, rather than outputs. The focus of this work is on the impact of a doctorate on the individual.

To understand the potential impact of the DBA on strategists it is important to place the qualification in context. Doctoral education has changed in the UK in the past thirty years. As well as training elites and producing knowledge, when considering the doctorate award, universities through the doctorate also train researchers. Doctoral study also allows what Green and Powell (2005) describe as "... curiosity-driven work in its own right and for its own sake ..." (p.49). They also recognised that doctorates can provide high level training within a professional context. The 2008 QAA doctoral descriptor explicitly recognises this aspect of doctoral study.

Lyotard (1984) proposes that universities in the modern era have changed their focus from training the elite to producing the human capital required by institutions. Increasingly research in the UK has moved from universities to the workplace (Jarvis 2000). This could be a function of a number of factors, including, the failure of universities to produce quality and vocationally applicable research, the increasingly economic influence of large corporations, the impact of new technologies or issues over intellectual property rights. In the (USA), there has been a much closer association between the vocations and universities that has conflicted with the UK university cultural paradigm which has been traditionally far less vocationally focused (Jarvis 2000).

### 3.3 Professional Doctorates & Nomenclature

The first professional doctorate, the Doctor in Education (EdD), was established in the USA in 1921 in Harvard University (Green and Powell 2005). The EdD appeared in the UK in 1984 at about the same time as Australia. In Australia the first professional doctorate was awarded in 1984 in Creative Arts, from the University of Wollongong. A professional in-service doctorate has been offered in the USA for many years, whereas, the professional post-service doctorate is a relatively new development. The first professional doctorate in clinical psychology in the UK was awarded in 1989. A professional doctorate in clinical psychology is an example of a pre-service, 'licence to practice', vocational or initial training professional doctorate. These awards tend to be few in number and have been surpassed in volume and range of subject areas by in-service and practice-based doctorates such as the EdD. In-service professional doctorates were established in the 1990s in the areas of education, engineering and business administration (Scott et al. 2004). Scott et al. (2004) state,

*“The defining feature of the professional doctorate is a focus on professional work, reflecting a recognition that work-based learning should be extended to the highest level award, the doctorate.”* (p.22)

This statement reflects the commentary on professional doctorates by bodies such as the UK Council for Graduate Education (UKCGE). They define a professional doctorate as,

*“An award at a doctoral level where the field of study is a professional discipline and which is distinguished from the PhD by a title that refers to that profession.”* (2002, p.3)

They highlight that there is no definitive definition of a professional doctorate. The UKCGE (2002) found that the three main professional doctorates in the UK are in the areas of engineering, education and business. The focus of the professional doctorate is distinct from knowledge for knowledge sake, to knowledge to inform professional practice (Green and Powell 2005). Scott et al.

(2004) identify common features of professional doctorates: taught elements; specification of learning outcomes often in the form of employment related skills; cohort-based pedagogies; depending on other assessment, a reduced length of thesis; same requirements for originality as a PhD thesis. The UKCGE highlight the requirement for substantial taught components in a professional doctorate and they also identify the requirement for the qualification to be of equivalent standard to the PhD, but different in approach in achieving a doctoral level of study (UK Council for Graduate Education 1998).

Very rapidly, a wide range of professions have developed professional doctorates, such as education, psychology and engineering. The variety of nomenclature is highlighted by Powell and Long's 2005 UKCGE report on Professional Doctoral Awards in the UK (Powell and Long 2005). They classify professional doctoral titles into three categories: where the title has specific mention of a professional area, for example Doctor of Business Administration or Doctor of Education; where the title includes the word 'professional' in the descriptor and abbreviation, for example, a Professional Doctorate in Built Environment (Pr.DocBuiltEnvir); the generalist title DProf or ProfD. The most commonly used titles are shown in the table below.

Table 2: Professional Doctorate Nomenclature UK Higher Education Institutions in 2005

<b>Title</b>	<b>Number of Institutions</b>	<b>Number of Students</b>
EdD	34	1,864
DClinPsy	25	1,775
MD	23	1,395
DBA	21	434
EngD	16	301

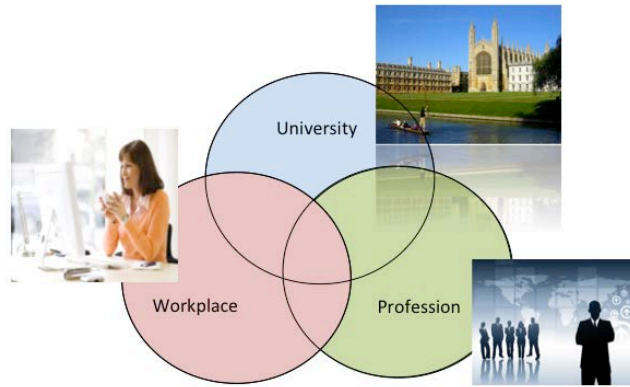
(Source: Powell and Long 2005, p. 20 & p.33)

(DClinPsy - Doctorate in Clinical Psychology; EngD - Doctorate in Engineering; MD – Doctorate in Medicine)

There are a variety of views on the status of Doctorate in Medicine (MD). Some believe it to be a professional doctorate, others take the view that it is equivalent to the lower award of a Masters in Philosophy (MPhil) (Becher and Trowler 2001; Neumann 2005). Interestingly, the General Medical Council do not have a definition of a MD (Powell and Long 2005). The use of nomenclature for doctoral awards Maxwell (2003) believes is one of choice for universities.

Professional doctorate programmes differ in terms of their target students, structure, approaches to curriculum, pedagogy, assessment and professional ethos (Scott et al. 2004). Maxwell (2003) identifies two forms of professional doctorate, first and second generation. The first generation is essentially coursework and thesis based and dominated by academic study. The second generation includes training in research and applied studies, portfolios of evidence, programmes that include seminars, meetings and conferences and assessment which requires reflection on the award. This classification is based more on delivery than on the outcomes of the doctorate. In the 1990s the professional doctorate became an established award in both the UK and Australia, and they have tended to more readily take what Maxwell (2003) calls the ‘second generation’ form. Maxwell’s further examination of second generation professional doctorates, based on three Australian case studies, presents Lee et al’s (2000) ‘hybrid curriculum’ (Figure 6: The Hybrid Curriculum of the Professional Doctorate) which shows the links between a triumvirate of the university, the profession and the workplace as the main three elements of knowledge production. Perhaps, at the centre of this Venn diagram lies the individual – the strategist.

Figure 6: The Hybrid Curriculum of the Professional Doctorate



The Hybrid Curriculum of the Professional Doctorate (after Lee et al, 2000, p.127)

Data on professional doctorates is problematic due to the fact that the Government's Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) does not collect data that differentiates between doctorates. The UKGCE 2005 (Powell and Long 2005) survey of its membership, and although not comprehensive, shows a major increase in the number of courses that can be classified as professional doctorate since 1998 in only seven years. In 2001 Bourner et al. (2001) estimate the growth in professional doctorates in the UK at around 20% per annum. Brown and Cooke (2010) analysis show a significant increase in the growth in the number of professional doctorates being offered in the UK (See Table 3 below).

Table 3: Professional Doctorate Programmes in UK Universities – 1998 to 2009

Year	Professional Doctorate Programmes
1998	109
1999	128
2000	153
2005	191
2009	308

(Source: Brown and Cooke 2010)

Not only has the number of professional doctorate courses increased, but the range of programmes that are offered has multiplied. In 2002 the UKCGE identified twelve types of professional doctorate awards in the UK. By 2005, they calculated that fifty-one were being offered with another nine planned (Powell and Long 2005). In the UK the UKCGE (Brown and Cooke 2010) reports that the majority of professional doctorate courses and those taking professional doctorates are drawn from the public sector, particularly healthcare and education. Since 2002 the main areas that have developed professional doctorates, engineering, education and clinical psychology have been joined by nursing and business. Interestingly, Allen et al. (2002) report that the number of professional doctorates has decreased in Canada as institutions have reconfigured their established PhD awards. It is not yet clear if the same trend is occurring in the UK. Brown and Cooke (2010) believe that there were in 2009 thirty-three institutions offering the DBA. In 2005 this figure was reported as twenty-one.

A small, but perhaps significant, section in Powell and Long's 2005 UKCGE report focuses on the professional doctorates, such as clinical psychology as a 'licence to practice'. Other ProfD awards, such as the EdD and DBA do not provide such authority. Powell and Long, however, suggest that these types of award do offer informal authority, or identity.

Scott et al. (2004) suggest that the evolution of the doctorate in the USA into a structured and what they describe as a "bureaucratic" (p.15) award is the forerunner of the professional doctorates that have been adopted in Australia and the UK. Australia appears to have been at the forefront on the adoption of innovative forms of HE qualification and delivery mechanisms, no more than in its early adoption of the professional doctorate. This is perhaps a function of a culture and economy that is new, growing in confidence and prepared to adopt new ideas.

According to Hoddell et al. (2002) the QAA effectively recognised a distinction between PhDs and all other doctorates in its 2001 National Framework. It states,

*“The titles PhD and DPhil are commonly used for doctorates awarded on the basis of original research. Doctoral programmes, that may include a research component, but which have a substantial taught element lead usually to awards that include the name of the discipline in their title (e.g. EdD for Doctor of Education). A doctorate normally requires the equivalent of three years' full-time study.” (p.17)*

This has been amended in the 2008 framework,

*“Doctoral programmes that may include a research component but which have a substantial taught element (for example, professional doctorates), lead usually to awards which include the name of the discipline in their title (for example, EdD for Doctor of Education or DCLinPsy for Doctor of Clinical Psychology). Professional doctorates aim to develop an individual's professional practice and to support them in producing a contribution to (professional) knowledge.” (Quality Assurance Agency 2008, p.25)*

These two statements base the distinction between doctorates in terms of title and form, rather than function or outcomes. The 2008 framework, however, goes further to state the impact of the individual and their profession. This is significant departure for the QAA. They do not associate professional doctorates with a particular organisational function, but the 2008 statement when considered with the generic doctoral descriptor clearly link the doctorate with high level professional knowledge creation. As will be discussed in the next chapter, this is fundamental in strategy development. The drivers for this change will now be discussed. An understanding of these drivers is important as it will illuminate many of the essential facets of the professional doctorate and the links between the DBA and strategists.

### **3.4 Drivers for Professional Doctorates**

A number of drivers of change have resulted in the emergence of professional doctorates. Some of the forces have affected society as a whole, for example: the development of knowledge-based economies; managerialism, marketisation and commercialisation; and internationalisation and globalisation. Other factors that have influenced the development of doctorates are quite specific to this form of

education, such as: the politicisation of doctorates; the professionalisation of the delivery of doctoral education; massification of higher education more generally; and, the diversification of programme portfolios in many higher education institutions. What is clear is that all these factors are inter-related and have not independently influenced the development of doctorates. Macro changes in society, the economy and education are co-dependent.

The increased interest of government and other key stakeholders in postgraduate and doctoral education in the UK is witnessed by a series of high profile reports, including the Robbins (1963), Harris (1996), Dearing (1997), the Quality Assurance Agency (1999), the Winfield Enquiry (Watson 2000) and the Roberts Report (2002). In 1964 there was a sea-change in the funding of HE in the UK when the Treasury ceded financing of HE to the newly formed Department of Education and Science. This Department took a far more proactive role in monitoring the expenditure on HE (Wagner 1995). The reforms in HE and changes in the economy and society have significantly impacted the form and function of the doctorate in the UK. In 1987 the Conservative Government produced a White Paper, 'Higher Education: Meeting the Challenge' which focused on the changing needs of HE in a knowledge-based economy and emphasised the need for more vocationally focused courses and awards. The Education Act of 1992 introduced a single system of universities in the UK. The 1996 Harris Report on postgraduate education is described by Green and Powell (2005) as a "landmark document" (p.52) that initiated a number of quality driven reforms in the delivery of research in HE which have informed the QAA and ESRC guidelines. Developments in the UK are mirrored to an extent in Europe. The Bologna declaration in 1999 has attempted to increase the transparency and perhaps even accountability of research across Europe.

### **3.4.1            *Development of the Knowledge Economy***

Gibbons et al. (1994) and Cowen (1997) draw our attention to the impact of the new knowledge based economies on HE institutions and businesses. In particular



Gibbons et al identify the displacement of knowledge production from universities to the workplace. Perhaps, the professional doctorate and DBA are products of this change or have even produced this transformation. Gibbons et al. (1994) differentiate two modes of knowledge production. Mode 1 is disciplinary knowledge that is culturally concentrated and institutionalised. Brennan (1999) sees the increased demands for specialisation and differentiation in society and the economy as key drivers for the break-down of the disciplinary barriers that Gibbons et al suggest are the defining feature of Mode 1 knowledge production. Neumann and Goldstein (2002) suggest that Mode 1 knowledge production is seen as a product of a closed system of academia. Mode 2 knowledge production is utilised by industry, governments and society. Mode 2 work-based knowledge has traditionally been communicated through non-academic sources, such as professional journals and professional networks. Mode 2 has traditionally been viewed as hierarchical and, most importantly, transient (Gibbons et al. 1994; Brennan 1999). Mode 2 research develops knowledge in the context of its application (MacLean and Macintosh 2002), where real organisational problems are addressed whilst contributing to the development of theory. Increasingly, Mode 2 knowledge is the focus of developments in HE as universities attempt to prove their worth and value to society, business and most importantly, their main funders, government. Gibbons et al. (1994) suggest that Mode 2 knowledge production has five main characteristics: knowledge is produced in the context of application; it is trans-disciplinary; it is characterised by heterogeneity and organisational diversity; it enhances social accountability and reflexivity; and it has a more broadly based system of quality control. In many ways the DBA, in its various forms, embodies this new mode of knowledge production. At the same time, the DBA pays homage to traditional Mode 1 norms of knowledge production. It could be argued that this is more to establish recognition and acceptance in a culture dominated by intransigence and inertia.

As business is increasingly seen as a source of additional revenues, and in some cases, replacing traditional governmental funding, engaging in and exhibiting Gibbons's (Gibbons et al. 1994) Mode 2 knowledge production is important for

universities. The DBA, it could be argued, is a vehicle for this. It might be the channel or conduit to allow academic disciplinary research and teaching boundaries to be breached. To an extent, Mode 2 knowledge production is already well-embedded in universities. A cursory glance at a faculty's research web site will reveal any number of research and consultancy units that often appear to engage with a number of disciplines within the faculty. This research might involve the introduction of different knowledge sets to augment the non-context or subject specialisms in a particular discipline. Gibbons (1999) believes that universities will have to significantly change to accommodate the new demands of knowledge production. Gibbons (1999) states, "At the very least they will have to become more open, porous institutions vis-à-vis the wider community, with 'fewer gates and more revolving doors'." (p.21)

Robertson (1999) refers to the rise of human capital theory with respect to HE, particularly in the USA. Robertson claims that the massive investment in HE in the USA was driven not from social conscience for social justice, but from the belief that HE improved labour stock that in-turn produced wealth. The emergence of our understanding of the importance of knowledge (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995) and the development of the concept of the knowledge-based society where competitive advantage is gained, at individual, organisational and national levels, based on the wealth of knowledge that is utilised, has emphasised the importance of the mechanisms for production, storage and transfer of this critical asset. Terms such as the 'entrepreneurial university' and the 'enterprise university' have been associated with the forces based on intellectual capacity reforming universities (Starkey and Tiratsoo 2007).

The main instrument for unlocking an economy's intellectual capital, critical in knowledge based economies, is seen as universities (Waldorf 2009; Zheng 2010). Robertson (1999) identifies two forms of exploitation of intellectual capital. Firstly, access to HE that results in improvement in labour stocks. Secondly, and most importantly for doctoral level education, an investment in academic capital that allows research and innovation. Symes and McIntyre (2000) refer to the

changes in the patterns of human capital in the 1980s and 1990s in developed economies. They suggest that new modes of production are more specialised and require a workforce that is far more focussed toward innovation and change as opposed to efficiency gains which was the agenda in the past decades. In the post-Fordist paradigm that is characterised by fragmentation of markets there has been a general recognition in the literature that knowledge is a key resource in organisational performance and development (Wernerfelt 1984). Kuhn (1970) argues that knowledge is "... intrinsically the common property of a group or else nothing at all." (p.201) Others (Botkin 2001; Okhuysen 2002) see knowledge management exclusively as a collective, organisational activity to leverage collective expertise. Barabas (1990) states, "... there is no universal foundation for knowledge, only the agreement and consensus of the community." (p.61) This social constructivist approach appreciates that individuals construct their own realities, but also recognises that groups or communities experience phenomenon, such as knowledge. Ambrosini and Bowman describe this as "something more than a human condition." (2001, p.816) From the perspective that knowledge cannot be objective, but it can be shared, to a degree, by communities. Perhaps, this is the reality of the situation, and it might offer some hope for management of organisations and knowledge. As will be discussed in the next chapter, knowledge and its creation underpins the concept of the strategist. It is an essential component of what a strategist is and does.

### **3.4.2 *Managerialism, Marketisation and Commercialisation***

The development of professional doctorates, including the DBA, has occurred during a period of increased interest in management and the processes that underpin management. In particular, the past thirty years has seen a growth in research into strategic management as organisations have grown in size and the environments in which they operate have increased in complexity (Mintzberg 1998; Mintzberg et al. 2003). Jongeling (1999) believes that key drivers in university education are market-led. Jongeling highlights factors for change such as: government requirements for universities to be more responsive to the

economy and society that supports them; increased requirement for accountability; demands to meet industry needs; reduced funding in HE; the requirement for HE institutions to source industry funding; and, most importantly, industry's dissatisfaction with the quality of PhD degrees.

Symes and McIntyre (2000) and Jarvis (2000) among others highlight the ascendancy of neo-liberalist policies, particularly in the economic sphere, as a key driver for change in HE. In particular, for right or wrong, neo-liberalisation reduces the direct delivery of services by the public sector and, in theory, allows individuals, through lower tax and resultant higher disposable and discretionary income, the choice of where to spend their money. Symes and McIntyre's (2000) rather jaundiced perspective of the neo-liberal influence on HE and society in general has some merit. They appear, however, to be stuck in a traditional and rather utopian academic paradigm where universities could afford to be places where idle curiosity might, or might not, bear fruit.

Dearing (1997) calculated that there had been a 45% increase in government expenditure on HE in the UK in the twenty years to 1996. Alongside increasing concerns about the quality of HE provision of research and teaching by the State (Becher and Trowler 2001), and the significant pro rata decrease in student funding, the increasing pressures on universities to become accountable has been unavoidable. Shattock (2003) argues that since the 1970s UK HE policy has been driven from the 'outside in', whereas prior to this time, policy has been the product of internal pressures. By this Shattock means that UK HE policy has moved from an academic locus to one driven by governmental and industrial forces. Skilbeck et al. (1994) thoughtfully observes on the university sector that vocationalism since the mid-1980s has been omnipresent.

As Becher and Trowler state (2001), "Academics no longer have a choice: whether they like it or not the market and the State intrude in a variety of ways into their lives and work." (p.160) Kirkman et al. (2006) in their review of doctoral developments in the nursing profession highlight the dangers of viewing

clinical or practice (professional) doctorates as potential revenue streams for universities. Despite Kirkman et al's (2006) concerns, the demands of the neo-liberals in relation to the contribution of HE and doctorates has increased the focus on the outputs and outcomes of doctoral programmes and their impact on individuals, organisations and the wider society. The development of strategy and therefore strategists has a strong market impetus, which it is argued here is a key driver for the development of doctoral programmes such as the DBA.

The marketisation of HE appears to be diametrically opposed to many of the incumbent traditions of universities, particularly well-established institutions. Many writers have lamented the progression of market forces into HE (Coffield and Williamson 1997; Jongbloed 2003; Lynch 2006). Wagner (1995) illuminates the problems that HE in the 1990s faced, Wagner states,

*“The problems faced by higher education in the mid-1990s arise from a system which has become mass in size but which remains elite in its values. ... The ambivalence is shared by most universities who understand the mass nature of the current experience they offer students (and staff) but who continues to affirm the romantic intimacy experienced by previous generations.” (p.21)*

### **3.4.3 Internationalisation and Globalisation**

The increasingly international and global nature of higher and particularly doctoral education has had a significant impact on how universities deliver doctoral programmes of study (Scott 1998; Barnett 1999). This mirrors the developments in global capital, economies, technologies, industries and organisations (Buckley 2000; Leknes and Carr 2004). Slaughter and Leslie (1997) suggest that globalisation has four main consequences for universities. Firstly, international competition will have a financial impact on universities that will limit the amount of discretionary activity that can be conducted. Secondly, technoscience will undergo an increasing centrality. Thirdly, there will be a closer relationship between multinational corporations and government in

research and development; Lastly, multinationals will globally increase their level of control over their intellectual property rights. The development of strategy is larger organisations, such as multinational companies is often explicit and resource intensive (Ferner and Quintanilla 1998; Kranias 2000). With the advent of global corporations (Gill and Booth 2003) their leaders may need common frames of reference or language. The DBA may provide these, particularly for the strategists that set the directions for multinationals.

#### **3.4.4 Politicisation of Doctorates – the End of the Donnish Domain**

Clark (1983) identifies three main stakeholders in the development of HE, namely, the State, the market and the academic oligarchy. Clark suggests that the balance of ‘power’ in terms of the provision by HE has moved away from academics towards the market, supporting Jongeling (1999), Symes and McIntyre (2000), Jarvis (2000) and Becher and Trowler’s (2001) views. Globally many governments have adopted neo-liberal policies that embrace market systems.

The universities have not been the sole driver in developments in doctoral education. External governmental, national organisations and interests have also been the influencers of change. This, Cowen (1997) laments resulted in increasing bureaucratisation of doctoral programmes. Cowen identifies the ‘politicisation’ of doctorates as governments and societies realise the necessity for high level research to maintain national economic competitive advantage. This factor is obviously linked to the increased commercial imperatives that universities face as a move to neo-liberalism has become an almost global phenomenon. Robertson (1999) highlights the desire of governments globally to ameliorate the links between HE and wealth creation. This has increased the necessity for more structured learning with tangible outputs and outcomes. This was particularly seen in the USA in the 1970s and is now being observed in the social sciences in the UK (Cowen 1997). Cowen (1997) is unequivocal in his opinion that the key reason for the increased requirement for prescription in the

delivery in doctoral education is national economic interest. This, it could be argued, is a driver for the structured approach to doctoral education that many DBA programmes offer. This is particularly pertinent as the data suggests that completion rates for PhD, particularly in business, are low and often take far longer than expected (Higher Education Funding Council for England 2007; Brown and Cooke 2010).

Scott et al. (2004) note a “...reallocation of power bases...” (p.10) from intellectual elites such as university academics to corporations. The decentralisation of control over HE institutions in the UK, the expansion of access to HE and the establishment of the new universities have all again changed the power dynamic in higher degree education. They see this as the distancing of control by the ‘governing elites’. This argument could be extended to suggest that the ‘ruling elite’ of the established ‘red brick’, ‘Russell Group’, universities has been eroded, particularly since the Education Act of 1992 and the establishment of a single system of universities in the UK to a more pragmatically focused, decentralised and diverse power base. The Education Act gave polytechnics, which emerged in the 1960s, whose original locus was HE in vocational areas, university status. Thirty-four ‘new’ universities were created in 1992 from polytechnics and colleges (Brennan 1999). Since that date there has been a growth in UK HE institutions and there are now over one hundred and sixty five HE institutions in the UK (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010). Much of the rationale for this conversion was around the centralisation of funding and control (Wagner 1995). Barnett (1999) suggests that the Robbins Report in 1963 highlighted the dislocation of the UK HE system from the society and economy it served. Barnett described it as, “...Robbins conveys a sense of HE somewhat external to the wider society.” (p.296) This theme recurred in the Dearing Report (1997). Robertson (1999) is critical of the Dearing Report, the outcomes of which the Report portrays as “muted” (p.20). Barnett believes that the Report did not address the restructuring in the UK’s economy and society that were witnessed in the 1980s and 1990s that requires a sea-change in UK HE to meet the demands of the new millennium. Increasing calls by Government for HE to take a more

vocational approach to research and teaching has resulted in a number of initiatives. One of these initiatives, either by design or not, is the DBA. Again, Government has not explicitly linked professional doctorates such as the DBA to the development of strategists or even leaders. It will, however, be shown either through design or chance, the DBA is positioned to attract strategists.

Although universities in the UK are largely autonomous bodies (from the State), the main way that government can exert any authority over the institutions is through funding (Evans 1999). Evans states (1999),

*“A modern university has two kinds of duty which may be at odds with one another in a similar way in the late twentieth century. The first is to think in a large way, to be idealistic about the pursuit of truth. But beside any claim to be needed in the public interest on intellectual and spiritual or cultural grounds, there has now to be set an increasingly hard and solid claim to be cost-effective.” (p.49)*

Evans goes on to discuss the requirement for society to be able to trust universities and academics to work in the public good. This may require periods of reflection and uncertainty and perhaps fruitless paths of research. In an age of increasing transparency and accountability in public life, even reflection and failure will have to be accounted for and justified. This, perhaps, harks back to the origins of doctorates in the professions of law, medicine and theology, where the qualification was seen as an entry point into a professional practice. In fact, in the context of Swedish HE, Appleqvist (2004) identifies medicine, law, engineering and theology as “traditional professional doctorates” (p.1). The increased politicisation of HE and the requirement for academia to add economic, as well as intellectual, value has increased the pressure for institutions to develop awards such as the DBA that are designed explicitly to engage with organisations directly. The DBA offers business people a professional qualification and, as was discussed earlier, perhaps a ‘licence to practice’.



### 3.4.5 *'Professionalisation' of Doctorates*

The growth of alternatives to the PhD, particularly, practitioner-based, have been the result of doubts about the 'traditional' PhD, particularly with respect to the time it takes to complete and their lack of significance to practice (Scott et al. 2004). In addition to government, industry is demanding increased efficiency and effectiveness in terms of doctoral study. Becher and Trowler (2001) highlight the increased commercial reality in the HE sector combined with forces, such as globalisation and consumer awareness, that have forced universities to re-evaluate their offering to the market, even at the highest level, a doctorate. Another fundamental driver behind the development of professional doctorates has been the perceived need for professionals to engage in higher professional development (Scott et al. 2004). Scott et al do not elaborate on what they mean by professionals, but clearly they are describing significant individuals in organisations, perhaps, strategists.

Scott et al. (2004) refer to a range of authors who suggest that the growth in professional doctorates has been driven by factors such as increasing demand for accountability of professions and the need for 'reflexive practice' (considers a person's impact on a situation – cause and effect) and 'critical reflection' (considers what has occurred) to meet the demands of rapidly changing environments. Green and Powell (2005) point to the requirement of professions today to be increasingly research-based and to have an analytical approach to problem solving. These they suggest are "... hallmarks of doctoral level study." (p.87)

### 3.4.6 *Massification*

Increasingly HE is regarded as a global commodity (Knight and De Wit 1997) that has undergone massification in almost every developed country (Scott 1998). Mass HE was defined by Martin Trow (1970; 1973) when its age participation index surpassed 15%. This occurred in the UK in 1986 (Dearing 1997). In 1961/62 there were 19,400 full-time students and 6,300 part-time. In 1994/95

there were 128,300 and 187,000 full and part-time students respectively (Green and Powell 2005). Since 1996 there has been a significant growth in doctoral awards. In 1996 the figure stood at 10,800, which increased to 14,875 by 2003. Interestingly, since 2002 the annual growth in the number of doctorates has fallen to below a single percentage point (2003 – 0.95%) (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010).

Massification has precipitated a change in the perceived purposes of HE (Becher and Trowler 2001). Mass systems of HE have increased financial dependence on the State, which, in turn, has increased demands for greater accountability. The massification of HE has also diluted the prestige and value of HE qualifications. This has resulted in a perception and probably a reality of ‘degree inflation’ (Coughlan 2008) and a desire by individuals to differentiate themselves from their peers by gaining higher awards. The massification in HE has resulted in credentialism and an increased level of diversity in both the students taking qualifications and the methods of qualification (Henkel and Little 1999).

Massification of HE has contributed to ‘credentialism’ (Maxwell and Shanahan 2001) as individuals seek to differentiate themselves. The doctorate as the ‘gold standard’ in HE (Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001) is a sought after qualification that could allow access to an untapped market who might be willing to pay a premium for the product.

Scott et al. (2004) make the point that the expansion in the provision of HE outstripped the supply of lecturers qualified with PhDs. Thus, the original rationale for the qualification, the preparation of teachers in HE, was negated. This has allowed alternative programmes to develop for the teaching profession, including the EdD and the DBA. Although, with the expansion of doctoral programmes and students there is a shortage of appropriately qualified supervisors.

The period of massification of HE in the UK where a HE system for the elite has been replaced with a structure to provide HE for the masses has also seen the emergence of professional doctorates. Alongside massification has been an increased level of diversity (Scott et al. 2004) in terms of the student body, higher educational institutions and staff and the programmes offered at all levels of HE. Diversity has also been a driver for professional doctorates, as professions have required more tailored programmes of HE research and training to meet their requirements. Jarvis (2000) sees the growth in the UK of the number of professional doctorates across a range of disciplines as part of the general expansion in higher degrees. This follows the trend in the USA (Noble 1994) and Australia (Maxwell and Shanahan 2000). The increase in postgraduate and particularly doctoral education has increased the focus on the relationship between qualifications and employment (Scott et al. 2004) and the nature and structure of doctoral education per se (Delamont et al. 2000). The DBA allows a 'new class' of doctoral student, the strategist, to conduct research at the highest level whilst in the workplace.

### ***3.4.7 Diversification***

As well as the professional drivers for the development of professional doctorates, universities have also been drawn towards this type of qualification as they attempt to diversify their portfolios and address criticisms that higher level courses are not professionally relevant (Scott et al. 2004). The diversification in the kinds of professional doctorate has been highlighted by Powell and Long for the UKCGE (2005). The Council represents 129 of the 169 (Higher Education Funding Council for England 2005a) HE institutions in the UK. In their survey focussing on professional doctorate provision in the UK they found that the most typical characteristics of professional doctorates are significant taught elements and delivery to cohorts rather than individuals. Cohorts allow students the ability to network (Sarros et al. 2005), an essential element in business education and practice. This distinction between a professional doctorate and a PhD is now far less apparent as more PhDs have assumed taught elements (Green and Powell

2005). Sarros et al. (2005) in their study of Australian DBAs suggest that some business schools have adopted the DBA award to differentiate themselves and to offer an alternative to the PhD.

Clark (1996) posits that the fragmentation in disciplines in academia as a result in the growth in knowledge is probably the most influential development in HE. This is evidenced by the proliferation of the number of departments, research groupings, journals and papers. Clarke contends that the fragmentation is a product of the academic community. Becher and Trowler (2001), however, suggest that this analysis ignores wider social changes such as the advent of post-structuralism and postmodernism on the wider society that is out of academic control.

#### ***3.4.8 Dissatisfaction with the PhD***

In the past thirty years there is evidence of a growing dissatisfaction with the PhD. Noble (1994) and Usher (2002) highlight several problems with doctoral (PhDs) education identified in English speaking countries such as the UK, USA, Australia and Canada, namely: appropriateness; attrition; discrimination; employment; entrepreneurship; programme emphasis; research competency evaluation; time to complete; unconventional programmes; and, writing for publication. In the UK doctoral completion rates of less than a third are reported (Green and Powell 2005). The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) found that by 2007, after seven years of study, the completion rates were 75% and 35% for full-time and part-time PhD starters respectively (Higher Education Funding Council for England 2007). These percentages have changed little since the last report by HEFCE two years earlier (Higher Education Funding Council for England 2005).

This statement by Cowen, perhaps, sums up what is wrong with the ‘traditional’ PhD, “The PhD is written by the research candidate in a social vacuum and is mainly of interest to proud parents. The PhD leads nowhere, occupationally ...”

(Cowen 1997, p.184). Cowen goes on to state, "... gaining a [modern] PhD is more and more a test of self organization, of institutional organization, and less and less a test of original critical intellectual power." (p.184) Cowen describes the PhD as the "... bureaucratization of originality." The tension between the PhD and professional doctorates such as the DBA is inescapable (Scott et al. 2004).

### **3.4.9 Concluding Thoughts on the Drivers for Professional Doctorates**

Key changes that precipitated the growth in HE and doctoral awards include: the end of the binary divide between universities and polytechnics; a proliferation of postgraduate courses; an unprecedented increase in student numbers; the move to life-long learning (Watson 2000); and the 'professionalisation' of professions through often compulsory continuing professional development (Becher 1999). In the past decade there has been a fundamental shift in HE in the UK in respect of the numbers of participants and the role of universities in the provision of higher professional development (Scott et al. 2004). The importance of professional doctorate programmes, such as the DBA, as a vehicle to improve the tangible outputs and outcomes of HE has increasingly been recognised by academics, practitioners and governments. Maxwell (2003) and others (Green and Powell 2005) clearly see the development of professional doctorates resulting from specific sectors of practice rejecting the focus, form and 'performance' of the traditional PhD. What is clear from commentators from the government, industry and academia is that there is an appetite for a high level qualification that focuses on practice rather than academic knowledge.

Becher and Trowler (2001) believe that the changes in the environment in which universities operate were "... geomorphic ..." (p.xiii) in the 1980s and 1990s. They state,

*“The changes in the Higher Education system worldwide have meant a growth in the strength and number of forces acting on academic cultures, enhancing the externalist rather than internalist character of the influences on them. The decline of the donnish domain (Halsey 1992) has meant a parallel decline in the significance of disciplinary knowledge as a force.”*  
(p.xiii)

By geomorphic, Becher and Trowler (2001) are referring to the scale of change that has impacted higher education globally.

Becher and Trowler (2001) describe academics as ‘tribes’ and the disciplinary knowledge as their ‘territories’ (p.xiv). They discuss the impact of the market-place and other influences on HE that have forced universities to consider and adopt what Gibbons et al described as Mode 2 (Gibbons et al. 1994) knowledge production structures.

What is clear from both academic and public literature is that the PhD award’s reputation and credibility is tarnished in the eyes of the general public, public and private sector organisations and most importantly, the funding bodies and the government (Noble 1994; Cowen 1997; Roberts 2002; Jump 2010). The increasing commercialisation of HE (Gibbons et al. 1994), with the introduction of market principles (For the UK see: the Nolan Committee: The Committee on Standards in Public Life, Second Report, 1995; The Dearing Committee Report (1997) have increased the necessity for doctoral education and HE more generally to prove that its outputs and outcomes offer value for money and relevance. None of the published literature on developments in doctorates, professional doctorates or DBAs explicitly mentions strategists per se. It is argued here that there is enough circumstantial evidence to suggest that one of the drivers for the DBA has been need to develop qualification and training for strategists. This is discussed at length in the Findings and Discussion chapter of this work.

### 3.5 General Characteristics Required of the ‘New’ Doctorate (in whatever form)

Informed by reports such as Harris, Dearing and Roberts and wider criticisms of the state of doctoral education in the UK key guidance bodies such as the QAA, ABS, HEFCE and the Higher Education Funding Council for Wales (HEFCW) and ESRC, have made statements as to what they require from doctoral education. The ESRC’s 2005 Postgraduate Training Guidelines state,

*“... whatever career paths PhD graduates may follow, there are clear advantages to students if they have acquired general research skills and transferable employment-related skills.”*

In the UK standards of doctoral education are set in sets of formal procedures and measures, for example by the QAA in its Code of Practice for the Assurance of Academic Quality and Standards for Post Graduate Research Programmes (Quality Assurance Agency 2004), the Framework for Higher Education Qualifications in England, Wales and Northern Ireland (Quality Assurance Agency 2008), its subject benchmarks, Programme specifications (Quality Assurance Agency 2006) and the UK Council for Graduate Education’s Quality and Standards of Postgraduate Research Degrees (UK Council for Graduate Education 2009).

Importantly the phrase, ‘different from but equivalent to’ or, as Jongeling (1999) writes, “... different from but equivalent in standing to ...” (p.71) is one that is applied to DBAs and other new non traditional PhD routes to a doctoral qualification. The QAA recognises the ‘new diversity’ of doctoral qualification in its 2004 Code of Practice for the Assurance of Academic Quality and Standards in Higher Education, which states,

*“This document is intended to apply to a wide range of research qualifications. Specifically, it covers the PhD (including the New Route PhD and PhDs awarded on the basis of published work), all forms of taught or professional Doctorate, and research master’s degrees that include a requirement for the student to produce original work.”* (p.4)

The message appears to be clear. Whatever forms a doctorate takes, it must be original work to have equal standing. Research in Australia into PhDs (Sekhon 1989) highlights key areas that employers expect PhD graduates to have competence in: issue identification and modelling; problem solving; adaptability; comprehension of the business environment; verbal and written communication skills; and motivation to solving organisational issues. Jongeling (1999) found that,

*“... the professional doctorate allows for real, value-added outcomes often not apparent in the traditional PhD programmes, and that the PhD itself is a professional doctorate aimed mainly at those who seek university teaching positions or those who wish to concentrate on pure basic research.” (p.71)*

Research by Jongeling (1999) into what employers and academics require of professional doctorates is summarised in their work and identifies key requirements to include: training of senior managers and leaders; improving professional practice and teaching advanced skills, the need for linking theory and practice; research directly related to the needs of professional practice; a number of minor papers instead of one lengthy thesis. Several of these requirements are closely associated with the characteristics of a strategist that this study has identified and will be examined in more depth in the Discussion chapter.

Jongeling (1999) defines equivalence of the professional doctorate and the PhD as,

*“It [a Professional Doctorate] must show that the student is capable of working at the pinnacle of his/ her profession and that the student will make a ‘significant contribution’ to both knowledge and practice in regard to the professional context in which the student works.” (p.79)*

The ESRC appears to be committed to employment related transferable skills (Scott et al. 2004). This has led to a requirement for universities to provided



extensive and comprehensive training throughout the period of the doctorate for all research students. To an extent Scott et al. (2004) see these changes as professionalising the PhD, as the qualification takes on many of the characteristics of professional doctorates. It can be seen that as well as originality, there is a growing acknowledgement that a doctorate and the training for the qualification must add value to the wider community by providing the students with the requisite skills to take into the workplace, be that academia, public service or the private sector. Organisations like the QAA are not specific about those that require training or actually how they can engage with business. Jongeling (1999) believes that the individual should be capable of working at the pinnacle of their profession. A strategist might be considered to be in that position. To Jongeling 'significant contribution' implies that the individual is either contributing or making key decisions in an organisation. Again, this has resonance with what is recognised in this work as a strategist. The 'position' of a strategist will be explored in the next chapter.

Separating a PhD from a professional doctorate is problematic. The QAA framework (Quality Assurance Agency 2008) and other guides and frameworks (for example ABS, ESRC and the UKCGE) that use the QAA guideline as their basis do not unequivocally separate practice and knowledge. Powell and Long (2005) argue that the distinction between practice and academic research is increasingly difficult in increasingly complex professional environments. They question why there should be a distinction at all and suggest that there is a very real danger of a proliferation of ill-thought through nomenclature. This will not only confuse academia, but might also increase the unease in society about the worth of doctoral study. This might be off-putting for practitioners, strategists, who are considering taking a DBA. Clearly, in particular areas of practice there is a good argument for some recognition of the professional area of expertise, for example engineering. Where the award is licence to practice, for example, in clinical psychology, the rationale for a doctorate is clearer (Powell and Long 2005). The argument for a DBA being a licence to practice for anyone, let alone a

strategist, as will be discussed later in this work is not even close to the psyche of academics or business.

### 3.6 The DBA

The DBA was first offered by USA business schools in the mid 1980s. The emergence of the award in the 1990s in the UK has been clearly linked with the MBA (Bourner et al. 2000; Scott et al. 2004). It could be argued that the MBA has, to date, been the most successful vehicle, in terms of recognition, value and numbers, in the attempt by management to professionalise itself (Bernard 1987; Feldman 2005; Kleiman and Kass 2007). As, however, Scott et al. (2004) state, “Whilst an MBA reproduces management knowledge, which is acquired by course participants, the DBA produces management knowledge.” (p.78). Sarros et al. (2005) refer to the 1997 Association of Business Schools definition of the remit of DBAs as, “... concerned with researching the real business and managerial issues via the critical review and systematic application of appropriate theories and research to professional practice.” (pp.40-41)

In all DBA programmes studied by Scott et al. (2004) and Bourner et al. (2000) participants were expected to be senior practitioners. Bareham et al. (2000) analysed the rationale and intended learning outcomes of UK DBAs and identified that the target participants of DBAs are senior managers, that is, those normally identified in organisations as its strategists. Like Bareham et al, Bourner et al. (2001) and Scott et al’s. (2004) research into DBAs found that all the participants were seen as being senior practitioners. The motivations for senior managers undertaking a DBA are varied. Scott et al. (2004) provide a useful and coherent summary of the complex literature in the area of learner motivation. There exist extrinsic and intrinsic motivations for an individual taking a professional doctorate. They identify three distinct types of motivations that could be loosely applied to participants, namely: Type 1, extrinsic-professional initiation; Type 2, extrinsic-professional continuation; Type 3, intrinsic-personal/ professional affirmation. Type 1 motivations are based on the rewards that an individual

believes they can achieve at an early stage in their professional development through the qualification. These include, accelerated promotion, management training, acquisition of experience, and financial support. Type 2, extrinsic-professional continuation motivations are gained by those who are reasonably established in their professional field. They will be motivated by factors such as, career development and contribution to practice. The final motivational category, Type 3, intrinsic-personal/ professional affirmation, are motivations for those who have their own goals and values that are not necessarily linked to external rewards. These might include personal fulfilment and professional credibility. Linked to the motivations for individuals taking a DBA is the important concept of identity (Scott et al. 2004). Scott et al. (2004) view the DBA as a means for an individual to construct their personal identity. This is particularly important for those who are at an early stage in their career. By exposure to aspects of their workplace through the programme of study, they can develop a better understanding of their identity in their organisation, profession and perhaps society as a whole.

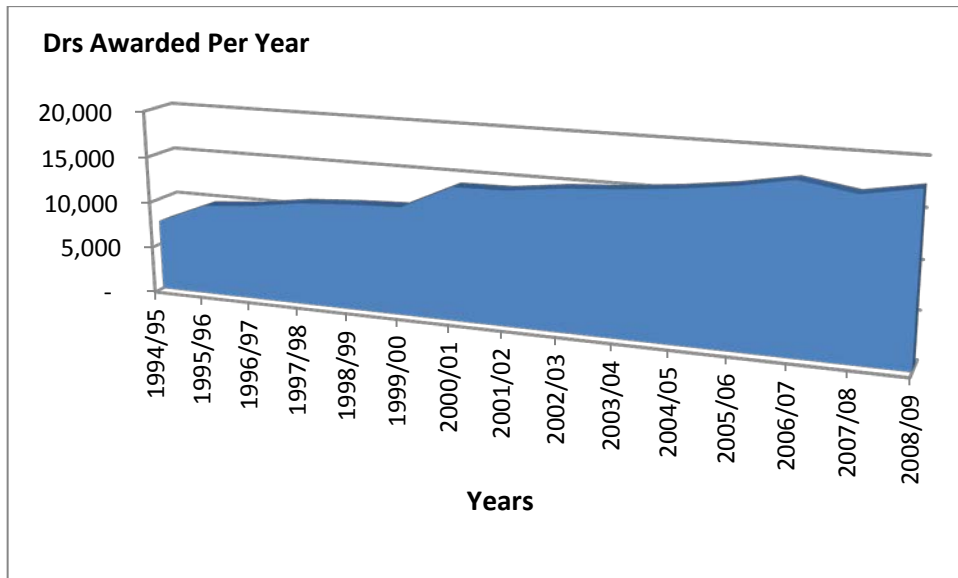
### *3.6.1 Mapping the Landscape*

Mapping the landscape in terms of DBAs is difficult. Because the DBA is a relatively recent development in UK doctoral education there is minimal data on DBAs. This may also be a product of a lack of awareness, understanding or desire to embrace the qualification by the established UK HE hierarchy. At this time the HEFCE's data (2007) and other available records on doctorates (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010) does not distinguish between PhDs and other forms of doctorate and aggregates all forms of doctorates together under the terms PhD, or doctorates. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the available aggregated (all doctorates) data had to be applied.

In 1961/62 the total student population in UK HE was around 200,000. By 1995/96 this had risen to 1,600,000 and in 2008/09 the figure stood at 2,396,055 students in 169 HE institutions (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010). In

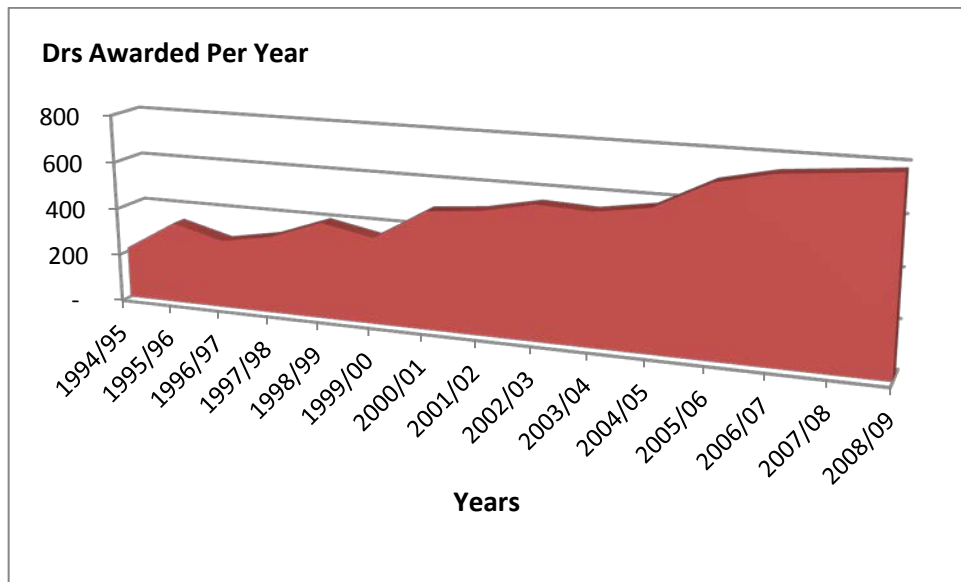
terms of doctorates, the chart below shows the increase in numbers of doctorates awarded in all subject areas from 7,559 in 1995/96 to 17,650 in 2008/09 (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010).

Figure 7: Doctorates Awarded



(Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010)

Figure 8: Doctorates Awarded in Business & Management



(Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010)

The percentage increase in all doctorates awarded has steadied in recent years to around 3% per annum (See Figure 7: Doctorates Awarded). The number of part-time doctorates has decreased in percentage terms from 28% in 2005/06 to 25% in 2008/09, with a slight decrease in absolute numbers 2005/06 – 3,565; 2008/09 – 3,485. This percentage decrease appears to be mainly the product of the numbers of international (mainly non EU) students coming to the UK to undertake full time doctoral studies. The number of international doctoral students in 2000/01 was 35% of the total number of doctoral students in the UK. This increased to 44% in 2008/09.

The number of business related doctorates as a percentage of the total number of doctorates has increased from 2.8% in 1995/96 to 4.5% in 2008/09. Interestingly, the percentage increase in business and management doctorates (completed) has reached a plateau of around 3% per annum, slightly lower than the overall percentage increase in all doctorates per annum (See Figure 8: Doctorates Awarded in Business & Management). Unfortunately, the source data (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010) in recent years does not separate part-time and full-time doctoral completions by subject area so it is not possible to identify any clear trends in the population. Assuming that virtually all DBAs are part-time this data would have been useful. What we can say is that the numbers of doctoral students, in absolute and percentage terms, undertaking business related doctorates has increased significantly. Whether this is the impact of vocationally focussed doctoral programmes such as the DBA or an increase in full time ‘traditional’ PhD students is not known and is certainly an area that requires further research.

Data, that is again aggregated for all doctorates, but is highly significant in the development of all doctoral programmes, is HEFCE’s 2007 report on PhD Research Degrees: Entry and Completion Update (2007) which shows a 72% completion rate for all doctorates within seven years. For part-time students only 35% completed after seven years and 48% within 10 years. This data is for all subject areas. For business completion rates for 1999/2000 entry students is

actually 59% for full time students and 26% for part-time students, although another 34% of this grouping are classified as still ‘active’. These figures are some of the worst for all doctorates in any subject area.

These two sets of data suggest a number of issues. Firstly, there has been an exponential growth in total student numbers in the UK, who require, even with increase staff-student ratios (or, efficiencies in some people’s eyes), more academic staff. Secondly, there has been an even greater increase in doctoral student numbers in the UK. The majority of this growth is from international students. Thirdly, doctoral completion rates, particularly for part-time students in business related areas, are seemingly low.

Much of the growth in total student numbers has been a deliberate strategy employed by government and HE to address the requirements of a knowledge-based society and economy (Gibbons et al. 1994; Cowen 1997). It has been recognised that the UK requires research and researchers to produce work at the highest level. As Robertson states (1999),

*“In this enduring legacy of interest in the importance of knowledge to economic activity, the role of the university, knowledge production and intellectual capital remains central to the narrative.” (p.28)*

Powell and Long’s (2005) analysis for UKCGE of professional doctorates demonstrates the importance of professional doctorates such as the EdD and DCLinPsy. Brown and Cooke’s more recent survey for the UKCGE (2010) shows the increasing relevance of professional doctorates. Despite the difficulties in nomenclature, it can be presumed that most of the growth in professional doctorates in business has been because of the increase in the number of DBA programmes.

It is arguable when the first UK DBA was established. Ruggeri-Stevens et al. (2001) believe that the first DBA was launched in the UK around 1991. Brown and Cooke (2010) identify thirty-three institutions offering the DBA to nine

hundred and ninety-six students (in 2005 this figure was twenty-one institutions to seven hundred and eighty-nine students). Although a web-based search of UK HE courses indicates that there are in excess of forty-five DBA programmes potentially being offered. On investigation some courses are still to be fully developed, while others are dormant.

### **3.6.2 DBA Guidelines**

A number of organisations have accessible DBA guidelines or descriptors. All either followed or are closely informed by the QAA. At the same time the QAA itself is both informed and guided by stakeholder organisations such as ESRC, ABS, UKCGE and the Association of MBAs (AMBA). The QAA does not actually define a DBA, but recognises professional doctorates as a doctorate of equivalence with other doctorates. The QAA states, “Professional doctorates aim to develop an individual’s professional practice and to support them in producing a contribution to (professional) knowledge.” (2008, p.25).

In 1997 the ABS first developed specific guidelines for the DBA, which was a response to the growth in number of awards being offered across the UK and the variety of delivery emerging from institutions (Association of Business Schools 1997). In terms of defining a DBA and setting-out most clearly what might be expected the ABS has tended to lead the way, although more latterly AMBA has also set out guidelines as it has now begun accrediting DBAs. The ABS reviewed and updated its DBA Guidelines in 2005. These guidelines define the DBA as,

*“... a professional practice doctorate and is concerned with researching real business and managerial issues via the critical review and systematic application of appropriate theories and research to professional practice.”*  
(2005, p.2)

At the outset of the guide the ABS ensure that parity with traditional doctorates (PhD) is established by referring to the QAA Frameworks (Quality Assurance Agency 2008),

*“To be awarded a doctorate all students will need to demonstrate ‘the creation and interpretation of new knowledge through original research or other advanced scholarship, of a quality to satisfy peer review, extend the forefront of the discipline, and merit publication’.” (2005, point 2.1, p.2)*

The ABS then puts the DBA in context,

*“The DBA has a dual purpose – to make a contribution to both theory and practice in relation to business and management, and to develop professional practice through making a contribution to professional knowledge (reference to the ESRC Guidelines Section 3). The DBA therefore not only seeks to make a contribution to knowledge it also inform and impact on practice. ... The DBA is therefore a professional practice doctorate and is concerned with researching real business and managerial issues via the critical review and systematic application of appropriate theories and research to professional practice.” (2005, point 2.2/ 2.3, p.2)*

This clearly differentiates the DBA from other doctorates such as the PhD and other professional doctorates. It firmly establishes the qualification within a ‘professional sphere’. Specifically, in the ABS Guidelines, they make reference to the link between those who have taken the MBA as potential candidates to attempt the DBA. It states,

*“The DBA is designed for those with significant business experience. ... Candidates will be well qualified in their chosen field and will normally have gained an MBA or other business-related Masters Degree or equivalent qualification, together with a sufficient amount and level of business and management experience appropriate to the research being undertaken.” (Association of Business Schools 2005, point 3.1/ 3.2, p.2)*

Bourner et al. (2000) empirical research into the learning outcomes of DBAs in comparison with PhD is a useful guide into the focus of DBAs at that time in the UK. The table below illustrates their findings:



Table 4: Career Focus and Intended Learning Outcomes of DBA and PhD

<b>Principal Career Focus</b>	<b>DBA:</b> Senior Managers	<b>PhD:</b> Lecturers (especially HE) and career researchers
<b>Intended Learning Outcome</b>	<b>Research</b>	
	An appreciation of the potential contribution of research to the work of senior managers	Knowledge and skills required to design and carry out a research project with a particular field of study.
	The capacity to plan and carry out a research project in the field of business administration	Ability to make an original contribution to knowledge in the chosen field of study.
	The capacity to make an original contribution to knowledge of practice in the field of business management	
	The capacity to implement research findings in terms of management practice within an organisation	
<b>Intended Learning</b>	<b>Personal Development</b>	

<b>Outcome</b>		
	The capacity to plan and manage own learning and continuing professional development	
	The skill of improving own performance through reflection on past practice	
<b>Intended Learning Outcome</b>	<b>Knowledge of Business and Management</b>	
	Knowledge and understanding of theories and practices in business and management to at least the level of a Master's degree in the field of study.	

(Source: Bourner et al. 2000, p.482)

### ***3.6.3 The DBA and Learning***

Bourner et al. (2000) focused on the learning outcomes of the DBAs they studied. An important aspect of the ABS's guidelines is the requirement for assessment to include elements that would assist in developing a reflexive practitioner – this is essential for strategists. This links professional practice to the individual's doctoral studies. Vehicles for reflection and reflexive thought include: supervision; presentations; independent study; lectures; residential; action learning; visiting speakers.

The DBA through its many manifestations allows a variety of forms of learning styles. Action learning is a feature of many DBA programmes as many of the students are researching situations that they are actively involved in (Turnbull-James and Collins 2006). Schön (1983), Daley (1999), Greiner, Bhambri and Cummings (2003) make the important point that professionals (strategists) make sense and learn from messy organisational situations through reflection and reflexive thought. As Mintzberg (2004) observes, managers (strategists) need to construct, deconstruct and reconstruct theory in order to attempt to make sense of the complexities of the environments in which they operate. Mintzberg's notion of theory and concepts is rather vague (Kleinrichert 2005), however, what is clear is that Mintzberg does not reject the significance of meta-narratives, so disliked by many that follow a practice perspective on strategy. Interesting research shows that management learning does not appear to result from courses, but from workplace experience (Burgoyne and Hodgson 1983; Davies and Easterby-Smith 1984), although not all managers learn in the workplace (Davies and Easterby-Smith 1984). Experiential learning, manifest in the case study method, has been applied by business schools since the MBA in Dartmouth College's Tuck School of Business in 1900 (Friga et al. 2003) and first business policy courses in Harvard in 1912 (Greiner et al. 2003).

The DBA should question the 'dominant logic' through reflection on practice. The practice does not have to be first hand. But the involvement of the researcher with the agents of the practice should be empirical. It is argued in this work that the DBA is potentially a mechanism to address some of the criticisms of executive management courses such as the MBA (Grey 2004; Mintzberg 2004; Grey 2005; Schwandt 2005). Traditional programmes such as the MBA have a reputation for the theory driven, case study, problem-solving delivery, producing what Ghoshal describes as, "...the pretence of knowledge." (2005, p.77) Kolb's well known iterative experiential learning cycle (Kolb 1984) consisting of action, experience, reflection and conceptualisation is a well established framework in management education. It is argued here that the DBA is an ideal mechanism for strategists to acquire or hone required skills, expertise and knowledge that equate to Gibbons et

al's. (1994) Mode 2 of production of knowledge. Reflection is an essential element in this process.

The DBA might represent a move away from the solitary method of study of the traditional PhD with the production of a potentially meaningless magnum opus. This was a finding of Jongeling's (1999) studies. In fact, Jongeling (1999) believes that the link between coursework and the research thesis is critical in the development of professional doctorates. Many professional doctorates use a portfolio approach in the assessment. Ruggeri-Stevens et al. (2001) highlight some of the difficulties in assessment of the DBA. Jongeling's (1999) research has identified innovative assessment and delivery approaches leading to professional doctorates. These are moved beyond the advancement of knowledge through research and have incorporated elements such as research training, research writing, industry-related research skill development and workplace-relevant research projects. Jongeling's (1999) lists activities that might be found in a typical professional doctorate portfolio: research assignments; submissions; discussion papers; evaluation reports; major dissertation; published refereed papers; papers in professional journals; project papers and reports; conference papers; book reviews; and other media such as CD-ROM, video, photographic material, working models, designs and technical drawings.

Writers such as Bourner et al. (2000) et al and Bareham et al. (2000) have analysed structures, content and learning outcomes and support. Bareham et al. (2000) have found that DBAs mapped their learning outcomes to the QAA level descriptors and the statement of research and employment-related skills drawn up by the Research Councils and endorsed by the Funding Councils. This is not surprising as any validation event in a UK university would ensure that the structure of any programme meet recognised guidelines and frameworks. The HEFCE 2005 report on professional doctorates highlights differences across the UK in the provision of professional doctorates in course structures, learning methods, use of credit rating, ways of assessing, professional accreditation and use of titles.

Bourner et al. (2000) study found that most DBAs required a single research project, although a number required more than one, some clearly focused on different aspects in the practice of problem solving in business situations. Another area that their research identified as core content to many DBAs was the area of professional development. This ties into elements of the guidelines produced by bodies such as QAA, ABS and AMBA. The link between the professional world and academia provided by professional doctorates is highlighted by Green and Powell (2005),

*“The Professional Doctorate typically demands not only a profound understanding of professional issues and the current state of professional knowledge but also an understanding of how research methods impact on the professional world.” (p.93)*

They point out that the award itself is not sufficient to provide the candidate with the required professional knowledge and understanding and therefore candidates must have considerable professional experience before embarking on a course of study leading to a professional doctorate. Experience is a factor identified as a characteristic of a strategist in this work. Scott et al. (2004) state, “... one of the principal aims of professional doctorate courses is the development of the reflective practitioner.” (p.57) They identify a number of areas where, in the course of a professional doctorate students might and should be asked to reflect on their practice developing reflexive thought (Scott et al. 2004) or other people’s reflection on practice. These areas can include: the workplace; their identity; policy; the institution in which the student works; and innovation. As, however, research by Ruggeri-Stevens et al. (2001) found very few DBAs that actually assessed the reflective practitioner component. They also found that there is perhaps too much emphasis on the contribution to knowledge and too little emphasis on the ability to manage. Critical reflection is identified as an essential element of any doctorate (Green and Powell 2005). They, however, believe that critical reflection in a professional doctorate will be much more tightly defined

around practice than in a PhD, where a candidate's reflection will be expected to be based on their research approach.

From the literature and available programme information the following classification of the forms of DBA has been devised. Appendix A: *UK Universities Offering DBAs and Their Typology*, lists all recognised UK Universities offering DBAs. It also classifies them using the typology below. This list was developed by using the Universities and Colleges Admissions' Service (UCAS) institutional listing and examining the websites of each UK university.

Table 5: A Typology of DBAs

Title	Description	Examples
Academic DBA	<p>A qualification for those wishing to enter HE either as lecturers or researchers – but mainly as lecturers. Often for those with industrial experience.</p> <p>Rarely is the whole programme established for this purpose (Harvard). More usually members and potential members faculty are interspersed with other students</p>	All; Harvard
Thematic DBA	The DBA includes taught	Aberdeen Business

	elements around a particular theme, e.g. Information Technology. The thesis will be based on the theme.	School; Bath
Research DBAs	The only taught elements are research methods	Aston; Birmingham City
Research and Subject DBA	Taught elements include research and subjects, e.g. Leadership,; knowledge management	Bedfordshire Business School; Bolton

The above typology does not take into consideration methods of assessment.

These might include:

- Traditional thesis only
- Thesis and taught assessed research modules
- Thesis, taught research and subject modules
- Taught research and subject modules forming a portfolio
- Portfolio of published papers
- Any combination of the above and other assessed media, for example, video, conference proceedings, etc.

Of the forty-three institutions that claim to offer DBAs, two have no details on their websites. Six appear to offer Research and Subject type programmes. Two are Thematic in nature and the remainder are of a Research type.

Thus, a complex matrix could be produced that attempts to categorise DBAs. Categorisation in itself is not important. The Academy and the market place,

however, need to understand the award or to use market-led language, the ‘product’, if the DBA is to be given parity with traditional doctoral qualifications, in particular the PhD.

#### **3.6.4 DBA Candidates**

Studies into DBA delivery in the UK (Bourner et al. 2000) and Australia (Sarros et al. 2005) appear to fail to gather or analyse in-depth data on those taking a DBA. Details on student education, industry, employment history, organisational status and role, gender, age, aspirations, etc., would be invaluable as it ameliorate understanding of the motivations for taking a DBA and perhaps even this sort of data might improve our understanding of the impact of the doctorate on individuals.

Both the ABS (2005) and AMBA (2007) guides for student acceptance on to DBA programmes are very similar. Both ask for ‘significant business experience’ and they should normally have gained an MBA or other business-related Masters Degree or equivalent qualification. AMBA actually ask for a minimum of three years “relevant and appropriate work experience upon entry.” (p.3). Evidence of language proficiency will be expected in respect of candidates for whom English is not the first language. Bourner et al. (2000) reviewed admission requirements for DBAs and found that there is a clear focus on professional experience. Most courses also required at least an MBA, following the ABS guidelines. Some even allowed, with other forms of qualification and experience, a good undergraduate degree as sufficient qualification for entry on to the course of study for a DBA. In these cases students would then be expected to either complete an MBA as an intermediate qualification, or complete relevant MBA modules. Bourner et al’s (2000) study found that the amount of professional experience was not specifically defined, although the term ‘substantial’ was often used by institutions. Unlike the MBA, often DBA courses required the relevant management experience of candidates to be at a senior level with significant responsibility. Most programmes allowed circumstances for exceptional admission, normally of



very experienced individuals, for example chief executive officers of large corporations.

Bareham et al (2000) believe that the desire to develop senior management practitioners is a key driver behind the development of the DBA. Also there is evidence to suggest that consultants or those intending to move into that profession might be a target of DBA courses (Bareham et al. 2000). Interestingly, research by Scott et al. (2004) indicates that those taking the DBA are not motivated by extrinsic rewards, a 'business credential', but more by the intrinsic benefits that taking the qualification might bring. There is some anecdotal evidence that faculty, or potential faculty, take the DBA (Ivory et al. 2007). If these individuals are exploring an area of professional practice, then that is understandable.

### **3.7 Conclusion: DBAs**

This chapter set the DBA in context. The emergence and growth of professional doctorates has been driven by what could be described as 'market forces'. Strategists have not been explicitly associated with the DBA, however, there is sufficient evidence in guidelines, frameworks, descriptors and academic literature to suggest that there could be a link between the two. The next chapter, Conclusion to the Review of Related Work, shows the links between the DBA and strategists and provides the theoretical frame for the empirical research undertaken.

## 4 CONCLUSION OF THE REVIEW OF RELATED WORK

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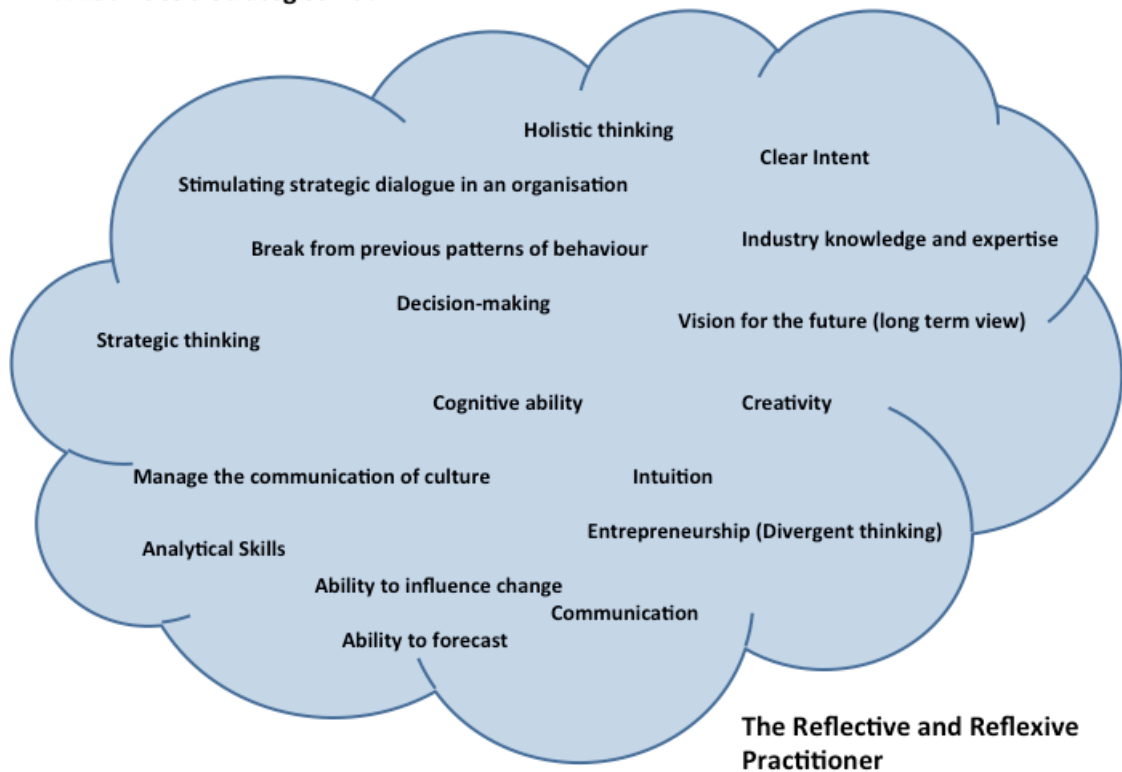
The review of the literature around the subject of this thesis has led the writer to explore two distinct bodies of work. Firstly, the literature review focussed on the notion of strategists. It was quite unexpected to discover that there has been minimal research into the subject, although the academic fields of strategy and strategic management are now increasingly mature. A minimal amount of research has been undertaken into the key agents and actors in strategy, the strategists themselves. Even the current growth in what has become known as practice-based literature (Whittington 1996; Jarzabkowski 2003; Johnson et al. 2004; Chia 2004; Jarzabkowski 2005; Johnson et al. 2007) in strategy has really failed to explore the subject of strategists in sufficient depth.

Secondly, literature on doctorates PhDs, Professional Doctorates and the DBA was examined. This work is mainly drawn from educational research. Actually, the amount and depth of published research into DBAs is, at the moment, extremely limited. The paucity of research into DBAs, particularly in the UK, might be symptomatic of the relative novelty of the qualification. It might even be a function of latent conservatism in UK HE, particularly in terms of doctorates and shifts away from the traditional PhD route to doctoral qualification (Noble 1994; Jarvis 2000).

This concluding section of the review of related work summaries the key themes from each review and then highlights the main integrating issues that will be explored in the empirical research. The figure below (Figure 9: What is a Strategist?) depicts these themes.

Figure 9: What is a Strategist?

## What Does a Strategist Do?



### 4.1 From the PhD to the DBA

The lack of empirical research on the DBA is conspicuous (See Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010). This could be a feature of the relatively recent development of this form of doctoral qualification. This lacuna might also be a function of the conservative culture in many established HE institutions and peer reviewed journals that are deeply embedded in the culture of universities (Noble 1994; Jarvis 2000).

The confusion over nomenclature of postgraduate and particularly doctoral awards was identified in the Harris (1996) and Dearing (1997) reports. As previously indicated, there are so many variations in the form of both PhDs and professional doctorates that make it difficult to distinguish particular distinct and unique characteristics in the delivery of either form of doctorate. What is clear is that a PhD does not necessarily have to have an applied knowledge focus, whereas, a professional doctorate, and particularly a DBA, must impact upon business

practice (Association of Business Schools 1997; Quality Assurance Agency 2001; Association of Business Schools 2005). This suggests that all DBA research is more likely to be action led (Zuber-Skerritt and Perry 2002).

It could be argued that the DBA is the creation of a triumvirate of the university, the professions and the workplace as the main three societal elements of knowledge production (Bareham et al. 2000; Bourner et al. 2000; Watson 2000). Another key stakeholder, however, might be added to this mix, the government and its various agencies. Growing dissatisfaction in industry and governments with traditional PhD study (Noble 1994; Cowen 1997; Usher 2002; Lee et al. 2009; Costley and Lester 2010), combined with the increasing demands from the professions to gain recognition at the highest academic level has spawned the DBA. The DBA is often regarded as a natural development from the MBA (Association of Business Schools 2005; Quality Assurance Agency 2008). Much of the publicly available documentation identifies a clear progression by practising managers (strategists) from their MBA studies on to a DBA. Both the ABS and AMBA criteria for student selection explicitly make this link (Association of Business Schools 2005; Association of MBAs 2007). The DBA's links to the MBA, however, are more intuitive rather than established in the pedagogy underpinning either course.

#### **4.2 The Link Between the DBA and Strategists**

The desire to develop senior management practitioners is a key driver behind the development of the DBA (Bourner et al. 2001; Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001; Turnbull-James and Collins 2006). Examining the literature, there appears to be an almost implied association between the requirements of a successful DBA candidate and the characteristics of a strategist. To meet the challenges of today's competitive environments there is a growing appetite amongst individuals and organisations for the production of applied, what has become known as Mode 2 knowledge (Gibbons et al. 1994; Salipante and Aram 2003; Deem 2004; Park 2004; Scott et al. 2004; Un and Cuervo-Cazurra 2004). Mode 1 knowledge is

disciplinary knowledge that is culturally concentrated and institutionalised. Mode 2 is work-based knowledge that has traditionally been communicated through non-academic sources, such as professional journals and professional networks. Mode 2 knowledge production is utilised by industry, governments and society. Increasingly, Mode 2 knowledge is the focus of developments in HE as universities attempt to prove their worth and value to society, business and most importantly, their main funders, government. As Ruggeri-Stevens et al. (2001),

*“The recognition of work-based learning by the academy at doctoral level signifies a major step in the integration of work-based learning into mainstream higher education.” (p.61)*

Strategists conceptualise and communicate (to the leaders and others) the long term direction or strategy of an organisation. The context, content and processes that underpin strategic decisions will be informed by the background of strategists (Noorderhaven 1995). The educational background of an individual is an underpinning element in sense-making that inform strategic decisions (Gioia and Kumar 1991; Weick 1995; Stensaker et al. 2003; Schwandt 2005). Interpretations that individuals create of the strategic environment in which they are operating will be influenced or informed by their educational background as well as a whole range of other factors. Education can be a key influence on the development of characteristics, such as innovative capacity and sense-making, which we associate with strategists. Reflection and reflexive thought can help in breaking established patterns of strategic behaviour (Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Kao 1997; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002).

The literature recognises the paucity of empirical research into strategists themselves (Mintzberg 1998; McNulty and Pettigrew 1999). Of course, strategy can be, and often is, a group process, but essentially it is an individual activity (Whittington 2006; Johnson et al. 2007). One of the key issues in determining the influence of the DBA upon strategists is identifying what a strategist is. The concept of a strategist is a fluid and dynamic one. As Zaleznik (1977) suggests, bureaucracies that develop around managers engenders a culture of conservatism.

Zaleznik proposes that leaders are those that have a vision that breaks the established framework within which an organisation operates. It is argued here that leaders are those that articulate and lead the strategy. It is strategists (that may also be leaders, but, importantly, may not be) that are actually the strategic frame-breakers.

Strategy is a creative process that requires varying degrees of analysis (Bourgeois 1984; Bourgeois 1985; Pearce II et al. 1987; Dutton et al. 1989; Hitt and Tyler 1991; Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Johnson et al. 2005) and intuition (Agor 1989; Kleinmuntz 1990; Spangler 1991; Papadakis and Barwise 1998; Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Miller and Ireland 2005). It involves making fundamental decisions, either deliberately or by chance, that will influence the long-term future of an organisation (Johnson et al. 2005). Although, even intuitive actions will involve some thought, albeit perhaps subconscious, and the decisions made will be informed by previous experience and knowledge (Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Miller and Ireland 2005). Strategists deal with tensions and paradoxes, using a range of skills and abilities. It should also be noted that strategists are a social construction and a product of the human relationships that develop in organisations (Scott et al. 2004). This study accepts the significance of power and influence in relation to the role of strategists (Foucault 1980), but does not explicitly examine this aspect. This study, whilst acknowledging different perspectives, views strategists in terms of how strategists develop their notions of the strategic issues, rather than examining how others develop their perception of strategists.

This is an important point and the focus of the fundamental discussions about professional doctorates such as the DBA. The 'value' of work-placed learning to the academy is debatable. Thus, many DBAs, and most professional doctorates, have been careful to maintain links with tradition, in the form of the PhD. Credentialism appears to be a feature of today's education and even social system (Kay 1995; Lunt et al. 2005). Some developments around the MBA are witness to this statement (Carter 1998). There appears to be recognition that doctoral

education is more than a badge that managers would like to obtain (Economic and Social Research Council 2006).

Jongeling (1999) findings into what employers and academics require of professional doctorates, although somewhat dated, is informative in that it highlights many requirements which will enhance the areas that have been identified as characteristics of a strategist. Jongeling's research indicated that DBAs should train key personnel such as senior managers and leaders. These might well be strategists in organisations. They found that DBAs should improve professional practice and provide advanced skills. Strategists might require advanced analytical skills. The sort of mid-career candidate attracted to a DBA might well be the strategists of the future.

It has been identified that professional doctorates can provide high-level training within an organisational context (Lunt et al. 2005; Economic and Social Research Council 2006; Maxwell 2008). If we accept that strategy is a high level activity, then doctoral education might be a valuable mechanism in developing high-level executive decision-making. High-level reflection on individual or organisational practice is fundamental strategic capability (Drucker 1954; Ohmae 1982; Steiner et al. 1983; Senge 1990; Kaufman 1991; Mintzberg 1994a; Liedtka 1998; Pellegrino and Carbo 2001; De Wit and Meyer 2005; Hambrick and Fredrickson 2005; Johnson et al. 2005). Reflection and particularly reflexive thought at the doctoral level can inform the conceptual frames that influence the strategic decision-making and actions of individuals (Costley and Lester 2010).

For organisations to be competitive and use their key resource, employees, it is important to understand how strategists deal with issues, the processes by which they make decisions. This study will not investigate the nomenclature that has developed around management, leadership and strategists. It will explore the activities of individuals taking DBAs to identify if undertaking the qualification actually contributes to their development as strategists. A strategist is defined in this work as a strategic thinker and communicator, irrespective of their official

hierarchical position in an organisation. To make strategic differences, de facto, strategists will usually be found in particular positions in organisations (Pettigrew 1992; Starkey 2002).

The following table (Table 6: Links Between Literatures) attempts to establish links between the literature that identifies the characteristics that a strategist might possess and DBA activities. The relationship between the development of strategists and the DBA is explored in more detail in the Findings and Discussion chapter.

Table 6: Links Between Literatures

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Strategist: Reference</u>	<u>DBA: Reference</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Holistic thinking</li> </ul>	(Drucker 1954; Ohmae 1982; Steiner et al. 1983; Senge 1990; Kaufman 1991; Mintzberg 1994a; Singer 1996; Stacey 1996; Singer 1997; Liedtka 1998; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Hambrick and Fredrickson 2005; Johnson et al. 2005)	Jongeling 1999; Bourner et al. 2000; Lunt et al. 2005; Economic and Social Research Council 2006; Maxwell 2008;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Clear Intent</li> </ul>	(Prahalad and Hamel 1990; Liedtka 1997)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Vision for the future (long term view)</li> </ul>	(Easterby-Smith and Davies 1983; Steiner et al. 1983; Howard 1989;	



	Stumpf 1989; Reagan-Circincione et al. 1991; Mintzberg 1994d; Liedtka 1998; Linkow 1999; Champy and Nohria 2000; Bonn 2001; Beatty and Quinn 2002; Cummings 2002; Bonn 2005; De Wit and Meyer 2005; Gill 2006)	
• Creativity	(Bates and Dillard Jr. 1993; Mintzberg 1994a; Goldsmith 1996; Kao 1997; Liedtka 1997; Amabile 1998; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Bonn 2001; Graetz 2002; Andriopoulos 2003; O'Shannassy 2003; Walton 2004; Bonn 2005; De Wit and Meyer 2005)	Sekhon 1989; Scott et al 2004; Quality Assurance Agency 2008
• Intuition	(Agor 1989; Kleinmuntz 1990; Spangler 1991; Papadakis and Barwise 1998; Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Miller and Ireland 2005)	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Entrepreneurship (Divergent thinking)</li> </ul>	(Bhide 1994; Goldsmith 1996; Heracleous 1998; Graetz 2002; O'Shannassy 2003)	Scott et al 2004; Quality Assurance Agency 2008
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Break from previous patterns of behaviour</li> </ul>	(Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Kao 1997; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002).	Scott et al 2004; Quality Assurance Agency 2008
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Industry knowledge and expertise</li> </ul>	(Ohmae 1982)	Bareham et al 2000; Quality Assurance Agency 2008
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Analytical skills</li> </ul>	(Bourgeois 1984; Bourgeois 1985; Pearce II et al. 1987; Dutton et al. 1989; Hitt and Tyler 1991; Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Johnson et al. 2005 )	Sekhon 1989; Bareham et al 2000; Bourner et al. 2000; Sarros et al 2005; Quality Assurance Agency 2008
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ability to forecast</li> </ul>	(Sun Tzu in Ohmae 1982; Lo et al. 1998; Lord 2000)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ability to influence</li> </ul>	(Schendel and Hofer 1979; Pettigrew and Whipp 1991; Eisenhardt,	Association of Business Schools 1997; Bourner et al. 2000; Quality Assurance

change	199; Hambrick, 2001)	Agency 2001; Zuber-Skerritt and Perry 2002; Association of Business Schools 2005; Sarros et al 2005
• Manage the communication of culture	(Higgins and McAllaster 2004)	Sekhon 1989
• Communication	(Eisenhardt et al. 1997; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002; Porter 2005)	Sekhon 1989; Bareham et al 2000; Bourner et al. 2000
• Stimulating strategic dialogue in an organisation	(Cummings 2002; Gill 2006)	Sekhon 1989; Bareham et al 2000; Bourner et al. 2000; Sarros et al 2005
• Decision-making	(Schendel and Hofer 1979; Hambrick and Pettigrew 2001; Porter 2005)	Bourner et al. 2000; Sarros et al 2005
• Cognitive ability	(March and Olsen 1976; Schendel and Hofer 1979; Stubbart 1989; Wright et al. 1994; Chung and McLarney 1999; De Wit and Meyer 2005).	Association of Business Schools 1997; Bareham et al 2000; Bourner et al. 2000; Quality Assurance Agency 2001; Zuber-Skerritt and Perry 2002; Association of Business Schools 200; Scott et al 2004; Sarros et al 2005

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strategic thinking</li> </ul>	(Mintzberg 1994a; Liedtka 1998; Pellegrino and Carbo 2001; De Wit and Meyer 2005)	Bareham et al 2000; Bourner et al. 2000; Scott et al 2004; Sarros et al 2005
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The central question that this thesis explores is how can DBAs contribute to the development of strategists. The literature indicates a potential linkage, but there is no empirical support for this position. To investigate this central question the empirical research will examine institutional and as well as individual motivations for either offering or taking the DBA. The study will look beyond the organisational academic rhetoric in an attempt to discover the underpinning rationale for the development of the DBA. The diversity of delivery patterns in DBA programmes must be recognised in any study of this nature. Against the content, processes and outcomes that have developed on DBA programmes this study will examine whether the characteristics which strategists require are a feature of the courses examined.

Around this central question the study will therefore examine the following research objectives:

1. How the institutional rationale for the development of DBAs might impact the development of strategists;
2. How the motivations of individuals undertaking a DBA might impact the development of strategists;
3. How the different forms of DBAs might impact the development of strategists;
4. How the approaches to teaching and learning on DBA programmes might impact the development of strategists;
5. What is the impact of DBAs on the students studying them from the perspective of developing strategists;

6. How the future development of the DBA might impact the development of strategists taking the programme.

The DBA is a means to link practice and theory in the spirit of true and meaningful reflection and reflexive thought. It could be suggested that a professional doctorate is distinguished by its outcomes rather than its conceptual underpinnings (Green and Powell 2005). Sarros et al. (2005) state,

*“... the general consensus is that the tension between the demands of academics and the requirements of industry are best addressed through a DBA rather than through a PhD.”* (p.43).

As functions professionalise (Becher 1999; Scott et al. 2004; Green and Powell 2005), the speed of change increases and business requires even more innovative solutions to its problems, organisations need strategists that match these challenges if they wish to remain competitive. The qualities that this study has identified as characteristics of strategists can be informed by reflection and reflexive consideration. It is argued that reflection and reflexive thought at the highest level, doctoral study, is an essential component of being a strategist. The DBA, because it is located in practice, maybe offers a vehicle to allow reflective and reflexive thought on organisational strategy. Whipp (1996) criticises the field of strategic management for lacking reflexivity – the DBA is a means to link practice and theory in the spirit of true and meaningful reflection on both theory and practice. Through reflection the established and perhaps dated and uncompetitive strategic inertia that may have developed in an organisation can be addressed. The qualities that this study has identified as characteristics of strategists can be informed by reflexivity and reflection. It is argued that reflexivity and reflection at the highest level, that is doctoral study, are essential components of being a strategist and underpins the wide range of factors identified. The DBA facilitates individuals in organisations to rise above their operational roles to take strategic perspectives. The next chapter will present the methodology and methods employed to evaluate this subject matter.

## 5 METHODOLOGY AND METHOD

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### 5.1 Introduction

The previous chapters have reviewed the context for the study by examining the extant literature on doctorates, professional doctorates, and doctorates in business administration. Literature on strategy, strategic management and strategists was also reviewed. Based on this consideration of the literatures, broad research objectives emerged and research questions identified. In this chapter the methodology and methods applied in this research are described and explained.

The chapter begins with an outline description of the methodology and methods applied to investigate the relationship between the DBA and the development of strategists. The chapter then examines the epistemological position taken in this study. Describing and justifying the epistemological position adopted is important as it gives the reader an insight into the lens through which the researcher views the methods available for data gathering and analysis. Thereafter the chapter provides a description and rationale for the method utilised within this study. The chapter concludes with reflections on possible limitations of the methodology and method and a discussion on validity, reliability and ethical consideration in this study.

It should be noted that it is recognised that this work is inherently political in nature and will incorporate researcher and respondent bias. As far as possible the researcher has tried to negate prejudice in the study and attempt to achieve some form of objectivity, but individual values will invariably be presented in such a study.

## 5.2 The Aim of the Thesis Re-Visited

The extant literatures were critically examined which indicate that this study has worth and contribution to knowledge. At this stage it is apposite to restate the key aims of this thesis. The central question that this thesis explores is:

“How can DBAs contribute to the development of strategists?”

Drawn from the theoretical frames and themes that emerged from the literature around this central question, several areas require empirical examination in order to inform a coherent discussion. These themes form the study’s research objectives and are:

1. How the institutional rationale for the development of DBAs might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.1)
2. How the motivations of individuals undertaking a DBA might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.2)
3. How the different forms of DBAs might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.3)
4. How the approaches to teaching and learning on DBA programmes might impact the development of strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.4)
5. What is the impact of DBAs on the students studying them from the perspective of developing strategists? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.5)
6. How the future development of the DBA might impact the development of strategists taking the programme? (See chapter: Findings and Discussion – 12.3.6)

By addressing these areas it is intended that a conversant and in-depth understanding of the key issues that emerge from the empirical study, informed by

the literature, will take place. The contribution of the research will be found in the illumination of key elements in the subject area. The research questions and the objectives detailed above are not mutually or individually exclusive. This study will be mindful of themes that may emerge in the research. The first research objective might not appear to be directly related to the central research question. It has, however, been included as the researcher felt that gaining an understanding of the institutional reasons for offering a DBA programme might reveal the depth of understanding that institutions themselves have of the outputs and outcomes of a DBA programme. This research objective might well reveal the extent to which institutions link the DBA either deliberately or inadvertently, implicitly or explicitly to the development of strategists. Alternatively it might reveal that institutions have other reasons for offering the DBA.

The second research objective, how the motivations of individuals undertaking a DBA might impact the development of strategist, is important to the study as gaining some understanding of the rationale for individuals taking a DBA might inform us about the focus of those taking the award. Do students embarking on a DBA actually place their learning in the context of strategy?

The third research objective, how the different forms of DBAs might impact the development of strategists, explores the variety of approaches to delivering the DBA and how this might impact the development of an individual in the context of developing a strategist.

The fourth research objective, how the approaches to teaching and learning on DBA programmes might impact the development of strategists, develops the third objective and explores the relationship between the content of DBAs and how they are taught and their potential impact upon strategists.

The fifth research objective, what is the impact of DBAs on the students studying them from the perspective of developing strategists, is core to the study and the



research aim. It brings together many of the findings discussed around the previous four research objectives.

The sixth research objective, how the future development of the DBA might impact the development of strategists taking the programme, explores how the DBA might evolve in the future and whether these developments might enhance the development of a strategist.

As will be detailed, the approach adopted in this study is essentially an inductive one. The central question and the attendant objectives are explored around the core theme of how DBAs influence managers and management.

### **5.3 An Overview of the Research Approach**

The following elements outline the research methodology and research methods employed in this study. This gives the reader an overall appreciation of the approach taken before embarking on a detailed description and justification for the methodology and method taken.

#### ***5.3.1 Epistemological position***

This thesis is a qualitative study, taking a critical realist perspective.

#### ***5.3.2 Overall research strategy***

The overall research strategy is qualitative, taking an interpretivist approach to the subject matter.

#### ***5.3.3 Data collection***

The data collection method consisted of semi-structured interviews with key respondents selected using purposeful sampling.

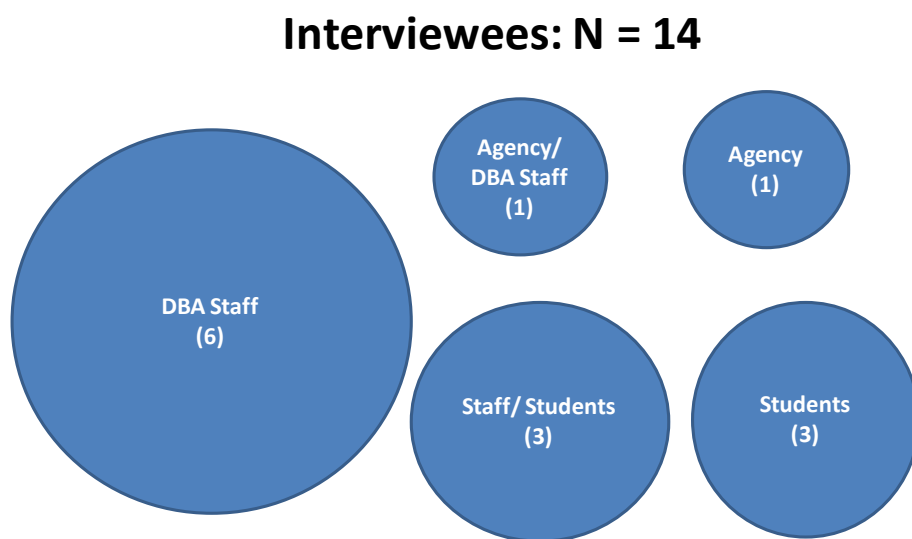
The interviews were carried out over a period of three months. Although the interviews were informed by themes and research objectives that emerged from the literature the approach taken was essentially an inductive one, where the interviewer asked broad questions relating to the research aim. This allowed emergent themes to be identified.

The interviewees can be categorised as: 2 respondents from leading agencies (governmental or quasi government organisations); 10 key staff in the delivery of DBAs on six DBA programmes; and 6 students from 4 programmes who have successfully completed the DBA. Of the 6 students, 3 have become faculty and have been classified as staff/ students for the purposes of this study and one agency member is also a member of staff at an institution (See Figure 10: Interviewees).

Interviewees:

- 2 agency – 1 also a member of staff
- 10 staff
- 6 students – 3 also members of staff

Figure 10: Interviewees



The interviews were conducted face to face with individuals. This was normally in the place of work of the individual, although three interviews took place away from the work place in a location of the choosing of the interviewee.

#### ***5.3.4 Data analysis and presentation.***

The analysis of interview texts is based on grounded theory conducted using thematic qualitative analysis. Initially, the data was analysed inductively, identifying: Emergent Master and Superordinate themes from the text. These Findings and Discussion are presented and analysed using direct quotations from the texts interspersed with the author's interpretations. Using this analysis the research aim and objectives are explored in a deductive manner.

#### ***5.3.5 Research Approach: The Methodological Underpinnings for the Study***

“Good scholars have deep commitments.” (Deetz 1996, p.204) The commitments underpinning this research shall now be examined.

A range of literatures on research methodology and research methods are unequivocal that the approaches taken and operationalisation of research should be driven by, and appropriate to, the research question posed (Easterby-Smith et al. 1994; Collis and Hussey 2003; Walliman 2005; Silverman 2006). Research questions and the methods chosen to answer them, nevertheless, will be underpinned by the methodological perspective/s adopted by the researcher. The research methodology and method/s employed reflect a researcher's underlying philosophy comprising an ontological view and their epistemological assumptions (Bryman and Bell 2007). In a study of this type it is particularly important that both a researcher's ontological position and epistemological stance are clearly articulated. This will assist the reader in obtaining a clearer understanding of the researcher's approach and analysis. Fundamentally, a researcher's ontological

position is the way they perceive and understand the world (Maitner 2000; Collis and Hussey 2003; Delanty and Strydom 2003). Perhaps, this is what underpins what Deetz (1996) describes as deep commitments. A researcher's epistemology is the function of their ontology and the research subject and concerns the way in which individual's discover a subject's reality. What follows is an explanation of this thesis's ontological and epistemological underpinnings.

#### **5.4 The Philosophy Underpinning this Research**

It is essential for a researcher to understand their philosophical (ontological) position, as this will influence how they conduct and interpret research. Hughes and Sharrock (1997) propose that an understanding of the philosophical position of research is vital in providing research with investigative rationales. Armed with this understanding the research undertaken will be more efficient and effective (Easterby-Smith et al. 1994). As Van de Ven states, "It is better to choose a philosophy of science than to inherit one by default." (2007, p.37)

The philosophical assumptions that underpin this thesis adopt a position that can be described as critical realist (Bhaskar 1978; Sayer 1992; Davies 1998; Ackroyd and Fleetwood 2000; Rescher 2000). This position could be ascribed the nomenclature, post-positivist. To understand this stance it is useful have an overview of the research positions that might be taken. Burrell and Morgan's seminal text 'Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis: Elements of the Sociology of Corporate Life' (1979) crystallised much of the debates between the various schools of thought that have developed in relation to research methodology. A binary view of science might suggest that there are two ways of understanding phenomenon such as knowledge, the objective (positivist, scientific, structural) and the subjective (interpretivist, humanist, post-structural) (Burrell and Morgan 1979). Positivism is based on the premise that the world is external and can be measured objectively (Remenyi and Williams 1996). Positivism, in Burrell and Morgan's (1979) view, characterises epistemologies that undertake investigation into the social world by looking for regularities and

causal relationships. It draws upon 'traditional' research approaches that dominate the natural sciences (Burrell and Morgan 1979). Positivism is not a unified church. Certain positivists believe that hypothesised regularities can be verified through experimentation ('Verificationists'). Whilst other positivists believe that hypotheses can only be falsified ('Falsificationists') (Popper 2002). In terms of organisational research a positivist researcher believes that the world is a concrete and observable social phenomenon, an exogenic reality. Their research will be based on observable phenomena and tested using hypothetical-deductive techniques (Gill and Johnson 1997). Essentially, the positivist position is an objective one.

At the other end of the spectrum, the 'interpretive' paradigm proposes that the comprehension of the social world is a subjective exercise with the participant rather than the observer as the focus of interpretation. The approach has gained increasing attention in the past thirty years (Lee 1991). The interpretivist approach has been regarded as a foil to the positivist approach. Burrell and Morgan (1979) reflect, "... the word positivist like the word bourgeois has become more of a derogatory epithet than a useful descriptive concept." (p.5) The interpretivist paradigm, which owes its existence to the German idealist tradition, led by the work of Kant, embraces a variety of approaches including elements of solipsism, phenomenology, ethnography, phenomenological sociology and hermeneutics. At the core of the interpretative paradigm is its questioning of whether organisations exist in anything but a conceptual sense (Burrell and Morgan 1979). The interpretive paradigm is attractive to researchers because it takes into account the social world in which organisations operate and develop. A key criticism of the interpretive paradigm is that it provides little more than a description of organisations, with little 'empirical' foundation (Crotty 1998). Burrell and Morgan appear to be somewhat dismissive of the ontological position adopted by interpretive theorists, they state, "Everyday life is accorded the status of a miraculous achievement." (Burrell and Morgan 1979, p.31)

The debates around positivism and interpretivism are lengthy and on-going. Deetz (1996), however, views the perpetuation of the subjective-objective philosophy of social science debate as Burrell and Morgan's most "problematic legacy" (p.193). Deetz sees this argument as a constricting one, which reinforces political positions in term of dominant approaches to research. The criticisms of the objective and subjective approaches have led researchers and theorists to explore the possibility of a middle or third way (For example see Lee 1991; Remenyi and Williams 1996; Gill and Johnson 1997). It has been suggested that dogma should be replaced with a contingent approach, where the most suitable research approach is applied. Deetz (1996) argues that the objective-subjective labels are socially contrived and in fact there is often no difference between them. Deetz states, "... I treat the claim of objectivity or subjectivity as a rhetorical move in a research program's system of justification rather than as a useful descriptive label." (p.194) The table below (Table 7: Alternative Inquiry Paradigms) summarises the three main research paradigms considered in this research.

Table 7: Alternative Inquiry Paradigms

<b>Paradigm</b>			
	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>	<b>Realism</b>
Ontology	Objective, external reality	Multiple societal realities.  Reality is internal; truth depends on the knower's frame of reference	Objective reality is imperfectly and probabilistically understood.  Social phenomena exist in the objective world.

			Our understanding of reality is socially constructed.
Epistemology	An objective approach to research.  The known and knower are separate.  The knower is irrelevant	A subjective approach to research.  The knower and known are inseparable.	Findings probably objectively true
Methodology	Quantitative  Experimental deductive research design.  Focus on controlled settings and internal validity.	Qualitative  Naturalistic, emergent, inductive research design.  Focus on natural settings and external validity.  Use of ethnographic prose, historical	Interpretation of research issues by a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods.  Triangulation.  Use of interviews, case studies and questionnaires.

		narratives, first person accounts, life histories, autobiographical materials.	
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(Source: Adapted from Guba and Lincoln 1994)

Fundamentally, the researcher undertaking this study has an ontological bias towards positivist, scientific, structural constructs of the world. The researcher, however, recognises that the research being undertaken requires an interpretivist, humanist, post-structuralist approach. This is because knowledge, founded on data and information based through language, either verbal or written, cannot be discrete and objective. If there is a belief that knowledge can be an explicit entity, then, from a post-structural perspective, in the very act of someone else, albeit the informant or the researcher, obtaining data, information and knowledge creation will result in new interpretations.

This study and its thesis attempts to avoid the linguistic quagmires that can develop when considering a research ontology and epistemology. The study, nevertheless, recognises the importance of the linguistic turn proposed by Giddens (1976) where "... language is deemed to be the dominant symbolic resource available for accomplishing social reality." (Samra-Fredericks 2003, p.152) Grey (2004) in his review of critical management studies in business education proposes that there is a sharp distinction between 'fact' and 'value'. Grey suggests that, "... all facts are always impregnated with values ..." (p.179). This view is accepted by the researcher. Therefore, the philosophical assumptions adopted in this study are neither positivist, nor anti-positivist. The approach taken in this study draws upon the realist position (Bhaskar 1978; Sayer 1992; Ackroyd and Fleetwood 2000). Realists claim that understanding in social sciences is derived by exposing the underlying and often unobservable mechanisms that connect phenomenon causally (Abercrombie et al. 2000). This position is critical



of both positivism and interpretivism. This researcher believes that it is necessary to bring together both interpretive and explanatory understanding because reality is not just fashioned by social actors but it exists independently. This study examines DBAs and strategists and the potential relationship or worth of one to the other. Both have realities, which are constructs of the societies in which they exist. As Bhaskar (1978) states,

*“[Critical realism] regards the objects of knowledge as the structures and mechanisms that generate phenomena; and the knowledge as produced in the social activity of science. These objects are neither phenomena (empiricism) nor human constructs imposed upon the phenomena (idealism), but real structures which endure and operate independently of our knowledge, our experience and the conditions which allow us to access them.” (p.25)*

Bhaskar’s perspective encapsulates the stance taken in this thesis is that there exists a reality independent of our representation of it. The reality and the representation of reality operate in different domains – an intransitive ontological dimension and a transitive epistemological dimension. The focus of a realist is on uncovering the real mechanisms and structures underpinning phenomena. Whereas, a critical realist will recognise that the evidence will be value-laden and a product of the social actors involved in the knowledge creation process. Reality is an intransitive notion, whilst values are transitive. The critical realist recognises the existence of realities and that there are differences between reality and people’s perceptions of reality. Critical realists, however, also reject the causal reductionism of positive research.

The importance of establishing the philosophical, methodological stance at the outset of the research being undertaken is that it will assist in developing a coherency in the approach/es undertaken. For example, in this study strategists are not seen as simply socially constructed entities. They are a product of both the agents with whom they interact and the environments in which they operate. As Archer (1995) argues, “... the nature of what exists cannot be unrelated to how it is studied.” (pp.16-17)

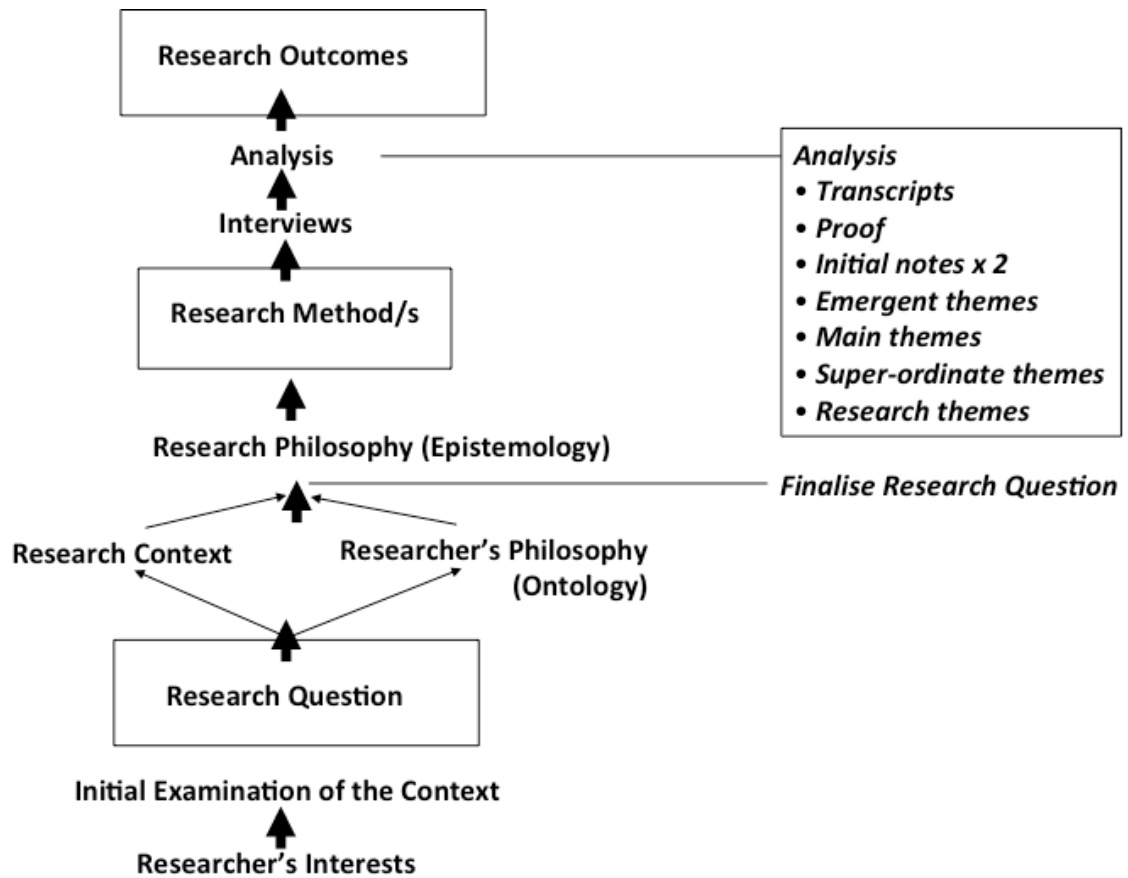
The link between a researcher's ontological stance and a study's methodology should be explicit. As Archer (1995) says, "An ontology without a methodology is deaf and dumb; a methodology without an ontology is blind." (p.28) This study is not deaf in that it has taken into account the full range of approaches to the subject and to research in general. The study is not dumb, in that a clear position for the study has been established and articulated. The study is not blind in that it illuminates an important aspect of strategy and organisational strategic development. The approach taken recognises the transient nature of the areas studied as both the DBA and strategists are products of the social agents, including the researcher, that determine their structure and constituent elements.

Having established the ontological and epistemological positions adopted by this research the chapter will now go on to consider the methods of data collection and analysis.

### **5.5 Methods of Data Collection**

This section will be structured in the following way. First, the research strategy and the qualitative and quantitative approaches to research will be examined. Second, the approach to interviewing adopted for this research will be explained. Thereafter the sampling frame employed will be discussed. The figure below (Figure 11: The Research Process) provides an outline of the research process undertaken.

Figure 11: The Research Process



## 5.6 Research Strategy - Qualitative and Quantitative Methods of Research

The overall research strategy employed in this study is qualitative, which is consistent with the methodological position discussed in the previous section. It also is consistent with other studies conducted in the practice of strategy (See Chia 2004; Jarzabkowski et al. 2007). What, however, is actually meant by qualitative and quantitative requires further consideration.

Despite writers' credible attempts, there is no real consensus on what constitutes qualitative or quantitative research (Mason 2002). Silverman (2006) lists key features of qualitative and quantitative research methods that have been proposed by proponents of both approaches. Qualitative research is often associated with

the terms such as: soft; flexible; subjective; political; case study; speculative; grounded. Whereas, quantitative has been typically connected with the following expressions: hard; fixed; objective; value-free; survey; hypothesis testing; abstract (Walliman 2005; Bryman and Bell 2007). Perhaps, this is a sensible way of considering the differences between the two terms as it provides a relatively easy to follow guide for researchers. Despite the debate over the definitions of the terms qualitative and quantitative, the overall research strategy adopted in this research is clearly qualitative, in that it involves consideration of notions that are soft, flexible, subjective, and political.

There are a variety of qualitative research methods that could be applied to this study. Silverman (2006) distinguishes between qualitative techniques that are data gathering and analytical in nature. Within the various approaches to data gathering in qualitative research the following key research methods (techniques) exist: observation; interviews; focus groups; questionnaires (nominal data); case studies (including ethnographic studies and action research); oral histories/stories; documentary review (including textual analysis); visual analysis (Maylor and Blackmon 2005; Bryman and Bell 2007). This list is by no means exhaustive. Different terminology is applied to similar techniques depending on the perspective of the researcher or writer. To these, analytical qualitative techniques such as content analysis (Fields 1988) and discourse analysis can be added. From these techniques Silverman (2006) identifies four main categories of qualitative research: observation; analysing texts and documents; interviews; and recording and transcribing. The last category, recording and transcribing, should not really be considered as a stand-alone method, but as a means of operationalising observation or interviews. Some other methods, such as questionnaires, can be categorised as either qualitative or quantitative techniques depending on the form they take. Case analysis can incorporate a variety of qualitative and quantitative methods, as can other techniques (Burns 2000; Bryman and Bell 2007). Due to the nature of the subject of this research and the resources available to the study, observation was rejected as an appropriate method. The use of text as supporting evidence was rejected because it was felt that the public institutional rhetoric

would be too value laden to aid the study. It was also believed that incorporating an analysis of documentary evidence would not be within the resource constraints of the researcher and the research as each institution produces a myriad of internal and external validation, course documentation and marketing material.

The primary data collection method utilised was interviews. The researcher felt that interviews would be more efficient and effective in exploring and interpreting the constructs of key actors involved in the area of research and provide a rich and thick descriptive account of the matters under investigation.

The following details the rationale for, and the application of, the interview method adopted in the study.

### **5.7 The rationale for the use of in-depth, semi-structured interviews**

Interviews are one of the primary techniques in qualitative analysis as they are a means of accessing individual perceptions, meanings and their constructions of their realities (Punch 2005). Several authors (Durgee 1985; Bryman 1988; Burns 2000; Deetz 2000; Denzin and Lincoln 2000; Flick 2002; Mason 2002) identify interviewing as an appropriate method to obtain data on meaning, values, interpretation, social construction processes and human interactions. The use of in-depth, themed interviews is appropriate to the epistemological position and congruent with the overall research perspective. Writers on research methods such as Easterby-Smith et al. (1994), Denzin and Lincoln (2003) and Jankowicz (Jankowicz 2005) agree that to obtain data on meaning, values, interpretation and human interactions generally, interviewing is an appropriate method. The elucidations of these phenomena are core to the research being undertaken because the study seeks to understand individual perceptions and their understanding of the value of a DBA.

Interviews can be regarded as falling between two ends of a spectrum (Denzin and Lincoln 2003). At one end interviews are structured where it is generally

accepted that all respondents are asked identical questions (Denzin and Lincoln 2003). Structured interviews, however, limit possible responses and might not allow issues and themes to emerge or be explored. At the other extreme are unstructured interviews where the interviewer does not 'control' or guide the conversation in any way (Hitchcock and Hughes 1989; Rubin and Rubin 2005). Unstructured or open-ended interviews (Noaks and Wincupp 2004) offer maximum flexibility when attempting to explore a research topic and obtain rich data (Silverman 2006). It is unlikely, however, that unstructured interviews can ever be enacted in their pure form as the interviewee will need a starting point and the interviewer will invariably lead the interviewee, however subtly, in some way. Unstructured interviews might also be inefficient or even inappropriate when both the interviewer and interviewee have limited time to devote to the process and the nature of the study is obscure (Grbich 2007). Using a structured approach in this study was rejected because the researcher wanted to allow emergent themes to be explored. Unstructured interviews were also rejected because the researcher felt that they might lead to a lack of focus and may not even consider the research area because of the distinctive perspective of the study.

As stated earlier, the relationship being explored is unique and may not be part of the established dialogue. It was recognised that there were a limited number of resources available to the study. Both the interviewees and interviewer had a limited amount of time to devote to the research, which again makes an unstructured approach to interviewing problematic. Fundamentally, the researcher recognises that interviews can never be purely unstructured and will be informed to some extent by the knowledge and understanding of the researcher. Therefore, a semi-structured interview method was applied. A semi-structured interview approach allowed for the exploration of emergent themes whilst maintaining and acknowledging a link to the established literature. The key advantage of semi-structured interviews is that they allow the interviewer to manage the process of obtaining information from the interviewee, but gives the interviewer the opportunity to follow new leads (emergent themes) as they arise (Bernard 1988). The approach to interviewing adopted in this study allowed

respondents to employ their own language to respond to questions which Spence and Rutherford (2001) identify as an important facet in interviews. As Fine (1994) indicates, the interviewee does not have a single perspective or one reality. There are multiple perspectives and multiple realities, and the positioning of the interviewee is not set. The interviewer is limited by their experience and knowledge. If the interviewer excludes the opportunity of diverse responses and merely seeks confirmation of previously held thinking, knowledge will not be advanced. As Liedtka (1992) observes, interviews are particularly appropriate for exploring the reasoning behind actions and decisions but that this depends on the interviewer using suitably open questions and remaining flexible in following the conversational turns of the respondents. The researcher was mindful of this possibility and structured the interviews in such a way as to encourage a diversity of views.

### **5.8 Sampling: Selection of organisations and individuals for interview**

A range of methods are available when choosing a sample of participants for the study. There is a limited amount of research on either DBAs or strategists. Therefore, there are no real guides to which method of sampling to apply. The range of methods includes random selection, systematic selection (Babbie 1995), probability sampling, snowball sampling, representative sampling (Patton 2002; Jupp 2006; Bryman and Bell 2007) and purposive sampling (Sekaran 1992; McBurney 1994; Coyne 1997; Creswell 2006). The last of these, purposive sampling, was chosen for this study, which is justified in the following section.

Random selection occurs where participants can be selected using a variety of arbitrary mechanisms from a population. Systematic selection requires a methodical choice of the sample based on fixed sampling criteria. Both were rejected as methods for sampling for similar reasons. Respondents should have a level of understanding of the subjects in order for them to be able to contribute to the study. This cannot be ensured using either random or systematic selection (Creswell 2006). Also the resource constraints on the study precluded these

approaches. Probability and representative sampling were rejected because of lack of hard data on respondents from which to construct a sampling frame. To some extent snowball sampling was used as at least one member of staff contacted students from their DBA that they thought would provide useful insights.

Purposive sampling is a method that enables selection of a sample of participants from a population based on a researcher's knowledge of the population (Patton 1990). The intuition of the researcher is applied in this selection process. The researcher's intuition is informed by study of the subject, experience, observation and reflection (Babbie 1995). This approach allows for the collection of information-rich data from a relatively small sample (Patton 1990). Most importantly, purposive sampling is congruent with the interpretive approach adopted in this research. Individuals for this study were selected because the interviewees had extensive knowledge and understanding of the research topic and it was felt that they could reflect in an open and honest way on their experience of the DBA. Five groupings of respondents can be identified: Agency; Agency-staff; Staff; Staff-student; Students. It is felt that these groups provide a holistic view of the DBA from key stakeholder groupings. Although the respondents are non-homogenous it is believed that they have in-depth understanding of the DBA and its impact on individuals and have a common background in terms of their in-depth understanding of aspects of the DBA. Having a rounded view of the DBA from a range of stakeholder groups is important so that the full impact of the DBA can be understood.

The danger of bias in the sample was a concern of the researcher. The researcher also had to rely on the integrity of key staff in selected institutions to identify students who would be suitable for a study of this nature, although the staff did not actually know the full extent of the research question being explored. The danger of only being presented with positive views of DBAs and their benefits was a real one. Individuals were deliberately selected (See below: for an explanation on how these individuals were identified and selected) who would potentially have diverse views of DBAs and their contribution to management.



This supports Dick's (1990) assertion that to gain diversity of views from a sample it is probably best to select respondents rather than use a random method of selection. Contradictory views were sought because this form of information was seen to inform data collection and to increase the trustworthiness of the data (Lincoln 1990).

The diversity of the sample included:

- Staff and students from a variety of DBA programmes;
- Students who became staff;
- Students from manufacturing and service industries;
- Students who recently completed their DBA
- Students who had completed their DBA after a period of time (up to 3 years);
- Male and female staff and students.

There were five groupings of respondents:

1. Agency;
2. Agency-staff;
3. Staff;
4. Staff-student;
5. Students.

Table 8: Interviewees

<b>Respondent Code</b>	<b>Respondent Classification</b>	<b>Form of DBA</b>
StuA	Student	Research
StaffA	Staff	Thematic
StuB	Student	Research
StaffB	Staff	Research and Subject

AA	Agency	NA
SSA	Staff-Student	Thematic/ Research
StaffC	Staff	Research
SSB	Staff-Student	Thematic/ Thematic
StaffD	Staff-Student	Research
StaffE	Staff	Research
StaffF	Staff	Research
ASA	Agency-Staff	Research
StaffG	Staff	Research
StuC	Student	Research and Subject

It has been previously highlighted, four different forms of DBA can be identified (See Table 5: A Typology of DBAs), namely: academic; thematic; research; research and subject. Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) whose DBAs could be categorised as thematic and research based were chosen for this study as these represent two different forms of DBA that are probably the most common forms of DBA currently being offered in UK institutions. As will be shown, however, it was found that DBA programmes tended, to a lesser or greater extent, to incorporate elements of each of the typologies identified. The sample is not homogenous and that is seen as a strength of the approach taken. The researcher wanted as many divergent views as possible that represented the range of views within the DBA community. Having interviewees who were staff, students, student/ staff and members of agencies allowed an eclectic but relevant range of voices to contribute to the study. It was also important that the range of programmes identified in the typology of DBAs in this work were represented in the sample chosen. The interviewees were purposively chosen to ensure that as many informed voices from the DBA community were represented in the study.

Having set out the rationale for the use of semi-structured interviews and purposeful sampling, the issues that specifically relate to the conduct of the

individual interviews will now be explored. For this purpose, the approaches to the four categories of interviewees are detailed. The section will then outline the general conduct and approach to the interviews. The researcher's own institution was not used in the study other than to pilot the interview. It was felt that inclusion of staff and students from the researcher's home higher education institution would open the possibility of bias in responses or interpretation.

### **5.8.1 Agency: Identification and Access**

Two interviewees can be classified within the 'agency' grouping. One of the respondents, as well as a member of an agency body, has also been a member of faculty of an institution that is a leader in the delivery of DBAs in the UK. The two agencies represented by these respondents were the QAA and the ABS. The QAA is an independent organisation that effectively sets, maintains and regulates the standards of academic courses in the UK. The ABS is a membership organisation consisting of all the main business schools in the UK. It has contributed significantly to the development of the pedagogy and understanding of DBAs (See Association of Business Schools 1997; 2004; 2005) and it has informed the development of QAA guidelines (1999; 2001).

The individuals interviewed in both agencies were senior members of these organisations with intimate knowledge and understanding of the DBA and its development both nationally and internationally. It was felt that the views of such organisations were important in a study of this nature as they would provide an overview of the past, present and future developments of the qualification. The senior individuals in these organisations were contacted via email and a brief was forwarded to them prior to the interviews (See Appendix B - Interview Letters to Interviewees).

### **5.8.2 Staff: Identification and Access**

Ten respondents can be classified in the staff grouping. Although one could also be classified in the agency grouping and a further three were members of faculty who had taken the DBA. As demonstrated earlier, the DBA has been used as a doctoral qualification for faculty, particularly for those who have entered academia from industry. The ten staff were drawn from six leading organisations that deliver the DBA. The institutions all have well-established programmes that represent the main forms of DBA delivery in the UK.

The process of contacting potential participants revolved around sending emails and a brief to DBA course leaders in targeted respondent institutions (See A - Interview Letters to Interviewees). The researcher tried to contact a number of institutions, and received replies from approximately a third of HEIs emailed. Two institutions who replied positively went through structural or staff changes before interviews could be arranged which negated their involvement in the study. In several instances, course leaders also arranged for the researcher to meet other members of faculty and students involved in their DBA programmes.

### **5.8.3 Staff-students: Identification and Access**

As detailed above, of the staff respondents, three had also taken DBAs. Only one had remained in the university at which they had taken the doctorate. These individuals offered a unique perspective on the DBA providing an 'insider's' view as well as an 'external' perspective on DBAs.

### **5.8.4 Students: Identification and Access**

Six respondents were students who had successfully completed their DBAs. Three of these had progressed to become faculty. In total they represented four different institutions. Care was taken to interview the respondents in a place where they were comfortable and to minimise any possible power (staff-student) bias.

## 5.9 Conduct of Interviews

Fourteen interviews were conducted. The process of conducting the interviews was generally the same. Each interview lasted approximately one hour. Participants, where possible, were interviewed either in their workplace or in a place as close as possible to their workplace, for example a quiet café or public space. All the interviewees were informed that the research process would be conducted in a way that ensured their anonymity (Herzog 1996). The interviews were conducted with only interviewee and the interviewer present. All of the respondents agreed to the interviews being digitally recorded and transcribed and confidentiality was stressed in each instance. One interviewee asked that the recording be stopped part way through the interview, as they described a 'commercially' sensitive issue. All respondents were sent a copy of their interview and asked to amend as they wished. None requested any amendments. All interviews were coded so as to protect the identity of the respondent. All interview transcriptions are securely stored and will be destroyed after the conclusion of this study.

At the outset of the interview none of the respondents were aware of the exact nature of the study. The researcher, in both written and verbal briefs, did not reveal the full nature of the study, but used the more general description of the study as one that was to examine the relationship between management development and the DBA.

Following established convention, each interview was begun with the interviewer thanking the interviewee for their participation in the study and detailing confidentially arrangements. The onus is on the interviewer to attempt to ensure that the interviewee is as comfortable as possible with their position and the questions asked confirm responses. Interviewees were then asked to give a brief biographical resume. A concern in any interview is a phenomenon known as 'socially desirable responses' (Bain 1993). Essentially this experience refers to

the notion that interviewees might give responses that they deem to be acceptable to the interviewer or other individuals or groups that may be party to the research. This could result in answers that the interviewee expects the interviewer to find acceptable or is morally or ethically acceptable. Again, the interviewer/researcher was aware of this issue and the interviews were structured in a way to mitigate against the possibility.

The researcher asked the respondent to detail their involvement with a DBA. Interviews would follow basically the same structure. The researcher used active listening skills, such as clarifying, paraphrasing and reflecting the content and feeling of the responses. Importantly, the researcher was mindful throughout the process of their impact on the interview itself. The researcher was careful to avoid leading responses with a minimal use of terms or statements of encouragement (Jankowicz 2005).

In each interview the same question was asked at an early stage of the conversation:

“Can you tell me about your involvement in the DBA?”

There are a few of points that require explanation about this question. In the first place, the term strategist, or link with strategy, was deliberately avoided in any prior correspondence or during the early stages of the interview, because the researcher wanted to explore whether the themes emerged naturally in the ensuing discussion, and if so, in what context. Secondly, DBAs were not defined as the researcher was interested to understand how the participants themselves defined what was meant by DBA. The researcher had a number of questions that could have been used as prompts after this initial open question (See Appendix C - Interview Question Prompts). It was found, however, that these were mainly redundant as participants proffered their views on these areas without prompting. Having discussed the data collection methods employed, the next section will turn to the techniques employed to analyse the interview texts.

### 5.10 Methods of Data Analysis

The data analytical approach adopted in this study could be classified as constant comparative method, later called grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Jupp 2006). This approach essentially consists of four stages:

- Stage one: Comparing incidents applicable to each category;
- Stage two: Integrating categories and their properties;
- Stage three: Delimiting the theory, and;
- Stage four: Writing the theory.

Grounded theory is embedded in the interpretivist philosophy underpinning the approach to empirical research adopted in this study (Glaser and Strauss 1967). It is based on a critique of quantitative, grand experimental, hypothesis driven approaches to research. Developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), grounded theory suggests a deductive approach to analysing data rather than a deductive stance. As soon as sufficient data is collected, categories are identified by the researcher. As more data is analysed these categories are enhanced, relationships are identified and further categories may emerge from the data. The themes that emerge from the data are then modified into more abstract concepts. Theory is developed by arranging these concepts into logical schema that can be developed and modified as further data is collected and analysed. The theory developed from the analysis only proposes to guide theory, it does not suppose to place limits on the theory/ concepts developed.

It is sometimes assumed that the researcher in grounded theory has to approach the research without any preconceived conceptual framework, where the data will develop the framework. In reality, it is important that the researcher acknowledges any preconceptions and influences on their development of theory (Jupp 2006). The approach taken to grounded theory in this work follows the path proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1998). Strauss and Corbin's view of grounded theory could be described as a pragmatic approach with a more structured attitude

to theory building. It prescribes the use of a set of analytical tools and guiding principles (Strauss and Corbin 1998). The researcher is encouraged to mix grounded theory with other methodologies and to apply existing insights and experience to the subject matter where appropriate. This differs from Glaser's (1978) more purist approach to grounded theory that relies on an open attitude to the research enterprise where the researcher is professionally naive: in this way, theory generation is not compromised by researcher prejudices but emerges directly from the data. This approach allowed themes to emerge as the interviews progressed. A theme in this context refers to the key messages received from the voice engaged in this study. The themes are implied and a construct of the researcher. It is recognised that they are subjective in nature and might be influenced by researcher bias. Care, however, was taken to apply as transparent an approach as possible to give the reader some confidence that the themes identified did represent patterns of thought or recurrent arguments presented by respondents. The approach also enabled an element of each interview to be directly focused on themes identified in the literature. This analysis is presented in the Findings and Discussion.

The researcher was aware of computer packages such as NUDIST, NVivo, Ethnograph, QUALPRO, ALPHA, HyperQual, ATLAS/ti and HyperRESEARCH that could have been used to aid data analysis. Consistent with the methodological position and method adopted in this study, however, the researcher applied a manual analytical procedure. As Coffey and Atkinson (1996) suggest manual coding of data is chosen because it brings the researcher closer to the data.

The analytical process utilised in this study draws upon a psychological analytical technique called interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) (See Smith and Osborn 2003; Smith 2004; Reid et al. 2005). This study, however, does not pretend to take the sort of in-depth analysis that would be expected in IPA. But, the underlying ethos and structure of this approach was found to meet the research context and its underpinning ontology and epistemology. IPA provides structure



to the analysis of text, but allows an inductive and interpretive approach to be employed. IPA also openly acknowledges the role of the researcher in the collecting and analysis of data.

The researcher immersed themselves in the data to question and explore the text and reflect on what is found (Willig 2004). Even though results should be fundamentally grounded in the text, (Smith 2004) suggests that a two-tiered interpretation process should be adopted. First, the participant attempts to make sense of their experience and second, the researcher endeavours to make sense of the participants' attempts. The dual aspect of this approach, both interpretative and phenomenological reflects the process whereby both participant and researcher form an account of the phenomena to obtain a full and comprehensive understanding of the participants' lived experience (Smith et al. 1999). This is useful because it represents the reality of the research process taken.

This method also utilises an inductive approach whereby phenomenon are explored within their natural context. By focusing on the accounts of individuals' experiencing the phenomena as it is, the researcher can be open to new and emerging perspectives (Reid et al. 2005). This allows for flexibility to develop emergent themes and ideas both at interview and analysis, rather than relying on the rigidity of a discursive tactic where pre-determined hypotheses or theories govern and limit the researcher's line of enquiry. The broadly framed initial research questions allowed the researcher to begin with an open mind rather than beginning a project with a predetermined set of ideas about the nature of an experience. Consequently, the thematic methodology adopted here is as an exploratory tool that is data-driven rather than theory-driven. This thematic procedure taken by the researcher acknowledges that access to the participants' personal and inner world can only be obtained through a process of social interaction and interpretation within the research process. Indeed, it is maintained that the personal meanings ascribed to experience are perceived and re-constructed by the participant in the interaction with the researcher (Smith et al. 1997). Therefore, the importance of the researchers' role within this interaction,

in making sense of the accounts portrayed, at an interpretative level is paramount. Indeed the analysis can be classified as the researcher's interpretation of the participant's experiences of the phenomenon studied (Smith et al. 1999). It is accepted that the researcher's own personal values and predispositions will influence the process of making sense of the participant's experiences and meaning making (Willig 2004). This influence, deemed as necessary in the interpretative process, must be openly acknowledged (Smith et al. 1999). The use of themes is founded on Goffman's work on 'frames' as a way of analysing data (Goffman 1974). Goffman advocated detailed and iterative re-reading of interview texts in order to discern frames [themes] in the data. This line of attack maximises the richness of data and allows the researcher and respondent to explore the key proposition in this study in some depth.

Once a sense of closure is attained for each case, cross-analyses of cases can take place where similarities and differences are explored. Indeed, the approach is well suited to the analysis of accounts that include both diversities and similarities. This process of analysis can also be described as being iterative in nature. Transcripts are analysed repeatedly using insights gleaned from previously analysed transcripts until a coherent narrative is obtained (Brock and Wearden 2006). The detail of the analytical process is now outlined.

#### *5.10.1 The analytical process*

In the first stage of the process interviews were digitally recorded for transcription purposes. Fourteen interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher, so as to capture as much of the detail of the interview as possible (Saunders et al. 2003). Once recordings had been transcribed, the researcher examined both the recording and the transcripts a second time to ensure that errors had not been made during the transcribing process. At that stage the transcript was sent to the interviewee for amendment. Although in this research none of the respondents wished to make any changes. All transcribed data was anonymised, giving each participant a pseudonym and adjusting or removing any identifying details.

Initially, a prolonged period of engagement with the first transcript was undertaken, with the researcher reading the first transcript several times (Barker et al. 2002). By noting down key words to capture the essential quality of what was found in the text and summarising initial thoughts and comments in response to the text, attempts were made to gain an overall feeling for the data. These unfocused and wide-ranging notes were recorded in the left margin of the text (Smith and Osborn 2003). This ‘theoretical memoing’ is at the core of grounded theory methodology (Glaser 1998).

To refine and develop the comments from the first stage of analysis, the second stage of analysis took a more interpretative stance and used a higher level of abstraction. The transcript was re-read again a number of times and certain assumptions were made by the researcher about the meaning behind the participants’ accounts (See Appendix D: Initial Notes and Emergent Themes. Emergent themes are formed and documented in the right hand margin of the text (Smith and Osborn 2003). An example of these first two stages of analysis can be seen in Appendix D: Initial Notes and Emergent Themes.

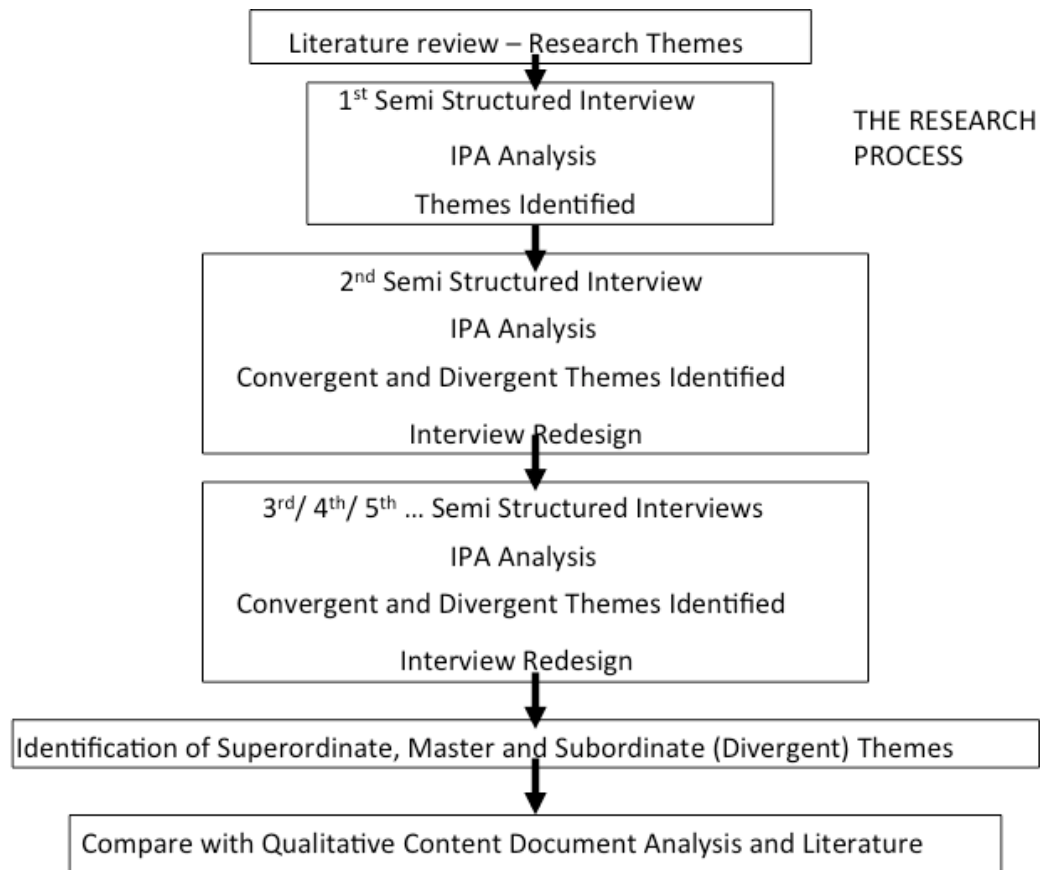
In the third stage of analysis the emerging themes identified in the previous stage were listed and the relationships between them explored (Brock and Wearden 2006). Emergent themes that were found to relate to each other in some way, either by having a shared meaning, reference or concept; were structured in a more coherent way by clustering them into groups. To capture the essence of these clusters, they were given names or labels and were identified as master themes.

In keeping with an iterative stance, the researcher at this stage, and throughout the analysis process, referred back to the original transcript to make sure that the clusters identified and the labels given to them clearly reflected and related to the original data following advice by Smith et al. (1999) and Collins and Nicholson (2002).

The fourth stage of analysis involved the development of a summary table that identified over-arching super-ordinate themes. The summary table can be seen in Appendix E - Summary Table. As well as superordinate themes, this table includes master themes and the clusters of emergent themes within them, in addition to quotations and references to the text that illustrated the relevance of each theme (Willig 2001; 2004). The stages are depicted in Figure 12 below (Thematic Analytical Process).

The fifth stage of the analysis involved exploring the emergent, master and super-ordinate themes with the six research objective areas. Appendix E (Summary Table) shows how each emergent theme did or did not relate to the research objective. The narrative supporting this analysis is presented in the Findings and Discussion chapter. Essentially, this stage of the analysis was undertaken deductively, whereas the previous stages were underpinned by an inductive approach to data analysis. Again, there is amount of subjectivity in this stage of the process. The researcher took a view on the relevance of a theme to the research objective identified from the literature.

Figure 12: Thematic Analytical Process



Following the exploration of individual experiences and accounts, as described in the analysis process above, it is necessary to integrate the accounts of all interviews conducted (Willig 2001). Two possible methods of undertaking this integration process were considered (Willig 2004). The first method involves analysing each interview separately, undertaking the four stages of analysis, as described above, for each account. Following this process each summary table of master themes produced from each account, are compared and integrated, with the aim of reflecting the experience of the group as a whole. Within this study, a second method of integration was used. This involved utilising the first table of master themes in the analysis of subsequent interviews. The researcher conducted subsequent interviews informed by the master themes identified. These are drawn from the participants, not the literature. The researcher acknowledges that both they and the interviewees may come to the subject informed by debates in the area.

The analysis was not complete until the integration of all participants' accounts have been completed and incorporated into master themes, which are then incorporated into a final table of superordinate themes. The aim of the superordinate themes was to capture the nature of the participant's shared experience without losing the uniqueness of the differing accounts and experiences of the individuals. The final table includes superordinate themes and the clusters of master themes within them as well as the research objectives superimposed on the inductive analysis (See Appendix E: Summary Table). It is felt that this method allowed the researcher to benefit from the richness of creativity of an inductive approach whilst also profiting from the structure and focus that the inductive stage of the process allowed.

The number of interviews conducted (14) was at the upper-end of the suggested number for qualitative research. The size of the sample has to be judged in the context and purpose of the research being undertaken (Miles and Huberman 1994). Essentially, the interviews were terminated once the researcher was confident that further interviews would reveal minimal further additional information that would contribute to the body of data already collected.

## **5.11 Reflections on the Limitations of the Methodology and Methods Employed. Issues of Validity, Reliability and Ethics**

This final section concludes the chapter by reflecting on the possible limitations of the methodology and methods employed. Thereafter it goes on to examine the reliability and validity of the thesis method and issues around research ethics are discussed.

### ***5.11.1 Reflections on the Limitation of the Methodology and Methods Employed***

The researcher in this section hopes to present an honest and open appreciation of potential weaknesses in the research approach adopted. As well as highlighting

elements in mitigation against areas of potential criticism, the following section, that examines issues of validity and reliability, will also support the methodology and method adopted in this research. Many of these issues have already been identified and addressed in previous sections. It is felt, however, that clearly identifying potential areas of concern in this section will add to the confidence of the reader in the approach to the research.

Adopting a qualitative interpretative position might result in the criticism that the findings of the study might be purely descriptive (See Burrell and Morgan 1979). The author of this research adopts the position taken by writers such as Deetz (1996) that rejects the necessity for such a strict demarcation between positivist and interpretivist approaches to research and prefers to take a third way or middle road (Lee 1991; Deetz 1996; Remenyi and Williams 1996; Gill and Johnson 1997). The qualitative method employed is not a 'soft option' (Silverman 2000). The structure and rigour employed in interviews provides the study with a solid foundation in support of its findings.

It is also recognised that in the use of a single research method, semi-structured interviews are also open to criticism (Agarwal and Tanniru 1990; Saunders et al. 2003). Other qualitative techniques, such as observation; interviews; focus groups; questionnaires (nominal data); case studies (including ethnographic studies and action research); oral histories/ stories; documentary review (including textual analysis); and visual analysis could have been applied to this study. Due to practical considerations, such as resources, access and the expected reliability of data only semi-structured interviews were utilised. Most importantly, semi-structured interviews were used because they are an excellent means of accessing individual perceptions, meanings and their constructions of their realities (Siedman 1977; Fish 1990; Alvesson and Deetz 2000; Burns 2000; Denzin and Lincoln 2000; Flick 2002; Mason 2002; Punch 2005).

Semi-structured interviews might have been less 'efficient' than the use of structured interviews (Grbich 2007). They do allow flexibility (Silverman 2006)

that enables emergent themes to come to the fore during the conduct of research (Bernard 1988). Respondents are able to use their own language in response to questions by the interviewer (Liedtka 1992; Spence and Rutherford 2001). The danger of leading questions was considered and the interviewer took great care to avoid this issue. Also, the phenomenon where respondents might feel pressurised to produce socially desirable responses (Bain 1993) was also considered and measured, such as reassuring interviewees that negative or alternative views were welcome and valid, were applied. Care was also taken to ensure that the interviewees felt that the conversation was between equals and that any possible 'power relationship' was avoided.

Purposive sampling can be problematic and open to accusations of bias (Patton 2002). Again due to resource and data quality issues, this approach to sample selection was considered the most effective mechanism in a study of this nature. As discussed earlier, the researcher attempted to gain as many and as varied a range of informed views as possible. The researcher went to great lengths to attempt to avoid having a particular positive or negative voice represented in the study. The importance of the researcher's intuitive capabilities should not be underestimated (Babbie 1995). The appropriate number of interviews suitable for a study is always a point of contention. As detailed previously, the researcher attempted to ensure that the sample chosen was as representative and informative as possible.

Finally, the approach to data analysis could be criticised on a number of fronts, particularly researcher bias. Utilising a grounded approach to identify themes will undoubtedly result in the interviewer's subjective interpretation of data. It is important, however, that the researcher acknowledges any preconceptions and influences on their development of theory (Jupp 2006) and attempts to produce as objective a set of findings as possible. It is accepted that the researcher's own personal values and predispositions will influence the process of making sense of the participant's experiences and meaning making (Willig 2004). The researcher is also an academic who has intimate knowledge and understanding of strategy,



strategic management, HE and DBAs. This is actually seen as a strength in a study of this nature as the researcher has insights into the subject that would not be available to a 'novice' researcher on the topic. In this respect, the researcher certainly sides with Strauss and Corbin (1998) approach to grounded theory. This can also be a weakness because of potential for bias. The researcher, however, attempted to mitigate against this potential bias by always being aware of this possibility and checking the research approach, results and analysis with their supervisory team. The final stage of the analytical process – comparing the inductive research findings with the research objectives adopted a deductive approach. Clearly, the researcher had to be very careful not to fit the data to the literature.

The structure used in data analysis, as far as possible, has allowed an element of objectivity or at least transparency that will be discussed in more detail in the next section that examines validity and reliability.

### ***5.11.2 Issues of Validity and Reliability***

Issues of validity and reliability cannot, nor indeed should they, be ignored when utilising qualitative techniques (Silverman 2000). Janesick (2003) proposes that “Validity in qualitative research has to do with ... whether or not the explanation fits the description. In other words, is the explanation credible?” (p.69) Reliability is described by Hammersley (1992) as, “... the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions.” (p.67)

Issues of validity, or 'truth', in qualitative research centre on 'anecdotalism' which avoids attempting to explain “less clear (or even contradictory) data phenomenon” (Silverman 2000, p.10). Qualitative research is often criticised for being merely 'anecdotal' or 'illustrative' and conducted in causal or unstructured ways (Mason 2002). Kirk and Miller (1986) identified two types of error in terms of validity of qualitative data. Type 1 error occurs when a researcher believes a

statement is true when it is not. Type 2 error is the opposite of a type 1 error, when a statement is rejected although it is true. It must be noted that the notion of validity is grounded in quantitative research and therefore in certain respects the concept of validity might not be applicable, to the same extent as quantitative studies. Qualitative research generates large amounts of non-statistical data which makes analysis difficult. Turner suggests a 'solution' to this problem is to ensure that the data is firmly grounded by theory where inter-relationships between data and theory can be clearly established (Turner 1983). The detailed theoretical frame underpinning this study addresses this issue. A key problem with this study is that it has not been considered in any depth in the established literatures and therefore the frame constructed is unique.

The sample type and size is an important dimension for the validity of any research tool (Rocco 2003). Samples can consist of people, behaviours, events or processes (Marshall and Rossman 1995). Patton (2002) describes two types of sampling, random and purposeful. Patton, however, states, "There are no rules for sample size in qualitative enquiry." (p.244) This does not absolve the researcher from fully detailing the sample selection method (Rocco 2003). Clearly, the sample chosen in this study is purposive. The rationale for the selection of both institutions and individuals is provided above.

The initial analytical technique allowed the researcher to identify theory through inductive, rather than deductive logic. This allowed the researcher to explore the subject with almost a completely 'blank sheet'. This was necessary because of the paucity of established theory on DBAs and strategists in their own rights and the association between them. The use of a deductive analytical technique 'superimposed' on the inductive findings allows the study to regain focus and structure, whilst maintaining the original and creative aspects of the study. This dual approach is important in terms of validity. It has allowed a degree of triangulation and confirmation. The analytical processes are explicit and it assists the researcher in finding their way through the mass of data produced by the process to identify the key themes pertinent to the subject being studied.

The qualitative strategy applied in this study means that prudence needs to be exercised over claims to external validity or generalisability (Marshall and Rossman 1995; Denzin and Lincoln 2003). The same study carried out at a different time, in a different place with different participants might not find the same results. Indeed, even within one study there is not one 'correct' way of interpreting the results (Janesick 2003), a position acknowledged in this study.

Kirk and Miller (1986) identify that reliability can be achieved through consistency in procedure. There is an argument that accuracy in terms of the measurement of data is not important, as social reality is always in flux (Silverman 2006). This is a somewhat worrying conclusion and it could be argued that if this line of argument is adopted then generalisations in social research would not be possible. Kirk and Miller (1986) counter Marshman and Rossman's position by claiming that reliability is important and it can be achieved through consistency in procedure. It is here that the methods of data gathering and particularly data analysis prove their worth as tools that offer the researcher a clear and established procedural basis with which to address potential problems of reliability.

### *5.11.3 Transparency*

Transparency refers to the basic methods of data collection, analysis and presentation are as visible and understandable as possible. This has been detailed earlier in this chapter. In the presentation of findings the use of direct quotations and the availability of transcriptions support the assertion that this study meets the criteria of transparency.

#### **5.11.4 Consistency**

The overall research approach applied a method of data collection, multiple individual interviews, bringing an element of triangulation, and therefore consistency, to the study. Some would argue, such as Silverman (2001) or Flick (2002), that in acknowledging that observations, and the resultant interpretations, are not perfectly repeatable, 'triangulation' in this thesis is concerned to acknowledging different perspectives.

#### **5.11.5 Communicability**

The ability to communicate the research context as well as the actual content of the evidence is necessary to satisfy this criterion. Therefore the contexts of each interviewee and the documents are described in this chapter.

#### **5.11.6 Ethics**

The key ethical issue intrinsic in a qualitative study of this nature is ensuring no harm comes to the participants through the future use of their testimony or provision of documents (Saunders et al. 2003; Rubin and Rubin 2005). The most important ethical considerations are those of informed consent, confidentiality, honesty about the intended use of the data, and the negation of perceived asymmetries of power in the interviewer/interviewee relationship. Due to the nature of this research and the methods adopted both the researcher and the participants felt that there were few inherent dangers in the study and therefore no major ethical issues were foreseen. In consultation with the researcher's supervisory team, due consideration to ethical procedures were, however, followed.

Interviewees were contacted and the context of the research was provided by the researcher. They were informed as to the doctoral nature of the study, the fact that interviews would take place, and that their words may be used as part of the

presentation of the data. They were also given an outline of the topic area to be discussed, namely, the relationship between the DBA and management.

It was felt that this information was adequate enough to create a situation of informed consent, however, the researcher gained email confirmation from all interviewees that they and their institutions (where relevant) understood the nature of the research and agreed to its conduct. There is an inherent tension between the issue of informed consent and the avoidance of setting *a priori* boundaries around what is an interpretative study. By providing too detailed a briefing to respondents their testimony could have become impregnated with bias.

All interviews were digitally recorded, but interviewees were asked whether they objected to audio-taping and transcriptions of the conversations. All interviews were anonymised with a coding record kept separately from the transcriptions. Respondents were offered verbal assurances of confidentiality at the initial point of agreement to be interviewed and at the beginning of each interview they were offered verbal assurances and also offered a written statement assuring confidentiality. Due to the nature of the research no one felt the need to take up the offer of a written note of confidentiality. Participants were informed that they could withdraw from the project at any time.

During the interviews the interviewer attempted to put the interviewee at ease. The interviewer was conscious, where the interviewee was a current or even a past student, that a potential power relationship might be conceived and the interviewer went to lengths to ensure that this potential barrier or source of bias was removed. Because of the relative maturity of the student interviewees, the researcher did not perceive this as an issue.

### **5.12 Conclusion: In Defence of an Attractive Nuisance**

Miles (1979) described qualitative analysis as an “... attractive nuisance ...” (p.590). The attractiveness comes in the richness of data that it can produce. The

nuisance is the problem of establishing clear analytical paths through the data (Punch 2005). It is hoped that the detailed description and defence of the methodology and methods given provides the reader with some comfort in terms of the analytical paths and a robust and thorough process undertaken.

To address criticisms of qualitative research in terms of reliability and validity, Mason (2002) believes qualitative research should be: systematically and rigorously; accountable in terms of its quality and claims; strategically conducted, yet flexible and contextual; actively reflexive; focussed on producing explanations and arguments rather than further description; generalisable; as part of a researcher's repertoire and not an antithesis of quantitative research; a moral practice, aware of its political significance .

The ontological position of the researcher and the context of the study are reflected in the epistemological position, as a critical realist. The research strategy is clearly qualitative and adopts an interpretivist approach. The realities of strategists are deemed to exist separately to the perspectives and interpretations of individuals. Balogun et al. (2003) refer to the works of Denzin and Lincoln (2000) and Locke (2001) that indicate that there has been a blurring of the ontological and epistemological boundaries in organisational research that results in a fuzziness in methodological and method in terms of data collection and interpretation. They do, however, see a positive in this melee of often opposing methodologies in that its results in a pluralism of approaches resulting in a mix of theoretical conversations. Perhaps, critical realism is in this melee. It could be argued that all research is thus and therefore the researcher must search for the approach with which they are most comfortable in the context of the research being undertaken.

It is felt that the approach taken is consistent with the contexts and reality of the study. A quantitative, wholly positivist approach would have not been tenable considering the uncertain, individually constructed nature of both DBAs and strategists. The analytical approach that combines themes from data sources and

the research objectives, garnered from the literature, allows for an element of validity and reliability in the study. Again, this study does not purport to produce findings that are generalisable. The findings resultant from the approaches taken will take an active role in informing debates in the areas of relevance, particularly given the dearth of literature on professional doctorates such as DBAs. Ultimately, the validity of this study will be in the perception of the reader. The reliability, particularly in respect to transparency, consistency, and communicability, of the method employed will add to the reader's sense that the study has worth. The next chapter presents the application of the techniques discussed here and the resulting data, analysis and discussion.

## 6 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

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### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study's findings and discusses these in light of the research aim and objectives. Potentially important areas emerged from the data that will inform discussion around the central research question and the theoretical frame established.

The inductive method employed identified eight superordinate themes:

1. Benefits of taking the DBA
2. DBA award issues
3. DBA's supportive structure
4. Institutional issues with the DBA
5. Institutional rationale for offering the DBA
6. Student characteristics
7. Student experience whilst completing the DBA
8. Student motivations for taking DBA

The emergent and master themes within the superordinate themes were compared with the research aim and objectives. The study's superordinate, major and emergent themes are presented in tabular form in Appendix E - Summary Table. Table 9: Summary of Superordinate and Master Themes below presents a summary of the superordinate and master themes. The appendix (Appendix E - Summary Table) indicates the relationships between the superordinate themes, master, emergent themes and the research objectives. It should be noted that the data, its 'categorisation' and relationships with the research objectives around the central research question are not always as explicit as depicted in this table. Where significant, differences in views between respondent groupings will be highlighted in the following discussion. Otherwise, responses will be aggregated in the narrative presented.



In this chapter an overview of each superordinate theme is initially provided. Then each research objective is explored which includes a detailed presentation of the master and emergent themes alongside the salient literature. Direct quotations from respondents as well as summaries of their views shall be offered as supporting evidence in the critique of the research aim and objectives. Reference is made to the individual respondents using the following coding:

- Staff – ‘Staff’
- Student – ‘Stu’
- Staff-student – ‘SS’
- Agency – ‘A’
- Agency-staff – ‘AS’

Numbers after the code are transcript page numbers.

## 6.2 Overview of Findings: Superordinate Themes

The following superordinate themes were identified:

1. Benefits of taking the DBA
2. DBA award issues
3. DBA's supportive structure
4. Institutional issues with the DBA
5. Institutional rationale for offering the DBA
6. Student characteristics
7. Student experience whilst completing the DBA
8. Student motivations for taking DBA

A variety of master and emergent themes constitute the superordinate themes. The table below shows a summary of the master themes. The emergent themes will be examined at length in the discussion around the research aim and objectives.

Table 9: Summary of Superordinate and Master Themes

<u>Superordinate Themes</u>	<u>Master Themes</u>
1. Benefits of taking the DBA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Functional performance</li><li>• Professional development</li><li>• Research skills</li><li>• Strategic communication skills</li><li>• Strategic perspectives</li></ul>
2. DBA award issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Awareness issues</li><li>• Contribution to practice</li><li>• Differentiation of DBA from PhD</li><li>• Parity with PhD</li></ul>

<p>3. DBA supportive structure</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Delivery pattern supports part-time delivery</li> <li>• Recognised research methods training</li> <li>• Staff support</li> <li>• Structured training</li> <li>• Student selection</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA allows a supportive social network</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA allows personal development of competencies</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA encourages and embraces criticality</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA encourages diversity of views</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA is integrative and holistic</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA is logical</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA is student led</li> <li>• The structure of the DBA provides a route map</li> </ul>
<p>4. Institutional issues with the DBA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Institutional capacity</li> <li>• Market issues</li> </ul>
<p>5. Institutional rationale for offering</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Faculty development reasons</li> </ul>

the DBA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Government influence</li> <li>• Market forces</li> <li>• Network reasons for development</li> <li>• Portfolio approach to management education</li> <li>• The DBA as a complementary award to the MBA</li> </ul>
6. Student characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Student's attitude</li> <li>• Student's experience</li> <li>• Student's position</li> </ul>
7. Student experience whilst completing the DBA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dubious value of MBA to DBA study</li> <li>• Issues around lack of relevance to workplace</li> <li>• Issues around part-time delivery</li> <li>• Issues around student lack of comprehension of the depth required in doctoral study</li> <li>• Issues centred around the process</li> <li>• Issues centred around the skills gained while completing a DBA</li> <li>• Issues centred supervisory relationship</li> <li>• Personal nature of the DBA</li> </ul>
8. Student motivations for taking a DBA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Personal employment experience of student</li> <li>• Personal motivation for taking the</li> </ul>

	DBA
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### **6.2.1 Benefits of Taking the DBA**

The first superordinate theme, Benefits of Taking the DBA, was identified as an overarching theme that is constituted of the following master themes:

- Functional performance (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1)
- Professional development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2)
- Research skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3)
- Strategic communication skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4)
- Strategic perspectives (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5)

This theme's relevance to the research aim and objectives is central. Gaining a firm understanding of different perspectives of the perceived benefits of taking a DBA will indicate the possible impacts that a DBA can have upon an individual. Functional performance and personal development are not associated with the strategic characteristics identified, however, the remaining three master themes, research and strategic communication skills and strategic perspectives are clearly considered important to the development of strategists.

### **6.2.2 DBA Award Issues**

The superordinate theme, DBA Award Issues, was identified as an overarching theme that comprises the following master themes:

- Awareness issues (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1)
- Contribution to practice (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.2)
- Differentiation of DBA from PhD (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3)
- Parity with PhD (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4)

DBA awareness issues incorporate respondents' views on problems with the DBA qualification. Key questions revolve around the awareness in both the academic

and wider business community of the award and its contribution to business practices. In conjunction with the issues of awareness of the award and its title, questions around the delineation and equivalence of the DBA from the PhD are highlighted. This superordinate theme, although seemingly quite peripheral to the research aim and objectives, allows a possible negative critical appreciation of the impact of DBAs on strategists.

### ***6.2.3 DBA's Supportive Structure***

This superordinate theme, DBA's Supportive Structure, was identified as an overarching theme that comprises the following master themes:

- Delivery structures (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1)
- Staff support (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2)
- The structure of the DBA allows personal development of competencies (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3)
- The structure of the DBA encourages and embraces criticality (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.4)

The supportive structure of the variety of DBA programmes reviewed in this study was a superordinate theme with a wide variety of master and emergent themes. A key feature of the DBA is the level of support given to doctoral student learning and progress. This ranges from the structured approach adopted by many DBA programmes to the staff support. Considering the structures that have developed around the delivery of DBAs is congruent with the research aim and objectives as it allows a more holistic perspective of a DBA student's learning path and how the journey might impact their development as a strategist.

### ***6.2.4 Institutional Issues with the DBA***

This superordinate theme, Institutional Issues with the DBA, was identified as an overarching theme that comprises the following master themes:

- Institutional capacity (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1)

- Market issues (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2)

Institutional issues centre on factors relating to HE organisations offering DBAs. Institutional capacity refers to a range of factors influencing the ability of HE institutions to offer or service their DBA awards. Market issues relate to the external factors that might influence the DBA offering of HE institutions. Again, this theme might not be considered as central to the research aim and objectives, however, as will be discussed, the areas that emerged from the data have informed the discussion on the impact of the DBA on an individual from a strategic perspective. Again, some of the findings might not support an argument that the DBA does enable the development of strategists.

#### ***6.2.5 Institutional Rationale for Offering the DBA***

This superordinate theme, Institutional Rationale for offering the DBA, was identified as an overarching theme that comprises the following master themes:

- Faculty development reasons (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.1)
- Government influence (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.2)
- Market forces (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.3)
- Network reasons for development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.4)

This superordinate theme explores the motivations behind key stakeholders developing and offering the DBA. Understanding this issue in more depth, again, assists the investigation into the research aim and objectives, in that the different foci of stakeholders may influence the direction of development in DBAs and therefore programme impact on the development of strategists.

#### ***6.2.6 Student Characteristics***

This superordinate theme, Student Characteristics, was identified as an overarching theme that comprises the following master themes:

- Student's attitude (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.1)

- Student's experience (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.2)
- Student's position (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.3)

In terms of the research question, identifying the characteristics of students taking the DBA is important as this may provide some indications as to the student motivations, strategic or otherwise, for taking a DBA. These have been classified around the themes of the student's attitude, experience and position in their organisation or industry.

### ***6.2.7 Student Experience Whilst Completing the DBA***

This superordinate theme, Student Experience Whilst Completing the DBA, was identified as an overarching theme that comprises the following master themes:

- Dubious value of MBA to DBA study (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.1)
- Issues around lack of relevance to workplace (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.2)
- Issues around part-time delivery (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.3)
- Issues around student lack of comprehension of the depth required in doctoral study (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.4)
- Issues centred around the process (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5)
- Issues centred around the skills gained while completing a DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6)
- Issues centred supervisory relationship (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.7)
- Personal nature of the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.8)

There are a range of issues that emerged from the data in respect of the student experience beyond questions that were raised about the provenance of the DBA as an award. The value of the MBA to the DBA, often regarded as a precursor award to taking the DBA, is questioned. Assumptions regarding the relevance of



the DBA to the workplace have been raised by respondents. Other emergent themes raised by interviewees included issues around: part-time delivery; lack of student understanding of the depth of study required at doctoral level; process of study; skills gained; supervisory relationship; and the personal nature of the DBA.

The superordinate theme is central to the research question and objectives and complements the first superordinate theme, the Benefits of Taking a DBA. The emergent themes assist in understanding how DBA students learn (or not) whilst undertaking a DBA. The strategic aspects of this theme will be discussed later in this chapter.

### ***6.2.8 Student Motivations for Taking a DBA***

This superordinate theme, Student Motivations for Taking a DBA, was identified as an overarching theme that comprises the following master themes:

- Personal employment experience of student (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.1)
- Personal motivation for taking the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2)

This superordinate theme centres on the personal motivations of the student. Within this master theme there are a range of emergent themes that highlight the wide variety of reasons why students undertake a DBA. Some rationale are instrumental, others are more altruistic.

Several of the emergent themes that featured in an earlier superordinate theme, Benefits of Taking the DBA (1) and Student Experience Whilst Completing the DBA (7), will be included within this superordinate theme. It should be noted, however, that this superordinate focuses on the motivations for students taking a DBA. That is the reasons why they made a decision to take a DBA, rather than the benefits they have discovered while taking the programme.

Gaining an appreciation of why students undertake a DBA will explicitly or implicitly explore the research aim. As will be discussed and has already been identified in the literature, the notion that the DBA assists in developing a strategists has not been explicitly identified, but the narrative from respondents suggests that this is a lacunae in our understanding of DBAs.

What now follows is a discussion based around the eight superordinate themes and the research aim and six research objectives. The discussion incorporates extant literature with the research findings and analysis.

### 6.3 Discussion

The following discussion is based on the six research objectives around the research aim utilising the inductive analysis of the interviewee responses outlined above. The central question that this thesis explores is:

“How can DBAs contribute to the development of strategists?”

Research objectives emerged from the literature around the central research question. These objectives require critical empirical examination in order to inform a coherent discussion. These research objectives are:

1. How the institutional rationale for the development of DBAs might impact the development of strategists?
2. How the motivations of individuals undertaking a DBA might impact the development of strategists?
3. How the different forms of DBAs might impact the development of strategists?
4. How the approaches to teaching and learning on DBA programmes might impact the development of strategists?
5. What is the impact of DBAs on the students studying them from the perspective of developing strategists?
6. How the future development of the DBA might impact the development of strategists taking the programme?

The discussion builds upon the extant literature reviewed in earlier sections and the emergent research findings. The study’s superordinate, major and emergent themes are compared with the research objectives and where a relationship (positive or negative) is identified it is signified by shading in the table (See Appendix E - Summary Table). This discussion will focus on these relationships and the salient established theory.

### ***6.3.1 How the Institutional Rationale for the Development of DBAs Might Impact the Development of Strategists?***

There are a range of reasons for institutions offering the DBA. It is important to understand this aspect of DBA provision to gain insights into the focus of institutions when they design and deliver the DBA. The key question to ask is whether institutions were cognisant that the DBA could contribute to the development of strategists? To comprehend this question motivations of key stakeholders have to be garnered. Respondents were either drawn from some of the key institution constituencies that form the stakeholder base in institutions or individuals who have intimate knowledge of the motivations of the main stakeholders and thus provide a wide range and informed range of perspectives on this matter.

The research points to both internal and external factors that have contributed to the decisions of organisations to establish DBAs. The importance of HE institutions offering a range of higher awards is highlighted, as well as the governmental and market forces that have driven much of the development of DBAs. The following areas were identified in the literature and by respondents and are explored further: key stakeholder pressure; links to the MBA; revenue; and development of faculty.

#### ***12.3.1.1 Key Stakeholder Pressure***

The growth of the number of DBA programmes is an amalgam of several factors. Noble (1994) and others (Dent 2002; Scott et al. 2004) argue that traditional PhDs are not suitable for the demands of today's knowledge based, rapidly changing, market-driven economies. Dissatisfaction with the status quo, particularly in a period of significant changes in the way societies and economies utilise a key resource, knowledge, is a driver for the development of DBAs. Several points highlighted by Noble are supported by findings from the study, in particular the appropriateness of PhDs to developing workplace solutions. A key institutional driver for the development of DBAs has been increasing government influence or

interest with other stakeholders in postgraduate and doctoral education in the UK. This is evidenced in a number of high profile reports from Robbins (1963) to Roberts (2002) and was emphasized by a number of staff and agency respondents. The narrative from government has been the requirement for HE institutions to increase engagement with practice. The DBA is a visible manifestation of this demand. Both an agency-staff respondent and a staff-student interviewee identified the calls by government for increased engagement of universities with practice (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.2.1: ASA1; SSA3). In particular government has seen the need for research agendas in HE in the UK to match, more appropriately, the needs of industry. A staff member referred to the Roberts Report in 2002 that called for more structure in the delivery of doctoral education to increase completion rates and also to improve the quality of research training as a reason for the development of DBAs (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.2.2: StaffA4).

Clearly articulated in QAA (2008) and ABS (2005) guidelines and by respondents is the point that DBAs should contribute to practice. Fundamental to the experience of completing a doctorate is the ability of an individual to produce and communicate original knowledge. What constitutes new or original knowledge is a contentious area. In terms of a DBA, it is a contribution to practice (business) that has been identified as the defining element that distinguishes a DBA from other forms of doctorate (Association of Business Schools 2005; Association of MBAs 2007). Respondents from all categories supported this understanding. StaffA suggested, "... we're looking for a contribution to practice rather than necessarily a contribution to theory." (p.1) StaffC also stated, "Your PhDs are your professional researcher, and your practitioner doctorates are your researching professionals." (p.6) Importantly, in terms of the focus of this research, respondents identified that DBAs contribute to both reflection on practice and also on their professions. This has important implications for the development of strategists. This study has defined a strategist as a strategic thinker and communicator. It is argued here that the DBA, to some extent, addresses criticisms by both Whipp (1996) and Pettigrew et al. (2002) that strategic

managers spend too little time reflecting on their and others' actions. To be a strategic thinker and, perhaps, a communicator as well, the ability to be able to reflect on events and to be reflexive are required (Schön 1983; Daley 1999; Greiner et al. 2003; Scott et al. 2004). As Costley and Lester (2010) observed, reflection and particularly reflexive thought at the doctoral level can inform the conceptual frames that influence the strategic decision-making and actions of individuals.

### ***12.3.1.2 Links to the MBA***

The emergence of the DBA has been associated with the MBA (Kay 1995; Bourner et al. 2000; O'Neill and McMullen 2003; Scott et al. 2004; Association of Business Schools 2005) and this relationship was identified by a number of respondents (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6). In an age of the growth of postgraduate education and life-long learning, many assume that a MBA is a precursor or even pre-requisite qualification for a DBA. As ASA stated, “Well, I’ve finished my MBA, now what on earth do I do next? I’ve got to go on and I can go on.” (p.4) Both qualifications are recognised as stages in professional development and therefore perhaps the development of a strategist. It has been identified for some time that the MBA is viewed by many as an elite academic qualification with business-currency (Arnot 2006; Kleiman and Kass 2007).

Several respondents identified drivers for institutions developing DBA programmes in what have been classified (Scott et al. 2004) as a portfolio approach to management education in HE organisations. Portfolio refers to the range of management courses available to individuals and is to the trend towards professional development and life-long learning. StaffE4 believed that DBAs are required for the portfolio of a university (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.5.4), alongside MBAs. StaffF2 recognised the need for a strong doctoral programme in a faculty’s portfolio (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.1.6). Doctoral awards are an obvious way of exhibiting this type of output.

StuA believed that participants' organisational role and MBA and DBA are complementary (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6.7). They stated, “I've been moving up the ladder in [XXXX] and the MBA and DBA at weekends so they've complemented one another very nicely.” (p.1). A theme that emerged is the MBA as a stage in personal professional development, like the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6.9: StuA1; StuA2; StuA3; StaffF3; SSB3). StuA stated,

*“I see the MBA as a marker point today I have got to that level of education where as the DBA is a much more all about the thesis that you're doing and the relevance of that topic to your working life.” (p.3)*

Alongside this appreciation of MBAs, qualifications like the MBA are closely associated with the 'training' of strategists and business leaders (Bernard 1987; Feldman 2005; Wilson and Galloway 2006; Kleiman and Kass 2007). A number of staff and students (StuA2; StaffF3; StaffD14; StaffA2; StuC3; StaffC4) supported the view that there is a link between a DBA and a MBA, where the DBA complements the MBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.5.1). For a variety of reasons the DBA was seen to complement the MBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6: StuA2; StaffF3; StaffD14; StaffA2; StuC3; StaffC4). The complementary nature of the relationship between the two awards was a recurring theme from a range of emergent perspectives from all categories of respondents. Several respondents believed that DBA students normally have an MBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6.2: ASA3; SSC4; StaffB5) and the MBA is a feeder award (after more experience) to the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6.10: StaffF3; StaffD14; StaffA1; SSA4). The Association of MBAs (2005) actually state this relationship. Only one institution, however, has explicitly linked the DBA and MBA awards where the MBA allows for an accelerated DBA (Four years instead of six) (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6.6: StaffC7). This is somewhat surprising, but may be indicative of a less than clear-cut relationship assumed by many between the two types of programme. As

will be discussed later, the development of some DBA programmes has been as the result of a view by some that the DBA will be the cash-cow that the MBA has proved to be for many institutions.

Government and other stakeholders have not explicitly identified the association with doctoral education and the development of strategists. This is hardly surprising as academia and business have also, to date, failed to associate professional doctorates with the development of strategic thinkers. An agency-staff respondent, ASA3, believed that institutions in fact do not identify the link between the DBA and MBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.5.3). ASA3 stated,

*“I think schools currently don’t see the MBA as a route to the DBA. The MBA continues to be very much a management practice, effectively, orientated degree. It’s not an academic degree that is part of the process of moving towards Doctorate studies.”* (p.3).

The value of the MBA to doctoral study was questioned by several respondents. StaffF stated,

*“There is also the potential that very good MBA students come and they think, well, what are they going to do is their MBA but just a bit bigger? So there’s quite got a culture shock about just how difficult a DBA actually is.”* (p.3)

Another member of staff said, “You can’t churn it like you can churn a MBA.” (Staff C, p.8) Scott et al. (2004) establish quite a clear differential between the two qualifications, “Whilst an MBA reproduces management knowledge, which is acquired by course participants, the DBA produces management knowledge.” (p.78). Mintzberg’s criticisms of the MBA are well documented (2004). Members of staff, and a student (StuA3; StaffF3; StaffC7; StaffC8), all from different institutions, perhaps supporting Mintzberg’s scepticism of the impact of



MBA students upon individuals, believed that the MBA provides an overview but is superficial (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.6.4). StuA stated, “... you only really get a glimmer of a hint of the total topic.” (p.3) Although the MBA might introduce individuals to the idea of higher learning and research, perhaps the difference between the two levels of education is not fully understood. This has implications for student recruitment and also for the development of strategic skills. Although respondents and literature link the DBA and the MBA, this association needs to be considered in more depth. The MBA, if nothing else, has successfully engaged business practitioners with HE (Gardiner and Lacy 2001; Pinard and Allio 2005). The DBA could act in the same way, as a conduit, to engage strategists with academia at the highest level – in the production of new knowledge and theory. A question is whether the MBA and DBA emerge as stand-alone programmes, or the MBA is seen as the pre-requisite for the DBA. This research, to an extent, supports the view that there might be a link between the MBA and DBA, but the notion that there is a continuum in the development of a strategist has not been explicitly recognised or explored.

#### ***12.3.1.3 Revenue***

As well as governmental pressure, the market, in its broadest sense, has had an influence on institutions in the development of DBAs and conceivably on the impact on the development of strategists. It was widely recognised that certain elements in HEIs, perhaps rather naively, believe that DBAs are potential providers of revenue (Neumann and Goldstein 2002). Possibly, this belief was informed by the financial success of masters’ programmes such as the MBA. Also, the massification of HE has increased financial dependence on the state. There appears to be a dissonance between the conception and reality in terms of recruitment and fees. The major theme, ‘market forces’ refers to commercial rationale (external to institutional pressures) that exist for the individuals taking DBAs. StaffF2 recognised the demand from people to do a business related doctorate (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.3.1) as part of the continuing social, economic and educational trend for life-long learning. StaffA13 believed

that internationalisation (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.3.3) is a market force that is driving developments in DBA programme evolution. Respondents reported that a higher percentage of international students and staff are taking DBAs than was originally envisaged. Also, respondents believed that participants were at lower levels of seniority than was expected. Again, there is a lack of statistics to support these claims, but respondents felt these were issues in terms of the markets that the DBA might serve.

Whether DBAs are the product of market forces or have evolved in response to the demands of business, the state and individuals is arguable. In terms of the development of doctoral education, however, the market, in whatever guise it takes, has been a force for change in higher educational generally and doctoral education specifically. Strategists, either explicitly or not, comprise part of stakeholder groupings that influence market forces. Many business leaders, in companies, some located in academia and others in government look to HE to produce the new knowledge that will drive their organisations and industries forward.

Institutional rationale for the development of DBAs appear to be quite instrumental, for example revenue via brand extension from the MBA. Key stakeholders, most notably government are attempting to make HEIs engage with businesses and practitioners in a more meaningful way to bridge the relevance gap and contribute to the societies that fund the HEIs. The DBA is a programme of study that has attempted to do address this apparent failure of HE, however, this study indicates that the link between doctorates and the development of strategists is not an explicit one.

#### ***12.3.1.4 Development of Faculty***

The impetus for universities to engage with business people, for whatever reason, via the DBA, should be considered in terms of the impact it might have upon the development of strategists. It should be remembered that, as well as training

business and public sector elites (Scott et al. 2004) and producing knowledge, universities also train researchers and lecturers through doctoral programmes (Bareham et al. 2000; See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.1). Business schools, through the DBA, can develop faculty with business experience. Palmer (2002) and Maxwell (2008) identified an institutional rationale for the development of a DBA programme is engagement with business, this was supported by respondents (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.2 & 5.4). A number of staff identified a key reason for offering a DBA programme is to develop faculty research and other faculty capacity (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.1.1: StaffC13; StaffE8; SSC3; 5.1.4: StaffF2; StaffC10). Associated with this, StaffF2 and ASA1 believed that DBAs allow staff contact with businesses (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.1.8) and maintaining a focus on developing practice (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.1.3: StaffA15; ASA1). The applied nature of post 1992 institutions can be identified as important in this respect, as they will be more inclined and perhaps better suited to delivering programmes for professionals than more traditional research-based organisations. The relationship between staff, supervisors, tutors, mentor, etc. and the student should not be under-estimated. Two of the institutions visited during this study actually structure their DBA courses around support offered in the form of coaching and mentoring of participants.

A major problem facing HE in the UK, along with many other developed economies, is the lack of individuals electing to join academia and become members of faculty. The growth in undergraduate and post-graduate in HE in the UK in the past fifty years has been exponential (Universities UK 2007; Ramsden and Brown 2008; Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010). Part of the institutional rationale for the development of DBAs is to use the award as a vehicle to increase the number of those entering HE from business as members of faculty. As this research has indicated, however, the increase in doctorates being undertaken has caused severe supply-side shortages in terms of supervisory capacity as there is a time lag between qualification and being able to supervise (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1). This issue is exacerbated as many of

those qualifying with doctorates in the past twelve years have been international students (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2010) who return to their home countries after qualification. A concern within the sector that there is a lack of UK students choosing doctorates (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.6), is a motivator for faculty developing DBAs – to increase the numbers involved in doctoral research (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.1.5: ASA1). The issue of institutional capacity for institutions to deliver the DBA was most apparent around the question of supervisory capacity. StaffA14 questioned the ability to deliver DBAs with the available number of supervisors (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1.2: StaffA14). In particular, this respondent highlighted supervisory capacity issues based on the available number of supervisors in specialist areas (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1.3: StaffA14) supporting the observations by Vilkinas (2002), The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (‘AACSB’ - Doctoral Faculty Commission 2003) and Hunt and Weintraub (2004). Linked to this point, in the context of DBAs, StuC5 believed that academic staff lacked industrial knowledge (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1.1). This is a particular issue where the starting point of a DBA is a business issue identified by the student (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1.5: StaffC5). The lack of supervisory capacity might be mitigated against, or exacerbated where scholarship may cross more than one theme or discipline, more than one discipline or function (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1.7: StaffC5). A capacity issue identified by one staff-student was that DBA proposals are often less detailed at the outset of the course (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.1.4: SSA13) that may result in additional supervisory resource as research proposals are developed.

The involvement of faculty or potential faculty as students on DBAs is a debateable area. It might be assumed that these individuals could not be strategists. There is a converse argument that these individuals may well, due to either their commercial backgrounds or research, engage more effectively at a strategic level than their counter-parts without DBAs, fulfilling the government’s intention for academia to increase its engagement with industry. Many may well

contribute to the strategic progress of their institutions or students and therefore faculty's education is an important factor in their development. Having staff with the appropriate skills and experience is important if individuals are to advise strategists on trying to understand the complexity of strategy and strategic management.

### ***6.3.2 How the Motivations of Individuals Undertaking a DBA Might Impact the Development of Strategists?***

The motivation for individuals taking a DBA is a complex area (Scott et al. 2004). The literatures on professional doctorates and DBAs examining the detailed motivations for individuals taking doctorates is limited. This reflects the immaturity of the research in the area. Supporting Scott et al's. (2004) findings, this research indicates that the rationale for individuals committing themselves to a DBA are mixed and multi-faceted. The motivations range from personal development to instrumentalism. The research demonstrates that it is questionable whether many of those involved in DBA programmes, as staff, agency or students have considered the DBA in terms of developing strategists. An agency respondent (ASA4), however, views the DBA as a means for individuals developing not only their own strategic capabilities, but also organisations' strategic capability.

It is apparent that motivations for taking a DBA can be grounded in the intellectual challenge and personal satisfaction gained from study and learning (Scott et al. 2004). SSA8 identified personal development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.24) as a key motivator. StuB2's manager made them take the DBA for personal development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.19: StuB2). Personal development is something of a catch-all term. Sometimes, as StaffC8 indicated, the incentive to take a DBA is boredom with a current role (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.5: StaffC8). Specifically, at the strategic level, ASA and StuB believed that drivers for an individual wanting to take a DBA was a desire to improve their strategic capabilities (See Appendix E – Summary Table:

8.2.38: ASA4) and to be ambitious to be in strategic roles (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.3: StuB3).

(Scott et al's. (2004) classification of motivations of those taking a DBA are all exhibited in interviewee responses. These motivations include: Type 1, extrinsic-professional initiation; Type 2, extrinsic-professional continuation; and, Type 3, intrinsic-personal/ professional affirmation. Several personal motivations that stand out in relation to the central research question were identified. The attitude of students, their personal and organisational experiences all have an influence on an individual's decision to take a DBA. StaffC21 proposed that some people have the propensity towards strategy (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.1.2), which could either be classified as an attitudinal attribute or a capability. The following areas were identified in the literature and by respondents as motivations for taking a DBA: career development; curiosity for curiosity's sake; instrumentalism; and, alternative motivations.

#### ***12.3.2.1 Career Development***

Several staff and students clearly regarded the DBA as a method for career development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2). Two respondents identified the DBA as a professional managerial qualification (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.2). In particular, the DBA is identified as a means for professionals to enter into consultancy perhaps within their organisation as a change agent, where the badge that the DBA offers can provide additional credibility and, potentially, skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2). Regarding this, Jongeling (1999) identifies that senior managers aspiring to improve their skill set should be participants in professional doctorates. In all DBA programmes studied by Bourner et al. (2000), Bourner et al's (2001) and Scott et al. (2004) participants were expected to be senior practitioners. The evidence from this study suggests that this might not be the case on all DBA programmes. This might be of concern, as the development of strategy is often linked to seniority. Clearly, to implement strategy, individuals will either have to

be in leading positions in organisations, or, at least have access to those types of people (Pettigrew 1992; Bonn 2001; Ackroyd 2002; Pettigrew et al. 2002). In relation to a student's position in an organisation a number of respondents identified the importance of relative position in an organisation to access data (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.3.1: StaffF4; AA2; SSC3; StaffB6). AA2 believed that DBA students required support from their company (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.3.3: AA2). Importantly, in terms of this research a wide range of interviewees believed that DBA students needed to be senior managers (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.3.2: StuA1; StaffF4; StaffD14; SSC2; SSC3; StaffB5; AA1; StaffC6; SSC3; StuC1; StuC2), supporting a perspective within the extant literature. Student StuB3 also recognised an incentive to undertake high-level research because they had worked in strategic positions (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.1.2).

In terms of a student's experience, it was recognised by several respondents that DBA students tended to be older having considerable organisational knowledge and understanding (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.2). Bransford et al. (2003) argue that mental models of people are most affected by education, experience, which will impact their strategic understanding. Two respondents identified long-term experience of management (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.2.1: StuA1; StaffF4) as a characteristic of a DBA student. Linked to this emergent theme SSA highlighted that DBA students must have significant work experience (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.2.2: SSA5; SSA10). SSA stated, "... there must be some experience, because otherwise it's not a DBA really, 'cause you can't draw on your practice." (p.7). AA2 qualified the student's experience by proposing that a DBA student is someone with real managerial experience (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.2.5). It is difficult to define what AA meant by the term 'real', but perhaps they meant significant. Staff/student (SSC3) actually quantified a student's experience in terms of their age, describing them as often 'older' (early 40s, late 30s) (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 6.2.4). In practice, however, on some DBA programmes, the age of students recruited is somewhat lower than expected. In terms of developing

strategic capability, work experience is important in comprehending complex situations, contexts and organisational decision-making.

One respondent felt that senior managers will already have many of the strategic skills that a DBA could introduce. For example, the ability to critically reflect on issues is a key strategic role, but it could be argued that senior managers, if in strategic roles, should possess this ability. As Jongeling (1999) details, however, professional doctorates should address the need for advanced training, for linking theory and practice, and problem-based research. It is questionable whether senior managers have the necessary skills, particularly the knowledge, to combine theory and practice.

#### ***12.3.2.2 Curiosity for Curiosity's Sake***

A number of respondents agreed with Green and Powell (2005) that the DBA is not doctoral study that could be described as, "... curiosity-driven work in its own right and for its own sake ..." (p.49) There is an expectation that DBAs should provide high-level training within a professional context. This has resonance with writers such as Green and Powell (2005) and Jongeling (1999) who assert that doctoral education should be located in practice. StuB3 gave a motivation for their desire to study as a product of working in both public and private sectors (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.1.1). A number of respondents simply saw a key motivator as the enjoyment of study - 'educational enthusiasts' (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.17: StuB2; StaffF7; StaffA8; StaffC8; ASA4; StuC3).

Whether curiosity could be considered as a characteristic of a strategists is an interesting notion. Creativity has been clearly identified as characteristics of a strategists (For example see Bates and Dillard Jr. 1993; Mintzberg 1994a; Bonn 2001; Graetz 2002; Andriopoulos 2003; O'Shannassy 2003; Walton 2004). Curiosity could be linked with the notion of creativity. Is a strategist a curious person?



### 12.3.2.3 Instrumentalism

Some students have purely instrumental motivation for taking a DBA, others are more altruistic (Scott et al. 2004). The more instrumental individuals will take a DBA for the credential, the badge (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.12). This was identified by a number of respondents (StuB4; StuB9; StaffF8; StaffA7; SSB3; StuC3). StuC stated, “I knew all my life that I would do, particularly when I went to University that I wanted to become a doctor.” (p.3) The massification of higher education (Henkel and Little 1999; Maxwell and Shanahan 2001) and wider access to universities that offer doctoral programmes such as the DBA has undoubtedly contributed to credentialism. The doctorate as the ‘gold standard’ in HE (Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001) attracts some students to the DBA. An instrumental stimulus identified by a range of respondents was a desire for academic credibility. They were impressed by academic title/ reputation (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.13: StuB2; StuB5; StuB9; StuB10; StaffF8; StaffA7; ASA3; SSB3; SSC5; StaffB4). ASA10 couched this in the desire of an individual student to gain equality in terms of qualification (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.33: ASA10).

SSA8 commented, often, the students are not clear why they are taking a DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.22: SSA8). As Scott et al (2004) observed some of the motivation for students embarking on a course of study leading to a DBA is highly instrumental and designed to advance their careers. Both staff-student respondents highlighted the instrumental (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.18: SSA9; SSB3) nature of personal motivation. That is a drive to obtain some concrete personal goals. StaffD stated,

*“I think very often they’re either terribly instrumental people who just want to solve the management problem and they could lose interest in esoteric ideas, or they’re people who discover the world of ideas. ... With many DBAs is they suddenly discover this magical world out there ...”* (p.11).

A student respondent identified the desire to move into a strategic role as a motivation beginning the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.3). This could be considered as a highly instrumental incentive for taking the DBA. Alternatively, because of the nature of strategy and strategists this could be considered more around the intellectual challenges that a professional doctorate in business administration offers.

Linked to other instrumental impetus career progression (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.7) was identified as a motivator for DBA students by a number of staff and a student (StaffF8; StaffA7; StaffE2; StaffB5; StuC4). StuA commented, “I saw that [the DBA] as a great next step (p.3). Alongside this stimulus, StuA1 believed that networking with other people (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.20) motivated student participation in DBA programmes. StaffF8 saw those taking the DBA as a stage or element in their portfolio career development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.25: StaffF8). Several staff and students recognised that taking a DBA presented the possibility of a career change (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.6: StaffF8; StaffA7; SSA8; SSC4). SSC stated, “... the DBA is often used by people who want to take stock or change direction.” (p.4)

Another instrumental driver for taking the DBA was to become a consultant (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.30: StaffF8; SSA8; StaffE2; SSC3) or internal consultants (Change agents) (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.32: ASA4). StaffC10, SSA8 and StaffE2 viewed the DBA as a qualification that consultants could use to increase their credibility (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.11). This supports the findings of Bareham et al. (2000) who identified the desire to become a consultant as a feature of those taking the DBA. Alternatively, as suggested by Ivory et al (2007), a number of staff, agency and students identified a motivator for taking the DBA is to become an academic (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.31: StaffC5; SSA9). StuA3 and StuB2 viewed the DBA as a professional qualification that leads to academic route (See Appendix E –

Summary Table: 8.2.26). A number of interviewees saw the DBA as a route to becoming an academic after leaving industry (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.4: StaffF8; StaffA7; AA3; SSC3). StaffA stated, they were “testing the water” (p.7) prior to making a decision whether they would leave commercial activity and become an academic.

Although, not recognised in the literature, there appears to be an expectation that the DBA should assist individuals develop what could be termed as a ‘strategic profile’. This encompasses both the skills gained that will assist individuals undertaking strategic tasks and offer people an award that might enhance their strategic credentials. Both aspects of DBAs are, as yet, unproven. Scott et al. (2004) belief that those taking the DBA are not motivated by extrinsic rewards, a ‘business credential’, but are stimulated by the intrinsic benefits that taking the qualification might bring is questionable. Some students just want the DBA qualification for the title (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2). Fundamental in terms of attracting students is the DBA’s ability to overcome issues of the market place awareness. Its parity in terms of its academic credibility with the PhD is paramount (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4). It is apparent that there is a lack of awareness amongst employers and students about what a DBA actually is and how it can contribute to either organisational or individual development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1). If DBAs cannot effectively recruit people who can and will make a strategic difference in organisations it may ultimately fail to achieve its ultimate purpose.

#### ***12.3.2.4 Alternative Motivations***

An alternative perspective other than instrumental motivators for taking the DBA was given by a number of interviewees, these presumed a more altruistic (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.2: SSA9) set of stimuli for gaining the award. This has resonance with Type 3 motivation as identified by Scott et al. (2004). StaffC8 identified some individuals who just wished to undertake the DBA and the high level research associated with the qualification to payback society (See

Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.23: StaffC8). StaffA stated, “...we have other people who are just generally disposed to personal study and improvement.” (p.7). Linked to this driver the enjoyment of research process (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.16: StuA1; StuB4; StuB8; ASA4) and valuing research (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.36: StuA1) were also identified as motivators. Again, several respondents linked the DBA to the next step from an MBA for ‘education junkies’ (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.21: StuB2; ASA4: SSC5). ASA stated, “Well, I’ve finished my MBA, now what on earth do I do next? I’ve got to go on and I can go on.” (p.4) StuB associated their desire to take the qualification to their early under-achievement [Academic] (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.15: StuB2; StuB4; StuB11). The same student also saw a change in personal circumstances (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.8: StuB2) and chance (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.9: StuB2; StuB3) as reasons for them attempting a DBA. StuA1 identified the physical accessibility and awareness of course (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.1) as reasons for them taking the programme of study.

StaffC10 believed that a driver for some students taking the DBA is to help their organisation (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.34). This was supported by ASA and SSA who identified the desire to improve organisational capability (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.37: ASA5) and to solve actual business problems (8.2.35: SSA9) as motivators for individuals to take the doctorate. The DBA was attractive to StuA because they identified themselves as very practical and business focussed (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.29: StuA3). StuA, “I think because I’m very practical and I wanted it to be very business related.” (p.3). The ability of the DBA to allow students to develop research skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.14: SSC2) and consultants to improve practice (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2.10) were also identified by respondents (StaffC10; SSC3) as motivators for adoption of the DBA by individuals.

Scott et al. (2004) identify three distinct types of motivations that could be loosely applied to participants, namely: Type 1, extrinsic-professional initiation; Type 2,

extrinsic-professional continuation; Type 3, intrinsic-personal/ professional affirmation. This study suggests that all three types drive individuals to take a DBA. Elements seem to attract those that wish to develop their strategic skills either implicitly or explicitly. Again, however, respondents did not clearly link the motivations of students to the development of strategists. The impact of the DBA on individuals will be discussed in depth later in this chapter

### ***6.3.3 How the Different Forms of DBAs Might Impact the Development of Strategists? How the Approaches to Teaching and Learning on DBA Programmes Might Impact the Development of Strategists?***

The next two research objectives, the different forms of DBAs and approaches to teaching and learning on DBA programmes, will be considered together as programme form often determines approaches to teaching and learning or visa versa. Even within seemingly similar structured DBAs, there are significant variations in the way students are taught and learn. In understanding how DBAs might impact upon the development of strategists, it is important to understand not only the forms of DBAs that have developed, but also how individuals acquire strategic skills, knowledge and understanding when taking a programme of study. This research does not aim to evaluate or review all teaching and learning methods being applied in UK DBAs. As previously detailed, nevertheless, the respondents are representative of an informed group that are cognisant, either as participants or observers, of many of the techniques utilised or being considered as part of the portfolio of delivery mechanisms on DBAs. This section examines: alternative forms of DBA; assessment; organisational structures; and, delivery patterns.

#### ***12.3.3.1 Alternative Forms of DBA***

Essentially the four main forms of DBA identified in this research are: Academic; thematic; Research; and Research and Subject (See Table 5: A Typology of

DBAs). It should be noted that these are not mutually exclusive. Academic DBAs are designed primarily to produce new faculty. This does not proscribe courses with this focus from offering the other forms of DBA. In fact, in the UK, it does not appear that there are any DBA programmes that are purely for existing or potential academic staff. Most courses, however, attract faculty or potential faculty. This is, however, rather an arbitrary classification based on delivery. The variety of assessment techniques being utilised by DBAs is evolving to meet the needs of industry and the professionals could be used to classify DBAs and will be discussed in the next part of this discussion. As yet, the DBA have not clearly identified themselves as programmes designed to develop strategists. Some of the forms of DBA that have been identified clearly have aligned themselves with either strategic issues or sectors, for example, Newcastle and Grenoble's knowledge, innovation and change focus and the Sustainable Development Research Centre DBA in Corporate Social Responsibility and Sustainability. All DBA courses studied in this research have targeted mainly UK part-time executives. The modes of delivery have been designed to allow busy executives to access the courses. The differential between thematic and research and subject DBAs can be a tenuous one. One respondent's institution, although claiming to offer quite a specific thematic DBA, on investigation, appears to offer quite a generalist programme with a few subject specialist areas added for marketing purposes. The focus of the DBA programme, can, however, as will be discussed impact the learning and development of strategists.

Unlike the MBA, at this time, a full-time DBA has not been developed. Although one respondent's institution claimed to offer a full-time DBA it was not clear if they had attracted any students on to the programme. A defining feature of a DBA is the work-place production of knowledge. It could be argued that this might preclude a full-time DBA. As SSA stated, "...there must be some experience, because otherwise it's not a DBA really ... because you can't draw on your practice." (p.7)

The DBA is similar but different from other more traditional forms of doctorates (Maxwell 2008). The HEFCE 2005 report on professional doctorates highlights differences across the UK in the provision of professional doctorate in course structures, learning methods, use of credit rating, ways of assessing, professional accreditation and use of titles. The European Universities Association (EUA) (2006) and QAA (2008) reports both recognise the increasing significance of professional doctorates. The nature of DBA programmes and how they have emerged to meet the influences described in this work is not clear.

This research observed that some DBAs have either taken the form of, or migrated towards, more traditional structures and assumed characteristics that Scott et al (2004) would describe as model 2 doctorates that have a looser approach to trans-disciplinary research and the knowledge produced is more vocationally appropriate and accessible. It is arguable whether DBAs have adopted the third model that Scott et al. (2004) identify, “servicing model” (p.21), where the notion of universalising truth is abandoned and is contextually specific. Individuals, of course, can take a contextually specific interpretivist epistemological approach (Guba and Lincoln 1994) to their research. None of the respondents, however, described their experience of DBA structure solely advocating this approach. All appeared to understand that DBAs contributed both to the development of theory and practice, with an emphasis on research grounded in the workplace (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1). An interesting debate is whether all DBA research should be action research. Action learning is a feature of many DBA programmes. This is important as a number of writers propose (Schön 1983; Daley 1999; Greiner et al. 2003) strategists (professional managers) make sense and learn from messy organisational situations through reflection. A DBA, particularly through action learning, is a vehicle for in-depth, strategic reflection (Maxwell 2008). Utilising an action learning approach, nevertheless, implies that the researcher will be involved in the actual change processes as an agent in an organisation. As discussed earlier in this work, a strategist might not actually be involved in the bringing about of change other than they will be the intellect behind the strategy/ies going forward. Even, without an action-based approach to

research, such as a meta-analysis, a DBA can still contribute significantly to improvements in our understanding of work-based activity. The form of assessment utilised is a determining factor in identifying different forms of DBA and, it is argued here, in the individuals' development.

### *12.3.3.2 Assessment*

In terms of teaching and learning, an alternative categorisation to the one identified in this work could be developed around assessment. Bourner et al. (2000) and Bareham et al's (2000) research found a range of assessment methods being developed or utilised on DBA programmes, including: traditional thesis only, self-reflexive and reflective documents, portfolios of research papers, etc. and this is reflected in this research. Even more innovative approaches to assessment, including report and video evidence are also being considered (Maxwell 2008). The approach to learning and teaching on a particular programme might result in a different educational experience and may assist in developing an individual's strategic skill set. Programmes that are tailored to specific groups, e.g. Sustainability or information technology, might aid knowledge development in specialist areas. Underpinning all DBAs and perhaps all doctoral education, however, are key research skills and knowledge that are generic.

The use of a thesis for any form of doctoral research can be problematic and this study found a number of issues that could be common to any doctorate, but perhaps, because of the nature of a DBA are more focus in a professional doctorate such as a DBA. As Denicolo and Park (2010) indicate, criteria of doctoral assessment have traditionally focused on the output (usually in the form of a thesis). This study has found that although DBA programmes have different forms of thesis, a number of issues emerged around the process of completing this key element of the award. Two members of staff (StaffF7; StaffD9) raised the issue of constraints of the word count for the thesis (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.4: StaffF7; StaffD9). Scott et al. (2004) found that often DBA thesis



were expected to be of a reduced size because of the use of other assessment mechanisms.

StuA2 had to convince their sponsor to give resources to complete thesis (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.5). Another student (StuB4) experienced a lack of capacity and/or willingness for an institution to take on a thesis topic (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.7). StaffA4 observed that students lose contact with supervisors when they are writing their thesis (7.5.19). They commented,

*“... but in six months their ideas have gone somewhere else and, you know, we have them coming to us saying, you have discovered this and the other and they’re getting high on learning, and the problem then is how do we bring them back down to earth.” (p.11)*

Although professional doctorates are have increasing relevance to the sector, the fixation with the thesis as the key element of assessment points to the inertia there is in higher education (Neumann 2005; Maxwell 2008; Scott et al. 2004; Denicolo and Park 2010). This is reflected in the conversations with respondents, where the vast majority viewed the thesis, normally with some form of oral defence, as a key component of any doctorate (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5). It could be argued that a thesis or significant piece of research (evidenced by a sizeable document) is a form of evidence of in-depth, perhaps, strategic reflection on a subject, however, different forms of DBA and their assessment have also emerged as institutions have developed their practice. The DBA, as discussed by Bourner et al. (2000) and others, has allowed HE institutions to be more creative in their approaches to doctoral education. It is clear that professional doctorates require different delivery and assessment structures. For example, a greater emphasis on part-time delivery than traditional doctorates lends itself to the development of portfolios of evidence, grounded in practice as a form of assessment. The use of assessment evidence such as video is contentious (Maxwell 2008). These sorts of innovative assessment tools should, however, be considered in an age where

evidence gathering and the practices that can be evidenced are more varied. This is particularly important in the context of the DBA where research and learning should take place in the workplace. For example, there is a potent argument that the practices of strategy should be studied at the micro-level because that is where strategy occurs (Whittington 1996; 2002). A range of assessment methods being developed or utilised on DBA programmes have been examined (Bareham et al. 2000; Bourner et al. 2000; Maxwell 2008). Their research has found that programmes use traditional thesis only, self-reflexive and reflective documents, portfolios of research papers, etc. An effective way to study, evidence and reflect on micro practices that underpin strategy and strategists might be through non-traditional means, such as portfolios of evidence and reflection. This builds upon writers such as Weick (1995) and Ocasio (1997) who highlight the importance of interpretation on strategic sense-making and action. Traditional educationalists, however, tend towards more the conventional, thesis-based approach to assessing doctorates (Neumann 2005; Maxwell 2008). This might be deemed rather short-sighted if you consider the methods for doctoral examination in a subject like music, where the assessment of competence and contribution might be a musical score. Confirmation of the conservatism that exists in the sector is evidenced at a EUA seminar held in Nice, December 2006 (in preparation for the May 2007 Bologna Ministerial meeting in London) the following is an extract of the final draft conclusions of the seminar,

*“All awards described as Doctorates should (no matter what their type or form) be based on a core of processes and outcomes ... Core processes and outcomes should include the completion of an individual thesis (based upon an original contribution to knowledge or original application of knowledge) ...”* (European University Association 2006)

The new, innovative forms being adopted by DBA programmes are alien to this understanding. The form of many PhD programmes today resemble DBAs with taught and even assessed elements other than the final thesis. Again, this is making it difficult for individuals to clearly differentiate between doctorates.

Does this matter? It is argued in this work that this is of critical importance. PhDs have been designed for the development of potential faculty. DBAs are designed for the development of practice and the people in practice. Further, this work argues that DBAs have a specific contribution to the development of strategists. There is evidence from this study that the supportive delivery structures that have developed on DBA programmes encourages criticality (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.4). This is an essential skill for a strategist at any level in an organisation. There is also evidence that some staff and students recognise the same issues with DBA delivery as are faced by traditional PhD students. There are also some unique issues that staff encounter with DBA students, such as far greater instrumental and applied foci. An important feature in terms of the professional development of students was highlighted by a member of staff who had previously also been a DBA student (SSA16). SSA16 suggested that the DBA allows students to critically appraise prescriptive models learnt on MBA courses (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.6). Again, this is a theme that will be addressed, in more depth, in later analysis. In terms of the professional development the point made by SSA16 is potentially a significant one in terms of the ability of an individual to critically appraise strategic theoretical constructs and frameworks. This is supported by the suggestion by ASA that the DBA promotes the development of objectivity in business decision making (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.10: ASA8; ASA16; ASA17).

There is evidence of an amount of inertia in the sector in terms of the assessment tools being utilised. The thesis does allow in-depth reflection, but it is arguable whether it is the most appropriate vehicle to develop the skills of a strategist in an organisational setting.

#### ***12.3.3.3 Delivery Patterns***

A feature of DBAs are their delivery patterns. Mostly, DBAs are offered in ways that are attractive to executives. This manifests in a number of ways. StaffC6 reported that their DBA is delivered in blocks (See Appendix E – Summary

Table: 3.1.2: StaffC6). 'Blocks' refers to concentrated periods of teaching that is normally designed to allow part-time delivery. An example of block delivery was given by two respondents (StaffD5; StuC3) from two different institutions who reported that some DBAs are solely delivered on weekends (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.3). The respondents' institutions that are regarded as focused on executive, part-time delivery. Both modular (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.1: ASA1) and non modular workshops tailored to management (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.2: StaffA3; StaffA4) were identified as programme structures that aid the development of personal competencies.

Only one institution examined in this study openly advertises the fact that the DBA might assist in speedier completion of a doctorate. The inference was that the taught and assessed elements that are a feature of this person's experience of DBAs, would allow a faster route to the qualification. A respondent from this well respected institution was, however, adamant that this did not result in an 'easier' doctorate, just that the process was more efficient and effective (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3). This supports the literature and the views by virtually all respondents that the DBA has parity with other forms of doctorate, particularly the PhD (Green and Powell 2005; Quality Assurance Agency 2008). For busy executives, this is an important teaching and learning issue. It can be envisaged, that those in, or aspiring to, strategic positions cannot afford the laboured approach that is a feature of many traditional doctoral approaches. Because of the relative novelty of professional doctorates such as the DBA, it will probably be some time before more innovative forms of assessment are accepted. Although, the sort of evidence suggested by writers such as Maxwell (2008), might be more appropriate to evidence the development of strategic skills and strategists.

#### ***12.3.3.4 Organisational Structures***

This research found that the variety of delivery structures, some which can be considered as innovative in terms of the delivery of doctoral programmes, are

important aspects in the motivation for individuals to take a DBA. This has resonance with Jongeling's (1999) findings that identified the innovative nature of DBA delivery and assessment. Factors such as formal 'taught' sessions, some of them thematic or based on generic research methods' training, were identified as supportive to learning (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1). This study supports the view that DBA provides can provide a flexible approach to studying organisational issues (Jongeling 1999; Scott et al. 2004) (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.17) and is a theme that emerged from a number of staff and students (StuA8; StaffF14; StaffD16; SSB7). SSB stated, "I think research is a process rather than a product; you never know what product you can get." (p.7). What is clear from our understanding of strategists is that they are not a product and perhaps they develop through a variety of processes.

An interesting feature and potentially significant issue in respect of the structures that have developed around the delivery of DBAs is that, in one institution, a staff member highlighted the fact that the DBA is administered from the research office (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.1: StaffC7). This is area that has received little attention in the literature to date. This maybe 'politically' significant in terms of the DBA's parity with other doctoral programmes. Building upon this, three members of staff from different institutions (StaffD2; StaffF4; StaffC11) commented on the either joint or linked PhD and DBA research methods training (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.5) in their institutions. StaffD2 highlighted the importance that their research methods training is ESRC recognised (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.11).

Student (StuA5) suggested that their experience of the DBA was that learning was student led, tutor supported (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.4). If a thesis is an essential element of a DBA programme, the supervisory relationship, in whatever form it takes, is critical. As indicated in this research (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5), some students may get lost in the excitement of research and need to be advised on the focus of their study. Invariably, students will suffer a loss of confidence in their abilities or the capability of the course to deliver what

they require. The supervisor will need a particular skill set and an amount of experience to deal with these issues. Whether that skills set will need to be different if the supervision is of a strategist examining a strategic issue is contentious. Some might argue that doctoral supervision skills are generic (Pearson and Brew 2002). More applied research, however, with students who are in senior positions examining strategic issues may require a supervisor with significant organisational and supervisory experience more akin to a mentor or coach (Vilkinas 2002; Hunt and Weintraub 2004). An interesting point made by one staff member was that staff are out-of-contract when delivering (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2.7: StaffF1) and therefore paid additional sums to their salary if they are employees of the institution. It is not clear if this is common on DBA programmes, but it raises some questions about staff engagement and reward mechanisms for staff, particularly at the doctoral level.

The structure of various DBA programmes was again seen as an important feature in the supportive nature of the DBA's learning experience for participants. Having a relevant and logical structure (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.9) was a theme that emerged from the comments of three interviewees (StuA6; StaffF4; StaffF5). More specifically, a number of respondents identified that having structured research methods classes (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.10: StaffC12; SSA12; SSA13; StaffB7) was a supportive feature of DBA programmes. The establishment of programme milestones (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.6) was identified as an important aspect of DBAs from respondents from two different institutions (StuA2; StaffF6; StaffE3). Associated with this aspect one institutional staff member (StaffC14) gave the example of the use of research projects (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.19) as a form of milestone. StaffC13 identified that the research focus emerges in the first stages of the programme (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.18: StaffC13 and ASA1). Two other features, support for students through monitoring (3.1.14: StaffA4) and non-assessed elements in early stages of programme (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.7: StaffF5) are examples of supportive structures found in DBA programmes. A number of staff and students identified that the structure

of the DBA aids a holistic integrative, strategic perspective (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.13: StuA5; SSB15; SSB16; StaffF5; StaffF6). This is an important emergent theme in the context of this study. This is not identified in the literature, but that is consistent with the lack of awareness of the DBA as a vehicle for the development of strategists.

Socialisation was also identified as a factor in the supportive structures found on DBA programmes. Socialisation structures include regular contact with staff and students aids retention (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.8: StuA3; StuA5; StaffF4). In addition students meeting outside class (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.15) was identified as a supportive mechanism by one member of staff (StaffD6). Socialisation has two important aspects for strategists. The first is common to all doctorates in terms of retention. Being part of a cohort will encourage engagement and completion. The DBA cohort structure allows socialisation which is a supportive element (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.16: StuA3; StuA5). StuA stated, “... having that group of colleagues going through the same process.” (p.3). It is not clear whether a restricted number of students per cohort (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.1.12: StaffF9) has a positive or negative impact on a socialisation process. It could be seen, however, as a positive feature, allowing a close community to develop. The problems of retention and completion on all doctoral programmes have already been highlighted (Higher Education Funding Council for England 2007; Brown and Cooke 2010) and the nature of support structures that have developed around DBA programmes described by respondents appear to aid recruitment and retention. At this time, however, meaningful data is not readily available on retention rates on DBAs.

The second aspect of socialisation, centred around the development of networks, is important for the development of strategists (Gibbons et al. 1994; Brennan 1999). One staff member, StaffD, however, made several illuminating comments about part time students. Some of the emergent themes that arose around the question of part time delivery were perhaps not surprising, such as lack of contact

with other students (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.3.3: StaffD5; StaffC14) and a lack of contact with other supervisors (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.3.4: StaffD5). StaffD5 also identified two other issues that are less apparent that part-time DBA students lack engagement with academic discourse (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.3.2) and that part-time students do not talk to fellow students outside of workshops (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.3.1). A staff/ student (SSB8) commented on poor completion rates (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.3.5) of part-time students.

The nature of the supervisory relationship is always an important one in any doctoral programme where a thesis is an element of the qualification. The importance of the closeness of the relationship (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2.2) was identified by StuC (StuC3; StuC4). An interesting feature of some DBA programmes is the early appointment of mentors and supervisory team (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2.4: StaffF5; StaffF7; SSA13; See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2.5: StaffF5; StaffF9; See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2.6: StaffC13). StaffF stated, “Based on that process, we then offer them a place and I match their research outline, their research guidance, with a member of staff, who is interested in that area and they meet in the first weekend.” (p.5) One staff member framed the relationship between the institution and the student as one of a duty of care (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2.9: StaffC13). The importance of allocation of supervisors that are specialists (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.2.8) was raised by two members of staff (StaffF5; StaffF9; StaffC13). It is questionable whether DBA supervisors or teaching staff need to have experience as practitioners and how the academic and non-academic experience of supervisors impacts the learning of students.

This section examines how the different forms of DBAs and the approaches to teaching and learning on DBA programmes might impact the development of strategists. The forms that have been identified, the assessment regimes applied, the organisational structures and delivery patterns appear to support the development of strategists, but, again, almost subconsciously and certainly not



explicitly. This research appears to support Maxwell's (2008) assertion that DBA has many similarities with traditional forms of doctorate, however DBAs tend towards Scott et al's (2004) model 2 doctoral structure. DBAs need to be located in practice, allowing reflection and reflexivity. The fixation with the traditional method of assessment (a weighty thesis) is an issue, although there appears to be some movement to perhaps more appropriate assessment methods. The structures that underpin executive learning, particularly, at this level need to be carefully thought-through. From the evidence presented there does not appear to be deliberate mechanisms in place to fully promote the development of strategic skills, knowledge and networks.

#### ***6.3.4 What is the Impact of DBAs on the Students Studying Them from the Perspective of Developing Strategists?***

This section examines the effects of a DBA programme of study upon individuals taking the course. The discussion will focus on the impact on the characteristics of a strategist identified from the literature and presented earlier in the review of the extant literature. The key characteristics identified are (Also see Table 1: Characteristics of a Strategist):

- Holistic thinking
- Clear Intent
- Vision for the future (long term view)
- Intuition
- Entrepreneurship (Divergent thinking)
- Break from previous patterns of behaviour
- Creativity
- Industry knowledge and expertise
- Analytical skills
- Ability to forecast
- Ability to influence change
- Manage the communication of culture
- Communication

- Stimulating strategic dialogue in an organisation
- Decision-making
- Cognitive ability
- Strategic thinking

In the following section each of the above characteristics shall be examined in terms of the research findings. Where appropriate some of the characteristics will be considered alongside other elements where it is discovered that there is significant crossover between the characteristics. A fundamental aspect of the DBA, its contribution to practice, is then discussed in terms of how strategic practice is impacted by an individual taking a DBA. In this section it has also been recognised that not all the effects of the DBA upon individuals are positive and therefore potential negative aspects of taking a DBA are also considered.

This work generally supports Noorderhaven's (1995) belief that cognitive abilities of individuals can be influenced by management education in a way that can enhance abilities required of a strategist. This belief is reinforced by writers such as Liedtka (1998), Doh (2003) and Sternberg (2003). This study does not purport to provide scientific evidence for support of this assertion, but respondents certainly indicate that the DBA has had an impact upon them as strategists. The following discussion will examine these effects in detail.

Both in terms of the forms and approaches to the delivery of the DBA a number of common themes were identified. As a staff-student respondent (SSC) stated, "The competencies we seek to develop are more I think we call them super competencies as they are more generic than general competencies." (p.4) Whether they merit the title, 'super competencies' is debateable, but the suggestion that the DBA, in all its guises, aids students, from whatever backgrounds, in the development of generic skills is an important one. It suggests that perhaps management and even strategists require some generic skills. Research on MBAs suggests that there are common skills either required or desired by managers (Dacko 2006). Strategists are often associated with

generalist abilities (Johnson et al. 2005) and the definition of a strategist adopted in this study tends towards this interpretation. It could be argued that there are generic skills that are required by strategists. For example, communication, decision-making and entrepreneurship are seen as fundamental strategic skills by several authors (For example: Eisenhardt et al. 1997; Bonn 2001; Hambrick and Pettigrew 2001). A number of interviewees identified a range of areas that could be considered under the classification of improving 'functional performance' as a result of an individual taking a DBA. These areas might not be immediately classified as strategic in importance. Cumulatively, however, they will have a long-term impact of organisational direction and outputs and outcomes. A number of respondents commented on the influence of the DBA on the aspects of their activity in the interviews. Perhaps, one of the most striking observations (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1.1) made by one of the students (StuA9) was, "What I think its done is made me a more responsible manager and a more involved manager." (p.9) Although, this was the only comment overtly of this nature, other areas that will be highlighted support a fundamental shift in individual thinking and perhaps behaviours brought about as a result of taking a DBA. There is an increasing body of literature, albeit outside mainstream strategy writing, that argues that this responsible management is a strategic issue (Jastram 2007). There has been some debate whether corporate social responsibility and ethics should be integral to MBA courses and it will be interesting to monitor if this discussion migrates into professional doctorates such as the DBA. In fact, there exists a Doctorate of Business Administration - Corporate Social Responsibility and Sustainability offered by the Sustainable Development Research Centre in Scotland.

This section examines: holistic thinking, clear intent and vision for the future (long term view); intuition; entrepreneurship (divergent thinking) alongside break from previous patterns of behaviour and creativity; industry knowledge and expertise; analytical skills, clear intent, and the ability to forecast; the ability to influence change; communication, stimulating strategic dialogue in an

organisation and management of the communication of culture; decision-making; cognitive ability and strategic thinking; and finally, contribution to practice.

#### ***12.3.4.1 Holistic Thinking; Clear Intent; and, Vision for the Future (Long Term View)***

It could be argued that to think holistically about organisational issues strategists need the ability to identify clear organisational intent and to develop a long term vision for their organisations (Prahalad and Hamel 1990; Liedtka 1997). Respondents recognised that the DBA can improve the ability to identify organisational intent (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.12). The structures and rigour of doctoral research can assist individuals in developing their views of the future and how organisations might develop. A number of respondents with a variety of experience of different DBA programmes believed that the structure of DBA programmes aids a holistic, integrative and strategic perspective (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.13; 3.1.13). This is important. Traditional doctoral programmes, such as PhDs, have been associated with focused and narrow study (Allen et al. 2002; Jump 2010). To an extent, it appears that DBAs have taken a more rounded approach to organisational understanding. This is required for strategic understanding, as strategy requires a holistic understanding of organisational development (Drucker 1954; Ohmae 1982; Steiner et al. 1983; Senge 1990; Kaufman 1991; Mintzberg 1994a; Singer 1996; Stacey 1996; Singer 1997; Liedtka 1998; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Hambrick and Fredrickson 2005; Johnson et al. 2005). The respondents who associated the DBA with developing a holistic perspective of organisational development appear to be associating the DBA with a key aspect of strategy and strategic management, the ability to deal with, or treating, the whole of something. Underpinning a holistic approach to organisational development is the theme identified by StuB13 and StaffD16, that the DBA improves the ability to identify organisational intent (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.12). Although very much drawn from one perspective of delivery of the DBA, ASA1 raised a related theme, that the DBA has allowed the development of a rounded appreciation of business problems through the use of

generic organisational modules (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.7). Specifically relating to the thesis component of DBAs, StuB10, SSB7 and StuC4 link this element to strategic issue/s (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.14). StuB commented, “I would like to do is actually change policy” (p.10). This is indicative of the level at which some respondents frame the thesis element of their studies – holistic and strategic.

#### ***12.3.4.2 Intuition***

Intuition has been identified by a number of authors as an important characteristic of strategists and the way that strategists make decisions (Clark and Mackaness 2001; Miller and Ireland 2005). It is not clear from this research that a DBA enhances intuitive capabilities, or indeed if any academic course could ever claim to achieve this talent or even to be able to measure objectively. Nevertheless, a range of respondents believed that the DBA develops critical thinking ability (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.9). The concept of intuition is an interesting notion and embedded deep in an individual’s psyche (Ohmae 1982). There is a link between criticality (a conscious activity) with intuition (the product of unconscious knowledge (Agor 1989)), where an individual will make decisions based on knowledge not specifically gathered for the purpose of making the decision (Weick 1995). The complexities of strategy and strategic management require mechanisms to make sense of situations and intuition is such a mechanism (Jenkins and Johnson 1997). It should be remembered that intuition does not occur in a vacuum. It is argued here that the DBA offers individuals additional knowledge and decision-making skills (see later Findings and Discussion in this section) that are used in intuitive operational and strategic decisions.

#### ***12.3.4.3 Entrepreneurship (Divergent Thinking); Break From Previous Patterns of Behaviour; and Creativity***

The development of entrepreneurial abilities was identified by writers as a characteristic of a strategist (Bhide 1994; Goldsmith 1996; Heracleous 1998;

Graetz 2002; O'Shannassy 2003). Closely linked with the notion of entrepreneurship the ability to break from previous patterns of behaviour is suggested, again by a number of authors, as a characteristic of a strategist (Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Kao 1997; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002). Creativity, also integral to entrepreneurship, is also identified in the extant literature as a key component of being a strategist (Bates and Dillard Jr. 1993; Mintzberg 1994a; Goldsmith 1996; Kao 1997; Liedtka 1997; Amabile 1998; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Bonn 2001; Graetz 2002; Andriopoulos 2003; O'Shannassy 2003; Walton 2004; Bonn 2005; De Wit and Meyer 2005).

Only one respondent, however, identified the development of entrepreneurial skills as feature of their DBA studies (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1.5; AA4). Programmes such as the MBA have been criticised by leading writers such as Mintzberg (2004) for stifling creativity. Cowen, in a similar vein describes as PhD as the "... bureaucratization of originality." The criticism that a programme such as a DBA stifles criticism has yet to be foisted upon the DBA and perhaps the very different nature of the MBA and DBA means that this will not occur. There appears to be an assumed link between the MBA and DBA suggested by writers (Bourner et al. 2000; Scott al. 2004) and the ABS DBA Guidelines (2005). In fact, this relationship is questioned by a number of respondents. StuA stated, "... you only really get a glimmer of a hint of the total topic [when taking a MBA]." (p.3) It is unclear from this study that the DBA, with its focus on practice, will avoid Cowen's criticism of PhDs, however, if it is taken that the basis of any doctorate is the creation of new knowledge, the context of DBAs should promote the important strategic skills of creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship.

An ability to take a critical view, it could be argued is important in creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship. Liedtka (1998), Mintzberg (1994a) and De Wit and Meyer (2005) among others, view the ability to think critically as the key skill or ability that a strategist requires. This is reinforced by some of the observations

of the interviewees who viewed the DBA as an aid to enable students to become reflexive and reflective practitioners and consider issues at a deeper level. StaffF states,

*“I think they’d [the students] have a better understanding of some of the processes that are being inactive in organisations because the same abilities to think about things on a deeper level.”* (pp.13-14)

It is argued in this work that reflexivity, in particular, is necessary in the development of a strategist. The ability of someone to reflect critically on their behaviour and, hopefully, to amend their actions in light of their reflexive perspective is essential for a strategist.

#### ***12.3.4.4 Industry Knowledge and Expertise***

Ohmae (1982) proposes that industry knowledge and expertise are required by strategists. Several respondents, perhaps surprisingly because of the lack of attention this aspect receives in the literature, believe that the DBA improves the ability to gather industry intelligence (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). This ability is enhanced with the application of a range of research skills learnt and practiced whilst taking a DBA programme. The thesis itself can provide a vehicle for focused study of strategic issues in a particular sector.

#### ***12.3.4.5 Analytical Skills; Clear Intent; and, the Ability to Forecast***

Perhaps, linked to the requirement for industry knowledge and expertise, writers such as Schwartz (1998) and Chung and McLarney (1999) believe that analytical and research skills are required to form a clear intent and long term vision writers. Strategic decisions are underpinned with an individual’s sense of the future, their ability to forecast (Schwartz 1998). Forecasting does not necessarily mean exact prediction, but at least an ability, through management reductionist techniques and

structured reasoning, to create a view of what the future of an organisation may look like when certain strategic actions are taken within particular environments. StaffD questioned, although recognising this as a potential of a DBA, whether it actually assists strategists develop forecasting skills. Other evidence collected in this study would suggest that these skills, albeit, indirectly, through critical reflection, are ameliorated by taking a DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1; 1.3; 1.5; 2.2).

Analytical skills are identified by a number of writers as a key skill required of a strategist (Bourgeois 1984; Bourgeois 1985; Pearce II et al. 1987; Dutton et al. 1989; Hitt and Tyler 1991; Clarke and Mackaness 2001; Johnson et al. 2005). A range of respondents believe that the DBA aids the development of basic strategic abilities of analytical and research skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3). These can be skills in terms of data assessing, collating or analysing. Without these abilities strategists would be unable to consciously or sub-consciously assess their environments or organisational capabilities. To an extent everyone possesses these skills, but the rigour that structured consideration of research approaches offers alternative and perhaps more informed perspectives. One staff-student, however, believed that undertaking a DBA can confuse issues (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.2.1: SSB16), “You could make a very simple thing become more complicated.” (SSB p.16) The staff-student did not define the issues, but it can be supposed that these might consist of both personal and organisational factors, such as the way one considers the world or the approach to a particular business problem. This has resonance with the points made around decision-making (See later discussion), however, strategy is rarely, if ever, simple and appreciating complexity might be a positive factor in both the ability to perform role or task systematically and make strategic decisions.

Research skills is a master theme identified within the benefits of a DBA. Perhaps, it should not be surprising that this theme emerged from the data. The set of emergent themes within this master theme demonstrate a diverse range of views on the impact of DBAs on individuals. AA4, ASA8 and SSC3 suggested



that the DBA improves general transferable research skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.9). This was supported by comments by ASA8 and SSC4 who believed that the DBA allows the development of research skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.1). Two students StuA3 and StuA4 believed that the DBA allows focused study (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.2) and two other respondents, SSC4 and SSC6, proposed that the DBA develops skills to allow informed decisions about research (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.5). Both these factors can be considered as improving the research skills of individuals. More specifically, a number of staff, students and an agency member (StuB7; StuB8; StuB9; StuB10; StuB11; StuB14; StaffD14; StaffD15; ASA1; SSC6; StuC6) proposed that the DBA allows appreciation of different research perspectives (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.1). This final point supports writers who propose that strategists need to skills that allows individuals to break from previous patterns of behaviour and development their entrepreneurial abilities (For example: Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Liedtka 1997; Heracleous 1998; O'Shannassy 2003; Bonn 2005; De Wit and Meyer 2005).

A number of staff and agency respondents believed that the DBA improves general transferable research skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3). This is important. Government and industry have called for academia to provide high-level programmes/courses that develop management skills that are appropriate across a range of sectors (See Harris 1996; Dearing 1997; Bourner et al. 2000; Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001; Roberts 2002; Economic and Social Research Council 2006; Maxwell 2008; Brown and Cooke 2010). The DBA is an award specifically focused on practice. The research skills that DBA students develop in the course of their studies should be appropriate for the workplace to inform both the development of theory about organisations and how they function, but also theory that emerges should be directly transferrable into practice across a range of sectors. The DBA allows focused study into organisational activity that would not be undertaken in normal circumstances.

Although the research found a variety of approaches to delivery of the DBA, the structures that exist enhance many of skills described above. The diversity of a DBA cohort encourages debate and learning. The DBA allows for ideas and theories to be critically appraised in constructive environments. Staff C states,

*“I think we’re looking for a cohort of people who are going to sit around the room and look at each other and say, “I’m going to learn a lot from the people I’m with on this programme.” And they are going to be comfortable sitting in a room with each other as students.”... “Yeah, these are people who I would talk to if we had to do business with ...”.* (p.21)

The analytical and research skills enhanced by the DBA improve the ability of the strategists to think critically about the fundamental issues facing their organisation over the long term. A strategist has to be able to take a different view of the world – as does a DBA student. Different perspectives would include exposure to contemporary aspects of business such as corporate social responsibility, which is seen as an increasingly important aspect of business (Matten et al. 2003) and personal development. Fundamental to questioning and criticality is the necessity for debate to be encouraged around theory (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.4.2: StuA6; StuB10; StaffC13; SSA19) StuA stated, “... the great chance of debating things with a whole different group of people to then see the different sides that people could view things to open up your mind so you weren’t always thinking as I do always think in the sales marketing way ...” (p.6) This is supported by StuB from the same institution as StuA who stated, “It’s [The DBA] made me think about it [the thesis topic] very hard, and I think, if anything, the viva was actually the best bit of the whole thing.” (p.10)

The introduction of research methods at the start of the programme (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.3: StuA5; StuA6; StaffF4; StaffD4; StaffA1) was identified by a number of staff and student respondents as a positive aspect of the DBA programme structures. Linked to this point, StuA5; StuA6; StaffF4; ASA5; SSB7; SSC2 felt that the structure of DBA allows development of research

competencies (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.4). SSC stated, “The competencies we seek to develop are more I think we call them super competencies as they are more generic than general competencies.” (p.4). Related to an earlier point, the use of non modular workshops in the development of research proposals and skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.10: StaffA2; SSC7) was seen as a structure that was supportive of the development of individual student research competencies as well as more general personal competencies. StaffA10 also indicated that students can attend additional (European Doctoral Programmes Association in Management and Business Administration) research workshops (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.6). The same staff member (StaffA10) also pointed to their programme’s student self-assessment audit at an early stage of the course, to identify areas for improvement (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.7) as a very useful supportive structure to develop personal competencies. Another significant issue for students at a later stage of their DBA was the use of additional meetings during the thesis writing stage (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.3.9) was given by StaffA4 as an example of another supportive mechanism on their DBA programme. The importance of elements in a DBA programme that aid a student in their understanding of how to conduct systematic reviews (3.3.11) was identified by StaffC12 and ASA5.

A number of staff and students believe that having structure and logic underpinning the DBA assists in the development of research skills. They could of course be drawn from a rationalist perspective. The over-riding view of respondents, staff, students and agencies, however, is that the structure and supportive mechanisms that have developed on DBA programmes aids learning and most importantly, the ability to complete. Institutional capacity, particularly in the delivery of thematic, specialised programmes is an important issue. It was felt by one staff member respondent that the DBA structure supported scholarship across a number of themes or disciplines. In terms of developing strategists, who require holistic appreciation of organisational issues, this could be a valuable arrangement. This is a theme that bore immediacy to a number of respondents

(See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). Particular aspects of the delivery of the DBA allowed personal competencies to be developed. Aspects, such as modular and non modular (assessed and non-assessed) taught elements, were identified by respondents as supportive elements within the structure of their DBA that allowed them to develop skills and competencies (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3). Several respondents believe that the structure of the DBA aids a holistic integrative, strategic perspective (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). This could be a result of a range of factors, such as structured research methods classes or the early appointment of mentors. As StaffE states,

*“Based on that process, we then offer them a place and I match their research outline, their research guidance, with a member of staff, who is interested in that area and they meet in the first weekend.” (p.5)*

Analytical skills, clear intent and the ability to forecast, it is argued here are underpinned by research skills. The DBA provides the essential skills to undertake research at the highest level. Whether DBA research is set in a strategic context is debateable, but this study indicates that the research skills provided by DBAs can assist strategists in their ability to analyse strategic situations, develop views of the future and intent for organisations.

#### ***12.3.4.6 Ability to Influence Change***

Writers such as Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) and Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992) emphasised the requirement for strategists to be able to influence change and people management skills are important in gaining the necessary authority to bring about change. Linked to networking is the development of people management skills, which is an essential element of leadership (Gill 2006). StuC7 believed that the DBA assisted them in developing these skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1.8: StuC7). Two students and one member of staff (StuA8; StuB14; StaffF13), however, suggested that the DBA does not aid the student’s ability to control organisational change (See Appendix E – Summary Table:

7.6.3). StuA8 went onto propose that the DBA does not aid the student's ability to influence change (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6.4: StuA8). Again, these are worrying statements, as they question the DBA's contribution to developing an aspect of a strategist's skillset. These statements, nevertheless, were countered by other respondents. StaffF proposed that the DBA enhances the ability to influence change (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.3). They stated, "... they should be developing their ability to construct a rational, well reasoned, well argued argument ..." (StaffF p.12). AA4 suggested that the DBA aids the development of change management skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.6). In respect of the ability to enhance change SSB16 believes that DBA improves ability to negotiate (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.4). This individual (SSB16) also suggested that the DBA improves the ability of an individual to persuade (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.5). These views support the notion that the DBA enhances the abilities of individuals to influence change.

#### ***12.3.4.7 Communication; Stimulating Strategic Dialogue in an Organisation; and, Management of the Communication of Culture***

In addition to skills that assist individuals to think critically about business problems, critical to strategic change is the development of strategic communication skills (Cummings 2002; Gill 2006). This was seen as a benefit that could be gained during the course of a student's DBA studies and an aspect in the mix of skills that a strategists' might possess that would enable organisational strategic change. One staff member (StaffF13) believed that the DBA allows an individual to enhance their ability to stimulate strategic dialogue (1.4.1). This supports the views of writers such as Eisenhardt et al. (1997), Bonn (2001), Cummings (2002), Porter (2005). In particular, Higgins and McAllaster (2004) identified the ability of a strategist to be able to manage the communication of culture as important. Two respondents, one a student and the other staff member (StuA9; StaffD14; StaffD16; StuA8; StaffD16) from different institutions

suggested that a DBA stimulates strategic dialogue and aids strategic communication (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.10). StuA stated,

*“I think before I sort of thought strategy and vision and all of that came from up above and I was more of an implementer and now I’m much more part of that communication process ...” (p.9).*

At a more basic level, in terms of strategic communication, two members of staff (StaffB6 and StaffC7) believed that The DBA improves presentation skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.7) and StaffF12 suggested that the DBA improves verbal skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.8). Both StaffF12 and StuC6 believe that the DBA improves writing skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4.9).

The close association, however, between cultural and strategic change cannot be under-estimated. In fact, it could be argued that strategic change can only be effected by cultural change and visa versa. This was not overtly stated by any of the respondents, however, those respondents that viewed the DBA as programme of study that improved their abilities to engage in organisational change would support Higgins and McAllaster’s proposition in a strategic context.

The student faced the problem of adapting to an academic writing style (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.21: StuA2; StaffD6; StaffD8; StaffD14; ASA6; StuC5) StuA stated,

*“I was criticised in my viva about my style of writing because I continued doing it in my business style. ... I had some rewrites to convert it into an academic flow language.” (StuA p.2)*

StaffD described a typical comment by a DBA student, “Death by PowerPoint I can do, but writing this stuff I find hard.” (p.14) Perhaps related with this point is an issue raised by students (StuB7; StuB8) that some students have a particular

research perspective (7.5.14) that causes some tensions when developing their academic writing. A problem found by one member of staff (StaffD7) is that some students collect data without knowing what they are researching (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.16). The same member of staff (StaffD11) believes that many DBA students are too applied (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.15). An interesting point made by StaffD about the process is that sometimes students lose focus in the excitement of finding theory (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.20: StaffD11; StaffD7). This level of operational analysis has not been undertaken on DBAs and might require further investigation. There are some issues about the alienation of those taking the DBA from their workplace already discussed that cause some concern. It was suggested that a DBA hinders communication in the workplace (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.2.4: StuB14) “... you spend so much time on your own you actually become a social outcast. (StuB p.14) “You actually fail to be able to communicate with ordinary people.” (StuB p.14) Is this a common criticism of academics? If it is a recurring issue, is this the fault of the academic or an issue within the wider community? Clearly, if the DBA wishes to engage with practitioners, with or without a doctorate, it needs to do so in such a way that is accessible for all, without dumbing-down the level of interrogation and explanation.

Respondents reported that the DBA enhanced their ability to stimulate functional dialogue may result in motivating strategic dialogue in an organisation (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4). A functional ability to manage people is also an aspect that a respondent proposed that was enhanced by their DBA, although this is not a characteristic of a strategist, it is an essential skill for leaders and change agents (Burnes 2004; Collins and Holton III 2004; O'Regan and Ghobadian 2004; Gill 2006). Importantly, this study has differentiated between strategists and leaders. Essentially, the differentiating factor between the two roles is that the strategists is the intellectual input into the strategic process, whereas a leader attempts to ensure that the strategic concept, intent, direction is implemented. The strategists is the thinker, the leader is the doer. Strategists and

leaders can be one and the same. Often they are not and in this eventuality it is an essential skill of strategists to be able to effectively communicate their strategic thinking and decisions to the leaders in organisations. Respondents did not discuss the DBA relationship with developing leadership abilities in any great detail, perhaps indicating that although this work has developed a clear distinction between strategists and leaders, in reality this distinction is not often clear. For example, two respondents believe that the DBA aids the development of change management skills and enhances the ability to influence change. The abilities are necessary leadership skills, but are also useful for the strategist. It is a contentious whether a strategist has the ability to determine or influence change (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4). Several authors (Watson 2003; Johnson et al. 2004; Richards et al. 2004) believe that strategists should at least influence change and several respondents believe that the DBA aids understanding of practice and the development of active change agents (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2). Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992) describe strategists as having political influence. This direct involvement of strategists in change extends the definition taken in this work. Without, however, the ability to at least communicate strategy effectively (which many would describe as a political task) strategists would be ineffective. Higgins and McAllaster (2004) suggest that strategists need to be able to manage the communication of culture. Cultural change and strategic change are synonymous. To effect strategic change, the underpinning values, the culture of individuals and an organisation need to be amended. Therefore, the DBAs contribution to developing the communication skills of individuals across a range of media and contexts is a vitally important aspect in the development of strategists. Alongside communications skills, there are a range of other personal competencies that assist strategists which the DBA can facilitate in their development.

A number of findings support the assertion that the DBA enhances not only general communications skills such as verbal, writing and presentation, but as is argued here specific communication skills required of a strategist (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.4). StaffF believes that the DBA allows an individual to



enhance their ability to stimulate strategic dialogue and aids strategic communication. Strategic dialogue requires the ability to negotiate and in certain instances the ability to persuade. Both these areas respondents believe are ameliorated by taking a DBA. StuA states,

*“I think before I sort of thought strategy and vision and all of that came from up above and I was more of an implementer and now I’m much more part of that communication process ...”* (p.9)

#### **12.3.4.8 Decision-Making**

Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) suggest that strategists make strategic decisions. This is debateable. It could be that strategists only inform decision-makers. Improved decision-making skills, however, was identified by a staff-student as a benefit of taking the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1.9: SSB7). An interesting point made by one student respondent (SSA) is that students become dissatisfied and less certain as they progress through their DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.8.1). They stated, “...I think it [a DBA] actually can damage a person, in terms, you become more introspective, you analyse yourself more.” (p.20). Students question their preconceived ideas about research and more fundamentally management. This, it is suggested, makes the student more dissatisfied with the status quo (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6). Whether this is a negative consequence of taking a DBA is a debatable point. There is a body of literature that would support the notion of individuals or organisations should be less certain about their position and future as this will encourage change and innovation (Pascale et al. 2000; Stacey 2007) and this might improve decision-making.

As well as the improved ability to undertake research and gain industry intelligence respondents believe that the DBA can improve the ability of individuals to consider alternative strategic options using evaluative skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). ASA states, “Our view there was that it’s

important to know the choices and the direction in which organisations can develop, and how management influence can affect that process.” (p.2) Furthermore, ASA also believes that the DBA helps develop a rounded appreciation of business problems through the use of generic organisational modules. Around the development of strategy itself, several emergent themes were identified these included, the DBA improves strategic evaluative skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.11: SSB7), the thesis linked to strategic customer, supplier, etc. (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.15: StuA2; StuC4), the DBA develops innovative thinking about organisational problems (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.10: StuB7; StuB11; StuB13; StaffF10; StaffF11; StaffD16; AA4; SSC9) and the thesis studied a strategic innovation (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.16: StuA4). StuA4 stated,

*“... but looking at it from an emotional side and seeing how shoppers react to the environment was something that previously we’d not looked at so it gave a completely fresh look at store atmosphere.” (p.4)*

Perhaps, connected to decision-making, the ability to perform role or task systematically was identified as an impact of taking the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1.3). This is not identified explicitly in the literature as a characteristic of a strategist, however, writers such as Bourgeois (1984; 1985), Dutton et al. (1989); and even Johnson et al. (2005) appear to suggest that analytical abilities of strategists need order and recognisable method. Even in the most complex of situations writers such as Chung and McLarney (1999) suggest the ability of strategists to consider the environments in which they are operating systematically is a means to gain competitive advantage. A number of staff, some of which have also been DBA students (SSA10; SSB1; SSC9; StaffA8; StaffF12), thought that the DBA allows an individual to enhance their ability to think logically and to formulate logical arguments (1.4.2). StaffF stated, “... they [the DBA students] should be developing their ability to construct a rational, well reasoned, well argued argument ...” (p.12). This was supported a number of interviewees across the range of respondent categories (StuA8; StuB14; StaffF14;

StaffD16; StaffA8; StaffC17; ASA8; ASA9; SSA17; SSB7) who believed that the DBA aids the development of analytical skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.6). StaffA stated, “I think the real benefit that people get is just that they actually learn how to systematically address a problem.” (p.8). AA4 proposed that the DBA assists the development of data accessing skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.7) and StaffA8 identified the DBA aiding the development of data collection skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.8).

Interestingly, the two agency members, both of whom have a wealth of experience in terms of the DBA and one of whom had established and developed one of the UK’s first and most successful DBA programmes, suggested that the DBA aids the development of a skills’ portfolio that assists in professional development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.4: AA6; ASA8). It is arguable whether a strategist needs the ‘whole package’ of skills or can be effective with a limited number of skills or even just one. Without functional competence in an organisation, strategy cannot be delivered effectively (De Wit and Meyer 2005). Strategic change is often the sum of functional, operational activity (Burnes 2004). Respondents believe that their DBA aids them in networking skills and the subsequent development of networks through cohort links and decision-making (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 8.2). They did not directly associate these with strategic abilities because the conversations were not placed in this context, but their functional significance underpins their importance in the development of strategy and strategists. It is often difficult, if not impossible to distinguish strategic and functional networks and decision-making. An interesting area that was raised by an interviewee is the DBA assists in the ability to perform role or task systematically through training in systematic research methods (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1). Staff A states, “I think the real benefit that people get is just that they actually learn how to systematically address a problem.” (p.8) StaffF developed this point, “... they [the students] should be developing their ability to construct a rational, well reasoned, well argued argument ...” (StaffF p.12). There is some debate whether strategy is a systematic process (See Mintzberg 1998; Watson 2004). Some authors propose

that the functional ability to perform a role systematically might enhance strategic performance in some instances (See Ansoff 1965; Graetz 2002; Rheault 2003; Bryson 2004; Turner 2004). A criticism of the DBA is that students do not take an overview of organisational issues (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.2.3: SSA19), which again might impede the application of DBA studies to the working environment.

Respondents appear to support writers such as Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) in their belief that strategists make strategic decisions. Respondents indicate that the DBA impacts individual's ability to make these types of decision in a positive way, particularly in terms of improved analytical research skills.

#### ***12.3.4.9 Cognitive Ability; and, Strategic Thinking***

At the most general level one staff-student and one staff respondent (SSC9; StaffF12) proposed that the DBA develops cognitive and intellectual skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.3.4). This supports a number of writers (March and Olsen 1976; Schendel and Hofer 1979; Stubbart 1989; Wright et al. 1994; Chung and McLarney 1999; De Wit and Meyer 2005) view that these skills are required by strategists. The very nature of the DBA is that those intellectual and cognitive skills should be developed in the context of the workplace.

The strategic nature of DBA study was identified by a range of staff and student respondents (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1). Obviously, different people have diverse appreciations of the terms strategy, strategic and strategists. Respondents' highlighted skills that are improved while taking a DBA that have resonance in terms of the characteristics of a strategist that have been identified in the extant literature. Underpinning strategy and strategists is the ability of an individual to think holistically and creatively and to break from previous patterns of behaviour. This study's findings indicate that the research skills that a DBA provides enhance individual creative and holistic abilities (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). Several respondents saw the DBA as allowing an

appreciation of different research and organisational perspectives and it was reported that the structure of DBA programmes develops innovative thinking about organisational problems (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). For example StuA stated, “... but looking at it [an organisational problem] from an emotional side and seeing how shoppers react to the environment was something that previously we’d not looked at so it gave a completely fresh look at store atmosphere.” (p.4) Examining the ontological, epistemological and methodological approaches to research allows individuals to value alternative perspectives, not only in research, but also in business. If managed properly, this is not a cerebral ‘navel gazing’ exercise, but has the potential to transform the way an individual perceives real business issues. The consideration of these, sometimes abstract, themes has to have applicability to an individual’s working context. This is fundamental to the delivery, structure and engagement required of a DBA programme.

Engagement with theory was seen as significant by several respondents in encouraging and embracing criticality (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.4). This deductive approach to criticality is akin to the sort of structures we normally associate with traditional doctorates. The importance of alternative and critical approaches, however, was identified by a range of respondents. The idea that a cohort drawn from different backgrounds enhanced the level of critical debate is an interesting one and a feature of DBA delivery. Criticality will be enhanced when the learning structures draws upon different research perspectives and this was borne out by respondents. StaffC21 suggested that the nature of the DBA allows peer (DBA cohort) development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.5). They stated,

*“I think we’re looking for a cohort of people who are going to sit around the room and look at each other and say, “I’m going to learn a lot from the people I’m with on this programme.” And they are going to be comfortable sitting in a room with each other as students.”... “Yeah, these are people who I would talk to if we had to do business with ...”.* (p.21)

Perhaps linked to this statement and the emergent theme that the DBA allows peer (DBA cohort) development (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.5), is the theme identified from comments by ASA9, that the DBA builds self-confidence (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.8). The supportive nature of the DBA will be explored in more depth below. Within the context of this master theme, however, two respondents identified a link between the DBA and the professional development of an individual.

Engaging with academic literature was identified by a number of respondents, both staff and students as an important aspect of their DBA programmes. This takes the form of summarising papers, which was identified as a key DBA skill (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.4.8: StuA6; StaffF5). StuA stated, “... not just to take tunnel vision at it but to look at it from all different aspects.” (p.6) Building upon this skill set, two staff respondents also identified the requirement for students to critique papers in student selected areas of interest (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.4.1: StaffF5; SSC2) as an important aspect of the student learning experience.

Several students and staff highlighted that DBA learning structures draws upon the diversity of student and tutor views (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 3.4.5: StuA5; StuA6; StaffF6). The diversity of fellow cohort (3.4.3: StuA5; StuA6; StaffF11) was also seen as important in developing critical perspectives. StuA stated,

*“... there was such a diverse group, we had the Head of Lloyds insurance, we had the MD of a building company, we had an IT techy and we had me looking at the retail environment from completely diverse topics . Basically the tutors gave us a discussion on strategy or accounting or financing or whatever. But then the debates afterwards were everyone chipping with their thoughts.” (p.5)*

The development of networks (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1.6: SSA7) and the development of networking skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1.7: AA4) were not identified in the literature examined for this study as particular characteristics of a strategist. This is perhaps a lacuna in the extant literature. Clearly, social and business networks will provide strategists information and access to decision-makers and therefore networking is important in the development of a strategist. This is an interesting area and worthy of further research. An issue, however, identified by respondents is that (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.10: StaffB4; 4.2.7: StaffF2) the DBA has attracted smaller numbers of students with lower age profile than expected. Bransford et al. (2003) argues that mental models of people are most affected by education, experience and age. The lower age profile of students might be indicative of less experience and this will impact the ability of DBA students to network effectively. One respondent felt that the DBA hindered their ability to communicate in their workplace. They stated, "... you spend so much time on your own you actually become a social outcast ... You actually fail to be able to communicate with ordinary people." (StuB p.14). This is a worrying comment as the DBA should be a vehicle to bridge the relevance gap.

In addition to new skills and perspectives, there are undoubtedly more instrumental reasons for taking a DBA. StaffD believes that "The DBA is a professional managerial qualification." (p.8) As such the DBA might be seen as a natural extension to the MBA and perhaps the 'ultimate' badge of professional competence – the MBA gold card described by Kay (1995). At this stage in the development of the qualification this is a difficult to assess. The professionalisation of management, however, is a movement that is unlikely to disappear and qualifications, both professional and academic will be important insignia in this trend (Miller et al. 2002).

#### ***12.3.4.10 Contribution To Practice***

A significant number of respondents commented upon an issue with the DBA's potential overall contribution to practice, a cornerstone of the adoption and pedagogy underpinning the development of DBAs. The QAA (2001) and ABS (2005) guidelines are clear that underpinning the DBA and its place in doctoral education is its contribution to practice. An agency member and staff-student respondent emphasised that the DBA makes a contribution to practice not just theory (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.2.1: AA1; SSA10). AA stated that the DBA is, "... similar and different ..." to the PhD. (AA p.1). This is supported by the theme that emerged from the comments of a number of individuals, that the DBA is a reflection on practice (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.2.3: StaffD9; StaffA1; AA1; SSA3; SSC10). StaffD stated, "... [There] should be some element of reflection on personal professional factors, and possibly also the practice of the profession." (p.9) They went on to say, "Defining a DBA: you must show what its relevance is to your practice as a manager/consultant, whatever you are, and/or to your profession." (p.11) StaffA supported this view, "... we're looking for a contribution to practice rather than necessarily a contribution to theory." (p.1). These themes and comments are perhaps indicative of the concerns that staff and agencies have in respect of the link between practice and the DBA. StaffD stated, "The DBA is a professional managerial qualification (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.2.2)." (p.8). This view is supported by AA1. This perhaps takes the DBA much closer to what some perceive as the role of qualifications such as the MBA. As well as the reflection on practice an observation was made that the DBA should reflect on the profession (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.2.4: StaffD9; AA1). StaffD stated, "... [there] should be some element of reflection on personal professional factors, and possibly also the practice of the profession." (p.9).

A number of agency, staff and students believed that it is not clear that a DBA informs practice (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.2.2: ASA9; SSC5; AA3; StuC5; StuC6; StuB5; StuB7; AA3) ASA9 stated,



*“Look, I think the organisational impact of those people who have positions within an organisation has probably been really quite limited.” (p.9) “I’m wondering actually if the kind of model that you’re looking at is the sort of hourglass with, you know, a narrow waist in it, and it’s in the narrow waist that your DBA sits, because that’s the person who can appraise the research, understand its limitations and its strengths and pass that information on to the strategic level. ... “I wouldn’t, and you wouldn’t, I’m sure, recommend the DBA as, you know, the route to being a CEO.” (p.14)*

The DBA is an attempt by academia to bridge the gap between practice and academia. It is also an effort to provide business with an academic qualification at the higher level that will attract the most reflective and potentially innovative individuals. The DBA is a badge or an award that should be recognised as a significant contribution to practice, as a PhD signifies a contribution to knowledge. As Staff C states, “Your PhDs are your Professional Researchers, and your Practitioner Doctorates are your Researching Professionals.” (p.6) This is the crux of the DBA.

Research demonstrates that management learning does not appear to result from courses, but from workplace experience, although not all managers learn in the workplace. Ghoshal (2005) describes many doctorates as “...the pretence of knowledge.” (p. 77) The lack of engagement with practice is a criticism that is made of traditional doctoral programmes and many other forms of academic courses (Noble 1994; Usher 2002) and has led to the development of practise-based, professional doctorates such as the DBA. Respondents, particularly those drawn from staff and agencies, were unequivocal in their support for the view that the distinguishing feature of the DBA was that the research undertaken, in whatever form, is based on and in practice. Kolb’s well known iterative experiential learning cycle (Kolb 1984) consisting of action, experience, reflection and conceptualisation is a well established framework in management education and underpins many of the approaches to delivering the DBA. It is argued here

that the DBA is an ideal mechanism for practicing or potential strategists to refine required skills, expertise and knowledge that equate to Gibbons et al. (1994) mode two of production of knowledge. As well as reflection on practice, two respondents believe that the DBA should allow individuals to reflect on their professions (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5).

A number of staff and students (StuA3; StuB4; StaffF11; StaffF12; StaffD14; StaffA1; StaffC4; SSB3; StaffE5; StaffE6; StuC4) made the point that the DBA is applied and relevant offering practical application (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.9). This has obvious resonance for professional development of individuals. It could also be linked to an individual's impact on their functional performance. This theme is, however, one that is at the core of the ethos underpinning the DBA. The number and range of respondents who highlighted the related themes that the thesis topic allowed the relevance gap to be bridged – started with a business problem and looked to academia for the answers (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.13: StuA5; StuB4; StuB11; AA3; SSB1; AA4; StaffC13; StaffB6; SSB5; SSC4; SSC6; StaffB7) suggests that the DBA thesis in particular has an impact on professional development. As StuA stated, “I sort of started from the trade question and added in an academic view point.” (p.5)

Structured programmes that are a feature of DBA support certain forms of learning. Some respondents believe that rational and rigorous approaches to research enhance the ability of individuals to perform their roles systematically. The various approaches to delivering the DBA examined in this study identified a range of characteristics of strategists developed by DBAs. Fundamentally, the ability to think creatively and reflect on practice in a structured manner is a core skill enhanced by DBA study. Transferable analytical and research skills taught, practised and enhanced within DBA programmes are core capabilities for strategists. It is argued that reflexivity and reflection at the highest level, that is doctoral study (Scott et al. 2004), are essential components of being a strategist and underpins the wide range of factors identified. This will allow individuals in organisations to rise above their operational roles to stake strategic perspectives

(Garratt 1991). StuA2 perceived that the DBA has multiple beneficiaries: The student, the customer and sponsoring company (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.4). The benefits could be viewed from both the operational to the strategic perspective. A number of respondents (StuA5; StaffF3; StaffF11; StaffF13; SSB16; StaffD15; StaffC5; SSB15) clearly identified that the DBA aids the development of strategic perspectives (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.1). The range of respondents in terms of staff, students, and those classified as staff-students who identified this as an important aspect of DBA studies is interesting to note at this stage. Linked to this observation are two other emergent themes, DBA allows appreciation of different organisational perspectives (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.2: StuB7; StuB8; StuB9; StuB10; StuB11; StuB14; StaffF11; StaffF13; StaffD14; StaffD15; ASA1; ASA2; SSB15; StuC6) and the DBA improves ability to consider alternative strategic options (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.3: SSB16). ASA stated, “Our view was that it’s important to know the choices and the direction in which organisations can develop, and how management influence can affect that process.” (p.2)

As stated earlier, fundamental to the DBA are the notions of reflection and reflexivity. These two activities underpin strategic thinking (Hellgren and Melin 1993). In particular, the ability of individuals to be reflexive, that is, to consider their own impact upon a strategic issue is essential for a strategist (Pettigrew 1973; Schön 1983; Parston 1986; Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Senge 1990; Kao 1997; Senge 1997; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002; Mintzberg and Westley 2005). Clearly, to be reflexive, the doctoral researcher has to be active in the change process. Interestingly, none of the respondents actually used the term ‘reflexive’, but several discussed reflection on practice, when they were clearly talking about their or the students’ involvement in the research or change being undertaken (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.1; 1.3; 1.4; 2.1; 2.2).

Whipp (1996) criticises the field of strategic management for lacking reflexivity. The DBA is a means to link practice and theory in the spirit of true and

meaningful reflection and reflexive thought on both theory and practice. Strategists reflect on their organisations and the wider environments in which they operate. The complexity of organisational activity operational or longer term strategic levels requires mechanisms to frame strategic decisions. DBAs provide many of the tools to frame strategic thinking and dialogue. Strategy is about making decisions. Doctoral study raises more questions than it ever answers, but respondents believe that it does enhance the ability of individuals to make strategic decisions. The ability to frame strategic questions and develop mechanisms to expand an understanding of them is fundamental to doctoral study. A number of staff and students (SSA19; StaffE5; StaffB6; StuC6; StuC7; SSB8) proposed that the DBA aids the ability of the student to become a reflective practitioner (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.5). This is supported by the range of respondents (StaffF15; StaffD14; StaffA9; StaffA10; StaffC17; StaffC18; SSA12; SSC4; SSC6) who believed that the DBA develops critical thinking ability (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.9). Respondent StaffF stated, “DBAs are probably a multidisciplinary, cross disciplinary ...” (p.3). This perspective might allow a holistic view on organisational development, required by a strategist. Two students from the same institution and one staff member from another institution (StuA8; StuB13; StaffF11) suggested that the DBA improves the ability to gather industry intelligence (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.18).

Respondents, however, were not universal in their belief that the DBA positively contributes to practice. The criticisms, mainly by students but also some by staff and agency, vary. For example, SSB believes that the DBA can confuse issues (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.2). Where, prior to taking a DBA, a manager may have a clear view of a particular situation or issue, either during or after taking a DBA, their perspective is less clear. Several respondents, staff, students and agency, commented that there is not a clear relationship between the DBA and improving practice. This is a vitally important issue for the qualification. It is essential for the relevance gap to be bridged if the qualification is to gain credibility, wider acceptance and adoption. The dislocation of doctoral

study is summed up in the statement by StuB, "... you spend so much time on your own you actually become a social outcast ... You actually fail to be able to communicate with ordinary people." (StuB p.14) Perhaps an issue with the award, but also a view that one student felt strongly about in terms of their experience when taking the DBA is that the qualification is not recognised as having value in the workplace (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.2.6: StuB5; StuB7; StuB14). StuB stated, "You take someone like a DBA into the workplace and they all think you are on a funny planet." (p.5) ASA states, "I wouldn't, and you wouldn't, I'm sure, recommend the DBA as, you know, the route to being a CEO." (p.14) Many regard CEOs as the key strategists in organisations. ASA's view is the voice of one informant and it was not reflected by other respondents. The lack of engagement, however, by the most senior staff in businesses in DBAs or any other forms of doctorate at this time requires consideration. Time and resources are of course factors that contribute to lack of adoption of DBAs by CEOs. There is, however, another factor, the lack of real or perceived value to individuals or organisations of senior staff expending what could be a significant period of time and personal effort on a professional doctorate such as a DBA.

This study does not pretend to provide a comprehensive and unequivocal review of all DBAs and their students in the UK. It is believed that the group of respondents is a well informed and a representative sample drawn from leading DBA programmes in the UK. The impact of the DBA on strategists is the focus of this study. Therefore, the discussion in this section of the work is critical. There are a range of emergent findings that are worth emphasising. The informants indicate that virtually all of the characteristics that strategists may possess, to a lesser or greater extent, are developed within DBA programmes. Whether this, however, has an impact on organisational performance is not clear from the respondents. Some respondents, however, although mainly positive about their experience of the DBA, identified several issues that call into question certain assumptions about the contribution to the workplace or practice.

There is an argument that the level of analysis and the time taken to complete a DBA will actually stifle a basic strategic skill or ability, creativity. The overwhelming impression from respondents, however, is that DBA programmes enhance individuals' abilities to adopt new perspectives and to think creatively and innovatively (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). The DBA should offer the environment for students to examine different approaches to organisational issues without the fear of criticism, ridicule or failure.

The use of the DBA as a professional qualification, a badge, to enhance career progression prospects cannot be ignored. This study's respondents, however, give the impression that this is almost a secondary aim. The interest in the research and the process of research takes prominence over more instrumental aspirations. StaffA7 believed that the DBA assists in career advancement (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.7) and StuA4 identified its usefulness as a credential (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.1) and its usefulness as the DBA gives the external perception of expertise (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.14). Interestingly, only these students and no staff or agency members openly mentioned these as benefits of taking the DBA, although a number of respondents inferred that the qualification is the 'badge' that may be used to advance careers. In particular a number of staff and students linked the qualification to a career progression route into consultancy (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.2: StuA4; StaffF9; SSC2; StaffB5). A more general point made by two of the students is that the DBA shows strong commitment (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.3: StuA1; StuA4; StuB2; StuB3; StuB6; StuB8; StuB13; StuB15).

Doctoral study, particularly if it is structured around a thesis may result in too focused a study that does not allow a holistic appreciation of a subject (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7). This may have implications for the future design and delivery of DBA programmes. Although, anyone undertaking a focused study will have to develop an appreciation for the context in which the specific issue being researched is found.

StaffC17 and StaffF13 questioned whether the skills taught on a DBA are transferable? (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6.1) In terms of developing specific strategic management capabilities StaffF11; StaffA11 believed that the DBA is too focused to help in developing strategy (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6.5). Also StaffD16 was uncertain if the DBA aids the development of forecasting skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6.6). In fact, StaffA11 proposed that DBA students require other strategic skills to be taught elsewhere (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6.7: StaffA11). StaffC17 suggested that senior managers will already have many strategic skills (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.6.2) before starting a DBA.

Respondents raised issues about the impact of the DBA that might be considered as detrimental to the development of strategists. These mainly centred on process. Some of these will be discussed when examining the DBAs contribution to practice. Many of the issues from both students and staff are common to executive part-time education. For example, a perception of inconsistency in taught/ facilitated sessions, poor delivery of taught sessions, lack of time; issues with formulating a research perspective or argument, can be a very insular, individual activity where students lose contact with their supervisors and the supervisory relationship is not always successful. More pertinent issues to this research included observations that thematic areas might not match student interests. This calls into question whether DBAs should include subject or thematic elements and focus on more generic research input. The balance between research and application is an interesting area. The DBA should be applied. Maintaining the balance between application and credible academic research is a difficult area. Some students and staff questioned whether the DBA actually assists people in effecting strategic change. Is doctoral study too focused to be applicable in a strategic context? Strategy demands a holistic perspective on organisational issues. StuA states, "... you only really get a glimmer of a hint of the total topic." (p.3) Doctoral study requires focus. Can these demand potentially conflicting requirements be balanced?

StaffD11 noted that some students fail to engage with theory in enough depth (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.13) during their DBA course. They stated, “The problem is typically on doing something too managerialist to kind of push them up the hill of theory.” (p.11) This interviewee also believed that some DBA students either have problems with developing an argument in a large piece of research (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.10: StaffD6) or actually fail to formulate an argument (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.17: StaffD7). StaffD11 proposed that certain students fail to be able to structure their studies (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.5.18: StaffD7).

The perspective taken in this work is that strategists require a holistic perspective on organisational issues. De facto, they will need to be generalists. The difference between strategic and functional skill sets is a grey area. It could be argued that communication, decision-making and innovative abilities are required at both operational and strategic levels of an organisation. The only difference between the two will possibly be in terms of scope and time.

StuA9 and StaffB5 suggested that the DBA aids understanding of practice enhancing the development of an active agent (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.6). This indicates that the DBA enabled a deeper level of understanding about strategy and strategic processes in organisations. This is supported by the themes that emerged from comments by StaffF13 and SSB16, that the DBA allows consideration of issues at a deeper level (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5.8). StaffF said,

*“I think they’d [the DBA students] have a better understanding of some of the processes that are active in organisations because the same abilities [allow them] to think about things on a deeper level.” (pp.13-14)*

The theme raised by a number of staff members, perhaps, encapsulates what the DBA is in the eyes of the academic community, that the DBA is a significant contribution to knowledge and might be a contribution about practice, as much as



contribution to theory (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.2.5: StaffC5; StaffC6; SSA3; SSA10). StaffC commented “Your PhDs are your Professional Researcher, and your Practitioner Doctorates are your Researching Professionals.” (p.6). What is not clear, however, is that students and the wider community have a clear perception of the role and position of doctoral education in the UK.

Several authors posit strategic thinking as a separate strategic activity (Pellegrino and Carbo 2001). This research does not indicate that this is particularly at the forefront of respondents thinking in terms of the impacts that a DBA could have on an individual. There is, however, an amount of commentary and discussion that would suggest that several of those interviewed identified skills and characteristics required of a strategists that might be ameliorated by someone taking a DBA.

Central to DBAs is that they are based in practice. As Ruggeri-Stevens et al (2001) observed the development of the DBA has allowed the recognition of work-based learning by the academy at doctoral level, which implies a major step in the integration of work-based learning into mainstream HE. Green and Powell (2005) recognise that doctorates can provide high-level training within a professional context. There is a very clear view from respondents that this is the case. Obviously, most students could not compare their doctoral experience with other doctorates. Staff and agency respondents, however, saw DBAs as a vehicle for individuals to, not only reflect on their practice, but also upon their professions (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.5). Whether DBAs contribute to improvements in practice is less clear-cut. Only further, perhaps longitudinal, research will be able to address this critical issue. Whether the DBA, in whatever form, addresses the ‘relevance gap’ is important and a key driver for the development of professional doctorates.

### ***6.3.5 How the Future Development of the DBA Might Impact the Development of Strategists Taking the Programme?***

The sixth objective examines the future of the DBA in terms of research objectives examined in this chapter. It begins with a discussion about the DBAs acceptance amongst key stakeholders. It goes on to examine the DBA's relationship with the MBA. Finally, the future on DBAs in relation to their form and delivery is then considered, along with the capacity of institutions to deliver programmes.

#### ***12.3.5.1 The DBA's Acceptance Amongst Key Stakeholders***

It is not yet clear if the DBA will gain widespread acceptance. There has been a reluctance by some institutions to take on the award. The doctorate is seen as the gold standard in HE (Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001). Traditionalists, wedded to ideals found within older PhD programmes, have often rejected professional doctorates and in particular the DBA (Noble 1994). Noble described this as "... educational inertia." (p.11) In 2000 HEFCE established a project to introduce a 'New Route PhD' (Higher Education Funding Council for England 2000) that was modelled on the successful USA PhD. At the same time, professional doctorates, such as the DBA, were being developed in UK HE institutions. As the new form PhD is adopted, with structured taught research elements, some forms of the PhD increasingly resemble the DBA. A distinguishing feature of the DBA, other than the focus of the research in practice, has been the structure of many programmes, with significant taught elements, sometimes separately assessed, as well as a thesis. None of the DBAs examined in this study had relinquished a thesis element in the research. Several, however, had theses with reduced required word count as a result of the inclusion of other assessed elements. There has been an increase in the number of institutions in the UK offering DBAs and the number of DBA graduates (Davies 2008; Association of Business Schools 2008; Brown and Cook 2010). The numbers recruited and the profile of students, however, has been below expectations (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2).

The discussions around the parity of the DBA with the main form of traditional doctorate illuminate some of the potential debates around the format of DBAs. Respondents felt that either the DBA was adopting many of the forms that we might associate with a PhD or vice-versa. StaffA describes the situation in their institution between the DBA and PhD as, "... a lot of crossover." (p.1) It was not clear if this apparent confluence of the two doctoral forms is a function of expediency, or a real desire to spread the better practice of one form of doctoral education. Whether best practice has developed from DBAs or PhDs is rather a pointless argument. What is important is the recognition and adoption of more effective forms of doctoral education. More effective might refer to increased completion rates, more innovative theory generation or, as in the case of DBAs, better practice. It is argued in this work that this practice might be in strategy and the work of strategists. At this stage, the potential outcomes from DBAs are unclear.

The lack of clarity as to what actually constitutes a DBA in the wider society and the academic community specifically is illustrated by the necessity of one of the most influential membership organisations in UK business and management HE, the Association of Business Schools issues guidelines to clarify the position of the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.1: AA1). The DBA is not well known in the sector and in industry (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.5: AA1; AA2; StaffE8). An agency member and a member of staff highlighted this as an issue in the development of the DBA. This lack of awareness of the qualification is perhaps the reason for another emergent theme, the smaller than expected numbers taking DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.10: StaffB4). Two members of staff, StaffC4 and StaffE3, felt that the title of the DBA is problematic (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.16). StaffE stated, "I mean sometimes people think it's a diploma." (p.3) In mitigation it was widely recognised by all categories of respondent that the DBA is an evolving qualification (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.14: StuA2; StaffF6; StaffA10; StaffC11; ASA1; SSA2; StaffE3; SSC1).

A contributory factor to the lower than expected student numbers attracted to the DBA award is undoubtedly the failure of companies to sponsor individuals (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.2: StaffC9) to take the DBA. This could be as result of lack of awareness of the award, particularly in decision-making elements in organisations. StuA2 commented on the difficulties they had in convincing their [customer and] employer of the worth of thesis (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.3). One member of staff (StaffF) reported that people in workplaces are suspicious of doctorates (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.8: StaffF2; StaffF3). The source of this suspicion was not investigated further but could result from ignorance or even envy. An issue raised by one staff/ student is the perception that doctorates over analyse causing ‘paralysis by analysis’ (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.9: SSC6). This individual is suggesting that there is a lack of organisational decision-making and action because of too much information or time spent analysing organisational problems. These views of doctorates may be a more general issue than with the qualification per se. Again these issues can be traced back to overall awareness of the award.

The expectations [of the DBA] by the sponsor, student and university may be different (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.6: StaffD10). Student false expectations, or significant lack of awareness of what a DBA entails was raised by a number of students and staff. StaffC5 believed that participants do not recognise that the DBA is more than reflection on practice (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.7). One student, StuB, commented that students do not fully understand the process of obtaining a DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.11: StuB4; StuB9; StuB15). They stated,

*“...I’m going to be really cynical here, because I think this is an area he’s [their supervisor] very interested in and I think it was just convenient to have a student go off and do what he wanted them to do.” (StuB p.9)*

This is supported by comments of one staff-student who believed that students do not have a clear idea of what the DBA entailed before starting the course (See

Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.12: SSB3). A member of staff and a student raised a related issue, that the benefits from the course are not apparent during the programme (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.13: StuB13; StaffD15).

A respondent from an agency (AA2) believes that there has been a blurring of difference by some institutions between PhD and DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3.1). There is some belief that it is difficult to differentiate between a PhD and DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3.3: StaffD9; AA2). StaffA stated, “... there is a lot of crossover.” (StaffA p.1). AA supported this view and also commented,

*“... the PhD is changing and it was quite possible to use the PhD title and vehicle to do what we thought was more sort of DBA territory in that some institutions have blurred the distinction ...” (p.2)*

Some of the areas of differentiation between a PhD and a DBA that were identified by respondents were in aspects such as: the high fee differentiates the DBA from the PhD (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3.7: StaffD4; ASA4); the delivery mode of the DBA tends to be in intensive blocks (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3.2: StaffC6); and the PhD is normally full time whilst the DBA is normally part-time (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3.5: SSC3). One DBA course was joint delivery programme (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3.4: StaffE2). A staff/ student proposed that the structure of PhD is moving towards that of the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.3.6: SSC2). This will have an impact on all forms of doctoral education and may exacerbate the issues around the differentiation between the PhD and of the DBA.

The parity of the DBA qualification with other doctoral awards, and in particular the PhD, is an important aspect in the development of DBAs. Clearly a significant number of respondents believe that there is clear equivalence between the qualifications. Both require equal contributions to knowledge, effort, reflection, and sound theoretical grounding. An important issue that will be

discussed later is the market recognition of the DBA qualification when compared with the PhD. The parity of the DBA with other doctorates identified by the respondents echoes the findings from the literature (Green and Powell 2005; Quality Assurance Agency 2008). DBAs are “similar and different” to the PhD. (AA p.1). The recognition of the DBA and its parity with other doctorates is important in a strategic sense when recruiting appropriate students and seeking funding from employers or the state.

Staff A11 observed that the PhD has adopted many of the approaches developed by DBA programmes (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4.7). The fact that in StaffC7’s institution the DBA and PhD are both located in research office for administration (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4.1) is perhaps an important symbolic artefact of the parity between the DBA and PhD. An emergent theme was the belief that DBA has the same characteristics as a PhD. This is manifest in its ability to exhibit scholarship, an understanding and an ability to apply research methodology, and a contribution to knowledge. (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4.3: StaffC5). A number of staff indicated that parity with the PhD came through the fact that many DBA thesis are grounded in the literature. (2.4.2: StaffC5; StaffC13; SSB5; StaffB6). Another feature, that the institution is highly selective (2.4.5) was proposed, by StaffC15, maybe further evidence of the DBA’s parity with the PhD. The DBA programme with ESRC recognised research methods training (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4.4: StaffD3) was again put forward as evidence of equivalence with PhD programmes. In fact in the instance of StaffD’s institution the DBA research methods’ course was also delivered to the PhD programme.

As previously indicated, people believe that the PhD is a superior qualification to the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4.6: StaffE3). To illustrate this point, a statement by a DBA student (StuA) who said, “[The] PhD where it’s very much more straight into your own focus research in the beginning. It’s a tough way to do it.” (StuA p.3) Perhaps, one of the key reasons for this perception is that the PhD is well established and known, the DBA is not. (See Appendix E –

Summary Table: 2.4.8: AA1; SSC2; SSC3). Perhaps, a significant issue raised by the agency-staff member was that the value of [DBA] research is questionable – where is the contribution to knowledge? (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4.10: ASA8). ASA8 stated “...where’s the contribution and the knowledge? And I’m not sure that the [DBA] programmes have got that right yet.” (p.9) Despite this view, there was a widespread belief amongst a range of respondents that the DBA has parity with the PhD (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4.9: StaffA1; AA1; StaffC4; StaffC9; SSA17; StaffE3). AA stated,

*“We took the view very much that they are equivalent to the PhD and I mean that in every level of the sense of the word as they are equally demanding and require an equal contribution of effort and they should be recognised as equivalent in the market place, as to the full PhD.” (p.1)*

A comment made by one student respondent (StuB3) “I’m not an academic” may highlight an important issue of awareness that the DBA as an award has not raised its profile enough and that the student does not believe that they are academic (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1.15). This emergent theme is linked to the next master theme, issues over the contribution of the DBA to practice.

The evolving form of the DBA might have negative impact upon institutional stakeholders who are already sceptical about DBAs. This might also not improve the market understanding of the doctorate (Maxwell 2008). PhDs are clearly understood by the market (Cowen 1997; Jongeling 1999; Neumann 2005).

A master theme that emerged from the interviews has been identified as ‘market issues’. Several emergent themes relate to the external perception of DBAs in the ‘marketplace’. The market place may consist of people working in institutions but not directly involved in DBAs, potential students, their employers, or even society more generally. Other market issues relate to perceptions that have developed around DBAs within institutions themselves. As discussed earlier a fundamental issue emerged from the responses by two staff and one agency-staff

that the DBA does not have an established market position (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.12: ASA6; StaffA12; StaffC23). In respect of this issue, an important point was made by two respondents, one staff and one agency-staff, that the PhD is evolving towards the DBA – will the market be able to tell the difference? (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.15: StaffA12; ASA6). A direct knock-on effect of this maybe that the DBA suffers from recruitment difficulties (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.14: StaffA12; AA3; StaffE2) as reported by staff in two different institutions and an agency respondent who is in contact with all business schools in the UK. This has even called into question the future of the DBA, it is unclear if there is a sustainable part-time or full-time market for the DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.4: StaffA12). StaffA stated, “I would have a question mark over its [the DBA] long-term future ...” (p.12). AA3 believes that there is a lack of UK students choosing doctorates (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.6). They also believed (AA2) that there is a dissonance then between the realities in terms of recruitment. On many DBAs there are international students taking DBAs (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.1). AA2 and SSA3, the two agency respondents, believed that the weakness of UK demand has made UK institutions look to international markets (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.17: AA2; SSA3). At the same time, the agency respondent felt that the international market is not clear about DBAs (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.3: AA2).

In addition to under-recruitment and a different make-up of student cohorts in terms of national backgrounds one staff member noted that in their experience there is a lower age group than expected (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.7: StaffF2) amongst the DBA participants. Also, another staff member, StaffE, from another institution to StaffF, noted that participants are not in the senior positions as expected (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.10: StaffE2; StaffE7).

Several points were made about DBA fees and costings. An agency-staff member believed that fees for PhD are much lower than a DBA (See Appendix E –



Summary Table: 4.2.2: ASA4). StaffA12 believed that the DBA is expensive to offer (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.13) and staff-student (SSA3) believed that PhD and DBAs are not costed properly. Both are seen as cash cows, but they do not make money for institutions (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.11). It is interesting that this staff member believed that both PhDs and DBAs are incorrectly costed.

Staff-student (SSA3) believed there is a perception in the market that the entry requirements for DBAs are lower than for a PhD (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.16). There has been lack of progression from MBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.5: StaffE8). AA1 believes that there is a need to educate stakeholders in the relevance of DBAs (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.8). They also saw DBAs as part of a growing range of professional doctorates (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 4.2.9: AA1) with direct relevance to business.

As more individuals in HE and business become aware of the DBA there might naturally be more acceptance of the qualification. ‘Market’ awareness is critical for any product and the DBA is no different. It is difficult to gauge the level of inertia in HE and whether it is a generational issue and will diminish with passing years. Importantly as more strategists and leaders gain the qualification, this will both encourage those that aspire to these positions in organisations to take the award. At this time, the impact of DBAs on career progression is not known. Clearly, this is an area that will require careful monitoring and further research. The engagement of HE with industry goes beyond doctoral research. Particularly in the UK there are too few academic staff have industrial experience (Rees and Porter 2006). Also, the global shortage of doctoral supervisory capacity (The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business –‘AACSB’ - Doctoral Faculty Commission 2003) has become a significant issue for all doctoral programmes. The DBA is potentially a means to qualify academic staff for either full or part-time appointment. This may assist in addressing these two major issues in the future of HE.

The range of personal competencies, particularly criticality, that respondents believe that are enhanced by the DBA are impressive. As discussed previously, many of the competencies identified by respondents match the characteristics required by strategists recognized in the extant literature. The future, however, of the DBA lies in making the benefits of the qualification more apparent to all stakeholders. The relevance of the qualification for strategists has not been explicitly identified prior to this work. It is felt that this is an important aspect of this professional doctorate that needs to be more effectively promoted. It is recognised that the DBA is and should not be seen solely as a qualification for strategists. It is also an award for managers, leaders, academics and those just interested in business. The singular point made about making managers (in whatever form) more responsible and involved should not be lost. In a global environment where corporate social responsibility is increasingly strategically important and a requirement of business (Matten et al. 2003; Jastram 2007), the DBA could be the business qualification to lead strategists and leaders in the future.

It is essential that students' sponsors recognise the value of the DBA both to the individuals taking the qualifications and the organisation who sponsor the students' studies. It appears, however, that this is not the case (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1). This could be a function of a number of reasons. The award is relatively novel. There is not a tradition in the UK of individuals in the workplace, outside of academia, medicine and some of the science-based subjects, studying or possessing doctorates. Practice-based professional doctorates are novel. It is reported that MBA students experience antagonism to their qualification in the workplace, particularly from managers who do not have the qualification who might feel threatened by a better academically qualified individual in their team (Hay and Hodgkinson 2006). The potential source of antagonism that a professional doctorate might cause is a real issue for consideration.

Apathy towards DBAs is not aided by student and staff naiveté about what the DBA entails. Even the title DBA is problematic for some. It is often associated with a diploma in business administration, which is a lower level qualification, sometimes employed as a stage in progression to an MBA. The issue of nomenclature must be addressed if the award is to gain credibility. The award itself is still evolving and is developing a range of forms. This makes it difficult for the DBA to develop a clearly identifiable 'brand' that people outside and inside academia understand and appreciate. The PhD, although today has mutated into a number of different forms, is universally recognised (Jongeling 1999). The DBA needs this level of recognition. The DBA community itself is partly to blame. At regular meetings of the various stakeholders there have been on-going debates about the form and function of DBAs. The community itself has spent an interminable period trying to define the award, when the award is clearly a doctorate based in practice. The issues of nomenclature, although it may be viewed as a superficial issue from some perspectives, are a real problem. Powell and Long (2005) question whether there should be a distinction between doctorates at all and suggest that there is a very real danger of a proliferation of ill-thought through nomenclature. In particular areas of practice there is a good argument for some recognition of the professional area of expertise, for example engineering. Where the award is licence to practice, for example, in clinical psychology, the rationale for a doctorate is more transparent (Powell and Long 2005). A question worth asking is do business strategists and leaders require an award (licence) to practice? There may well be an argument that a qualification such as a DBA is evidence of particular (strategic) competencies and it should be held by those that aspire to strategic positions. This may be too managerial to writers such as Mintzberg (2004). In an increasingly managerial society, this type of training and recognition might become an essential career qualification.

Parity with the PhD is a key issue for recruitment. The credibility and longevity of the DBA can be linked to award awareness issues. What was clear from all the respondents is that they viewed the DBA as being equal to other forms of traditional doctoral education. The issue of parity with the PhD in the wider

community, however, is one that was raised by a number of staff and agency respondents (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.4). Without equivalence, perceived or actual, with the PhD, the DBA’s future is uncertain. To attract leading business thinkers, there must be confidence in the market that the qualification being offered has value. Being a relatively new qualification, the DBA has particular issues associated with it. Problems with its adoption, however, could be compounded with a wider malaise with the contribution of HE to business (Pfeffer and Fong 2002; Starkey and Tiratsoo 2007). The DBA community needs to improve the external awareness of the award, particularly from organisations in which potential DBA students might be attracted (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 2.1). Some respondents believed that their companies, whether they were sponsoring them or not, did not fully understand the qualification and what it entails. Several respondents also felt that the students themselves did not fully understand the ramifications of undertaking a DBA. This resonates with Sarros et al’s findings (2005). As a consequence of the paucity of research into the practice of DBAs, much of the current writing and research on the topic is quite abstract, in that it examines what DBAs should be rather than the reality of what they actually have become. It is incumbent upon the sector to establish meaning and understanding of what the qualifications they are offering are and how they will impact the individual and organisations.

As previously discussed, an unforeseen development has been the ‘international’ market for part-time doctoral programmes such as the DBA. Scott (1998) and Barnett (1999) highlight the increasingly international and global nature of HE. Even their vision does not include the ability of an international student body that is resident abroad but studies periodically in the UK. Virtually all participating institutions in this study have a significant number of international students on their programmes, many of whom often travel to the UK for the periods of taught delivery. Following Becher and Thrower’s (2001) argument, the ‘internationalisation’ of DBAs might have a useful side effect in the dissemination of strategic knowledge and understanding.

### ***12.3.5.2 The DBA's Relationship with the MBA***

As discussed earlier, it appears that many institutions had or even have key stakeholders (senior management) who view the DBA as a means to access a potentially large and lucrative market - the next MBA. Evidentially, this is not the case. The DBA is a very different animal to the MBA. Most academic practitioners have gone to lengths to ensure that the DBA, both internally and externally, is held in the same esteem as the PhD. The link, however, with the MBA is apparent. This is illustrated by the AMBA development of a DBA accreditation that was adopted in 2006 by Aston Business School and has also been gained by Hong Kong Polytechnic University and Kingston Business School.

A number of respondents believe that the DBA complements both the MBA and the PhD in the portfolio of awards offered by institutions (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 5.5) that concurs with O'Neill's and McMullen (2003) view. As this research has demonstrated, however, the relationship between the DBA and the MBA is a difficult one. One of the institutions examined actually has built in a dispensation that allows a student with an MBA entry to an accelerated DBA (Four years part-time study, instead of six). Most mentioned the MBA in their publicity or validation documentation in terms of an award required for entry on to the DBA. Intuitively, the two awards have a close association. They should attract similar students, but at different stages in their career progression. It is not clear at this time if any MBA programme in the UK has been designed with their students progressing on to a DBA. Perhaps, this should be considered. The MBA and the DBA are qualifications that can both assist strategists. Institutions, however, need to rethink their approaches to life-long education and academic progression, making the difference, not only between a PhD and a DBA, but also the differentiation and commonalities between the DBA and the MBA apparent.

Some programme development of the MBA has not helped the DBA's cause. The MBA was originally designed as a post-experience qualification (Lock 1996;

Mintzberg 2004; Blass and Weight 2005; Blass and Weight 2005b). In the UK there has been a proliferation of MBA programmes offered by business schools, driven mainly by financial motivations, designed to capture a seemingly insatiable demand from young, mainly international students with little or no experience and probably little or no skills in English (Arnot 2006; Kleiman and Kass 2007). As a result the credibility of many post-graduate programmes has diminished. This is damaging for the DBA. The DBA is novel and is experimenting with innovations in delivery and assessment that will make the market suspicious. There is also some, albeit thankfully limited, evidence at this time, of the type of development that has been witnessed on some MBA programmes. There are, however, some worrying examples. The ABS, using HESA data, found that Herriot-Watt University (Edinburgh Business School) and Nottingham Trent University claim to be supervising around one hundred and fifty and one hundred DBA students respectively (Universities UK 2007; Davies 2008). In both institutions this is an exponential increase in the number of DBAs they are administering. It is believed that many of these students are international.

As well as credibility issues around the MBA award and its impact of postgraduate education per se, there are issues about the contribution and transferability of MBA content and approaches to DBA study. StuA5 believed that the MBA is of limited value to participants (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.1.1). StaffC7 questioned the value of an MBA in developing researchers as students on the DBA need to unlearn many of the formulaic aspects taught on the MBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.1.2). They suggested that MBA students who proceeded on to a DBA would need to take a very different approach to their studies. A number of respondents commented that the MBA provides an overview but is superficial (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.1.3: StuA2; StaffF3; StaffC7; StaffC8). In particular, one experienced member of staff believed that in fact MBA students have to unlearn many of the aspects of the MBA when they take a DBA (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 7.1). It is felt that much MBA learning is too superficial and mechanical for doctoral research. “You can’t churn it like you can churn an MBA” (StaffC p.8). This could make

the link between the MBA and the DBA far less tenuous than originally supposed. Most, if not all DBA programmes explicitly make the association between the two in validation or marketing documents. Typically, entry requirements will include the requirement for a MBA or equivalent masters' level qualification. Undoubtedly, the target markets for the MBA and DBA are similar, if only that they are both (or should be) aimed at practitioners. Perhaps, a fundamental difference between the two is that the DBA is a programme for those practitioners who want to undertake in-depth reflection on practice. Following previous discussion, these will often be strategists in organisations. It is essential that the DBA does not adopt some of the more unsavoury manifestations of the MBA in the recent past. The development of questionable MBAs is enormously damaging, not only to the MBA qualification itself, but to HE generally. The MBA was held in high regard in the wider business community. Its reputation, however, has been diminished by the relaxing of entry requirements and frankly the poor quality of some institutions offering the award. If this happens to the DBA, at this early stage in its development, this may be a terminal blow to its future.

#### ***12.3.5.3 The DBA's Future Form and Delivery***

It could be claimed that delivery structures that professional doctorates, such as the DBA, have developed have led to changes in PhD delivery (Bourner et al. 2000; Maxwell 2008). The DBA should be a qualification for practitioners and therefore part-time. It would not be reasonable, practical or even desirable for practitioners to take three years from the workplace taking a full time DBA. Taught elements, block and weekend delivery in cohorts enhance the student experience, particularly strategists. The future of DBA delivery must be dominated by flexibility. This is essential for business people who will probably be in reasonable positions. The DBA provides a flexible approach to studying organisational issues (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.11) is an emergent theme identified by four respondents, two staff, one student and one staff/ student (StuA8; StaffF14; StaffD16; SSB7). The quote by SSB puts this theme into some

context, “I think research is a process rather than a product; you never know what product you can get.” (p.7). Understanding the process is the element of professional development that is important. As well as the flexibility that the DBA offers to studying organisational issues and its potential impact in the understanding of organisational strategic development, StaffF7 identified that the structure of delivery of the DBA might lead to a speedier completion (See Appendix E – Summary Table: 1.2.12) which, although is a structural benefit of the DBA, it is potentially important in professional development with the demands of modern day business and learning. Whether directed or distance learning can be applied to DBA delivery is questionable (Butcher and Sieminski 2006). The culture of HE institutions, however, has to change to encompass research at the highest level in the workplace. Increasingly there is a requirement for research in the UK to move from universities to the workplace (Gibbons et al. 1994; Jarvis 2000; Scott et al. 2004). The DBA is a vehicle to operationalise this engagement with practice. Mode 2 knowledge production (Gibbons et al. 1994) implies that increasingly we will see knowledge produced in the workplace, rather than universities. New, innovative and appropriate mechanism for higher-level (strategic) knowledge production needs to be developed. It is argued here that the DBA is a suitable vehicle for this task and in its adoption will lead to the development of strategists based in organisations.

A number of negative points were made about the capacity of institutions to actually deliver DBA programmes effectively. A focus on supervisory capacity was apparent. This is a recurring theme in HE globally, and not just in DBAs and the UK (Gibbons 1999; Maxwell 2003). The specific issue of staff lacking sufficient industrial knowledge, however, might be significant when the focus of the study is on practice, rather than theory. The credibility of staff in the eyes of strategists is an important one. Perhaps the progression of practitioners into academia through the DBA route might address this issue of context and relevance of knowledge in academia. The institutional capacity to supervise, mentor and staff DBA programmes is a major issue. There is a global problem with the number of doctoral supervisors available and the numbers of students



wanting to take doctorates (Kendall 2002). This is compounded by the nature of doctoral research, which, by its very nature is specialised and is dependent on the goodwill of staff and examiners. It is difficult to see how certain institutions claim to be supervising DBAs to an adequate standard in the numbers they claim to be with their staffing levels. More innovative assessment may not alleviate the problem and may, in fact, result in the need for more supervisory hours to be expended on DBAs.

As yet there is no really meaningful data on DBA completion rates available. Thus the impact of DBA programmes on the pitifully low doctorate completion figures reported in business and management cannot be assessed (Quality Assurance Agency 2008). Fundamental to the long-term viability of the DBA, however, is fulfilment of its *raison d'être*, the DBAs contribution to practice. This defines the DBA. As has been previously discussed, however, there are real issues emerging from this study about DBA delivery, structure and process. Although a range of different forms of DBA have emerged and they are still evolving, some issues, common to any doctorate and some specific to DBAs, have been identified. Agency respondent ASA stated, "Look, I think the organisational impact of those people who have positions within an organisation has probably been really quite limited." (p.9) This is a respondent with a wide and in-depth knowledge of UK DBAs. The respondent went on to say, "I wouldn't, and you wouldn't, I'm sure, recommend the DBA as, you know, the route to being a CEO." (p.14) Both these quotations are of concern. The first statement calls in question the impact of the DBA on practice and the second raises issues about the target market for the DBA. Irrespective of where strategists are found in organisations, many CEOs will either be instrumental in making the decision to support their employees taking DBAs.

Although there has been a proliferation in number of programmes, there are a number of areas that are causes for concern for the long-term viability of the award. It is essential for the DBA to differentiate itself. It is not clear that it has done that. The new route PhD and taught PhD structures described by Green and

Powell (2005) make the PhD resemble the DBA. Johnston and Murray (2004) believe HE in the UK cannot just re-package the PhD. They propose that there has to be a sea change in the approach to research and higher level awards in UK HE. The DBA might be the agent to bring around the required change. Critical for the success of the DBA is its engagement with practice, its ability to bridge what Starkey and Madan (2001) called the relevance gap and contribute to knowledge. At this stage this is not yet clear that the DBA is achieving these core aims. This research indicates, however, that, in terms of developing strategists, the DBA might have a positive influence. But, this and other benefits of the DBA need to be made more explicit and this can only be done with more detailed empirical research.

#### **6.4 Findings and Discussion: Conclusion**

This chapter has explored the research aim and objectives. The approach taken has allowed a range of findings to emerge from the respondents. The inductive method exposed eight superordinate themes. When this analysis was considered in light of the research objectives a narrative was developed that illuminates the central research question.

Not all findings were positive in terms of the impact of DBAs on strategists. As will be argued in the conclusion to this work, however, this research indicates that the DBA can positively impact the development of strategic characteristics in individuals. The thesis now concludes with a critical reflection on the work, highlighting areas for further research and concluding a commentary.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS

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### 7.1 Critical Assessment of Own Work

This section of the dissertation is a critical reflection on the thesis by the author of the study. It reflects the personal journey that the author has taken through the course of writing this work. The writer highlights issues that occurred during the research and writing of the thesis.

It should be noted that the thesis (300 D level credits), although the most important single element of the DBA, is the final element in a taught programme that includes another seven taught and assessed modules, amounting to 240 credits. These modules are:

- Leadership (40 D level credits)
- Knowledge management (40 D level credits)
- Sustainability (40 D level credits)
- Research philosophy (40 D level credits)
- Qualitative research methods (40 D level credits)
- Quantitative research methods (20 D level credits)
- Thesis defence (20 D level credits)

This structure of DBA is what has been described as a Research and Subject form in this work. It was fortunate (or by design) that all the modules, to a lesser or greater extent, contributed to the writer's understanding of the subjects being investigated and the research methodology and methods applied.

At the outset of the DBA the writer had actually intended to undertake the research in a completely different area, namely, control relationships between parent and subsidiary organisations. After a period it, however, became obvious

that the author would be unable to access the required information to undertake the study in sufficient depth. This emphasises the point that it is preferable that DBA students should be based in the organisations they are studying or at least have easy access to that organisation and adopt an action research method. It is questionable whether the research undertaken for this thesis is a form of action research. The writer, however, is an active participant in the development of strategists, they are also a strategist and the writer is involved in the development of the DBA within their own institution and at national and international levels.

In some ways it is recognised that the study is an anomaly, in that the writer is a member of a business school faculty and is taking a DBA within their own institution. It could be argued that the writer should have studied for a PhD or a professional doctorate in education, an EdD. The author, however, decided, and the awarding institution allowed, the writer to take a DBA as the writer has explored a management subject, the strategist, in the context of a relatively new educational product area. Importantly, during the study the writer has been involved in a DBA, as a student, a tutor and a strategist and therefore can be considered as a practitioner.

The writer is confident that this work represents a significant contribution to knowledge and, most importantly, practice. The writer has been involved in strategic management as a practitioner in both the public and private sectors and has also been academic researcher, lecturer, mentor and consultant in this area for over twenty years. The writer has been intimately involved with postgraduate and executive education since entering academia ten years ago. This is not only as a participant, but also through personal interest in executive education, the writer has developed a real passion for the DBA and its underpinning values. The writer has attempted to temper their enthusiasm for the DBA and professional doctorates, to allow, as a far as possible, a critical perspective on their development in this work. But, fundamentally, the author of this work is an advocate for the DBA.

Being on the inside as both a student and academic involved with the development of the DBA has provided the researcher with a unique perspective on this important area of research. The thesis has taken approximately four years to produce. During this period there has been some development in DBAs in the UK, mainly in terms of the number of institutions offering the award. In terms of growth of a body of research in the UK or internationally, there is still, nevertheless, a paucity of in-depth research on DBAs. This has been both a help and a hindrance.

The author's access to fellow academics in the strategy subject area or involved with the development of DBAs has allowed the author's original perspective on the potential link between the DBA and strategists to be tested in one-to-one conversations and in open forum such as the annual ABS DBA conferences in the UK. This has been invaluable, providing the author with information on current trends, research and developments. It also provided the author with regular 'sanity checks' as the paranoia that seems to develop in all forms doctoral research built up an uncomfortable presence in the psyche of the writer. Fortunately, to the knowledge of the researcher, a paper or thesis looking at the same topic, or anything like it, has not been published at the time of writing.

The writer has attempted to take as objective a view of the topic as possible. Because, however, the writer is so close to the topics being studied, personal bias will inevitably be a feature of the study. Although the writer's ontological stance tends towards positivism, the subject of the study required a more interpretivist approach. In fact, the study's methodology adopts a critical realist epistemology. This recognises that the interpretation of data will, to an extent, reflect the views of the writer. Also, the subject area will practically be impossible to study in the depth required using a positivist, objective stance. This position was only recognised by the writer after considerable critical reflection and, not to be too dramatic, an amount of 'soul-searching'. The writer is now comfortable with this position. It allows the writer to accept that the research will not reach irrefutable conclusions, but still acknowledges the author's belief that objectivity underpins

all human action. There was some pressure on the author to write this work in the first person. The author recognised the point of the argument, but felt far more comfortable writing in the third person. This is consistent with the author's ontological and epistemological positions.

The empirical method employed in this study, based on interviews, was somewhat alien to the writer. Previous research conducted by this individual had tended to be quantitative or based on extensive surveys. The researcher, on the whole, found that respondents readily agreed to be interviewed. Although the interviews, because of their geographical spread and availability of interviewees, took several months to complete, the writer found it very useful to visit institutions and interviewees in their place of work. This provided considerable background information that aided the interpretation of interviews. The writer is concerned that sufficient interviews were conducted. For two reasons, however, the researcher is satisfied that this is the case. Firstly, messages from respondents were becoming consistent, that is, the interviewer was hearing the same thing from a variety of respondents. Secondly, the depth of analysis required for each interview would have made it impractical to interview many more individuals. In fact, the literature (Patton 1990), would suggest that a maximum of eight people were incorporated into the research.

Initially, the author chose a method of data analysis, IPA. This an inductive approach to data analysis derived from research in psychology. This method was adopted because it utilises an inductive approach whereby phenomenon are explored within their natural context. By focusing on the accounts of individuals' experiencing the phenomena as it is, the researcher can be open to new and emerging perspectives. The technique openly acknowledges the researcher's own personal values and predispositions will influence the process of making sense of the participants' experiences and meaning making. The method also has a rigorous structure in the identification of emergent themes, master and superordinate themes that the researcher found useful. It was found, however, that IPA required a level of analysis of individual respondent motivations that was

beyond the capacity and analytical capabilities of the interviewer. Also, the interview schedule utilised did not lend it to in-depth analysis of the motivations of each respondent. Therefore, the author adopted the basic IPA structure but amended it by using a less psychologically intensive level of analysis.

Data was initially analysed using MS Word documents and comments boxes. Themes were then identified using MS Excel spreadsheets. This was a very manual process of data analysis. The researcher, however, was comfortable with this approach and it allowed a relatively detailed analysis of the data and clear identification of themes. Using the MS Excel spreadsheet allowed cross-referencing of themes and objectives. With hindsight a qualitative analytical computer package such NVivo could have been used instead of this manual process. The researcher's experience, however, with this type of package was limited and the researcher was comfortable with the approach taken.

The Findings and Discussion section allowed the writer to examine key research objectives derived from the literature in the context of the findings from the data. It is felt by the writer that, although this is a detailed discussion, the research aim and objectives have been addressed and a clear narrative is developed. It is intended that this chapter of the study is far more a flowing narrative telling a story that the reader can follow. The writer was aware that the discussion presented had to be based in both the literature and the research findings. This is a long chapter, but it is felt by the author that the key messages are not lost in the narrative. The penultimate chapter, Further Areas for Research, highlights other research findings that are worthy of further research that are not directly related to the aim and objectives of the study. This is important as the inductive approach taken allowed some interesting findings to emerge from the study that may be of interest to a reader or even be areas that the researcher will explore in the future.

From inception to completion the thesis took over six years to complete. The method and approach to the subject have been emergent. Would the writer have done it differently? Yes, of course. It is felt, however, that the study has rigour

and integrity. Importantly, the thesis has been based in practice and offers a contribution to practice and knowledge. The writer feels that the structure of the DBA was supportive of their learning. Taught modules with assessment provided focus for the writer, particularly as work and personal commitments often provided competing demands on the writer's time. Some of the subject-based modules had limited application to the research undertaken. Each module, however, asked the student to consider different aspects of management and, or, the process of research and were beneficial. The thesis stage of the DBA appears to have taken an approach more akin to a PhD. Additional support mechanisms and alternative structures would have perhaps made the process of completing a meaningful and valuable piece of research more efficient and effective. The time expended, the depth of research undertaken and the length of the final thesis is evidence of this as an issue. This has not, however, diminished the experience of the writer. If anything, it has added to the writer's sense of satisfaction in the work they have completed. The following chapter addresses areas for further research.

## **7.2 Further Research**

This chapter addresses a number of areas for further research. Most of these areas have already been identified in earlier sections, but it was felt that highlighting and producing a coherent view of the areas that may require further investigation is a useful exercise. Some of the areas will have direct relevance to this research's aim and objectives. Others issues will be of indirect or tangential relevance to the study's aim, but, raising them in this work may inform readers.

### ***7.2.1 Mapping the DBA landscape***

The available data on DBAs and doctorates in general is limited. The HESA data does not identify DBAs as a distinct category of award and amalgamates it and other forms of doctorate under the single title, 'doctorate'. At this time HESA do not intend to collect data that differentiates between doctorates. The ABS



produced some data on institutions offering DBAs for the ABS DBA conference in Bradford in May 2008. This survey, however, used additional commentary supplied voluntarily by institutions with the HESA data. Therefore, the information could be seen as unreliable and if the data is examined there are some anomalies. The sort of information that would be useful in mapping the DBA landscape would be:

- Institutions
  - Which institutions offer or intend to offer the DBA?
  - When did institutions begin offering or when do institutions intend to begin offering the programme?
  - What are the motivations for offering the DBA?
  - What are the target markets for the DBA programmes?
- Student numbers:
  - Number recruited (per cohort, if applicable)
  - Progression rates
  - Completion rates
- Background of the student:
  - Industry
  - Position
  - Career history
  - Education
  - Ethnicity
  - Gender
  - Age
  - Sponsors
- Structure of the programme
  - Length of the programme
  - Course content
  - Student contact
  - Delivery pattern, e.g. Part-time/ full time; weekend/ block/ or other

- Assessment methods
- Thesis or key project areas (Where applicable)
- Background of faculty
  - Academic expertise
  - Industrial experience
  - Age
  - Gender
  - Ethnicity

Most of the above data could be collected via survey. Some, however, might have to be gained through interview. This information would give the DBA community a much clearer picture of who is delivering DBAs and how DBA courses are structured. It would also provide in valuable information on who is attracted to DBAs and the completion rates. As the market becomes more sophisticated in terms of doctoral education this information will become a requirement and could either be collated by HESA or a body such as ABS.

The motivations of sponsors were not examined in any real depth in this study and it certainly would be an area that is worthy of research in the future. Staff and agency interviewees indicated that the number of sponsored students was less than expected. Again, this has implications for recruitment. For those that are sponsored it would be interesting to explore whether the sponsoring organisations were purely instrumental in their motivations.

There was a belief that completion rates are not as high as was expected from a more structured programme of study. This, it is believed is a major driver for a move to a more structured doctorate with taught elements. This was an observation and there is a lack of empirical evidence to support this assertion. It is an area that requires further investigation, particularly a comparative analysis of completion rates on different forms of delivery was examined and student exit (prior to completion) interviews were conducted to explore the reasons for non completion.

Other areas for further research that emerged from the literature and the findings of this study would build upon an overall perspective. The themes are wide ranging and perhaps reflect personal interests of the author of the work.

### ***7.2.2 DBA Course Content and Delivery***

The balance between application, contribution to practice, and credible academic research, contribution to knowledge is a difficult area that vexes both academia and government alike. As has been discussed there have been numerous Government reports and university initiatives to address the gap between academic research. It appears that the DBA to a limited extent has begun to address some aspects of this divide. It is clear, however, that this is restricted and the traditional culture, or, as Noble states "... educational inertia ..." (1994, p.11), of academic research based around the values and practices of the PhD still dominates. How long the academic community can still expect to draw on the public purse while, in certain areas, seemingly produce little new knowledge that can be applied to business or the wider society?

The relevance of thematic (subject) DBAs or elements of DBAs, such as leadership or technology is questionable. In this research, staff respondents from a thematic course examined gave the impression that the thematic title of the award was used primarily as a marketing tool. This could be examined alongside another emergent research area discussed below, the relevance of functional or industry knowledge in the development of a strategist/ doctorate. Should the DBA be, like an MBA, a more generalist award? The 'generalism' might come from a set of generic research skills and an insistence that students apply their research to strategic issues in organisations. The latter suggestion might be problematic, as a doctoral piece of research requires focus. This raises a fundamental question, whether doctoral study is too focused to be applicable in a strategic context? This will be addressed in the concluding section of this work.

The question of how important emergent themes such as corporate social responsibility (CSR) and ethics are being introduced on DBA courses is an area that might be researched in depth. The exponential growth in interest in the subject of CSR and ethical business (Matten et al. 2003) and its absorption into the fabric of business and government practice has been a feature of the new Millennium. It would be interesting to examine how programmes, such as the DBA, that should attract actual or potential business leaders and strategists, have incorporated, if they have at all, CSR, into their content.

An interesting psychological question is whether students become dissatisfied and less certain when they take the DBA. This has a number of implications for course recruitment, structures, delivery and impacts on the student and their organisations. This does not assume that dissatisfied and less certain individuals is necessarily negative. It would be expected that a doctorate should make individuals less certain and more questioning, that is a basic characteristic of a strategist (Howard 1989; Eden 1990; Kao 1997; Heracleous 1998; Chung and McLarney 1999; Linkow 1999; Bonn 2001; Cummings 2002).

As this study has highlighted, the DBA cannot be disaggregated from other forms of doctorate and executive education, particularly the MBA. As has been discussed the link to and impact of the MBA is not as clear-cut as is first assumed. Is the DBA the 'gold card' for MBAs as described by Kay (1995)? If the DBA is to have a long-term place in the portfolios of universities or other providers of HE in the future, its relationship, not only with other doctorates, but also with other lower forms of executive education has to be clearly established. Again, this is an area ripe for research.

### **7.2.3 Strategists**

As this research has shown, we do not know enough about strategists. This study, whilst acknowledging different perspectives, views strategists in terms of how strategists develop their notions of the strategic issues, rather than examining how

others develop their perception of strategists. The strategist as a social construction (Scott et al. 2004) and the notion of power and strategists are both interesting areas for research. In terms of an area for further research is on the requirement for a strategist to possess functional competence. Strategy occurs at a functional level (De Wit and Meyer 2005). It is not clear, however, if strategists need to be a functional specialist, for example, an engineer, or an accountant. Alongside this area, another emerging question from this research is the requirement for strategists to have in-depth industry knowledge (Ohmae 1982). Both these areas were not really addressed by respondents, but are significant in terms of programme recruitment and structure. More importantly further research in these areas might inform future human resource policies and staff selection for particular roles.

As yet no longitudinal research has been conducted on DBA graduates and their career progression. A range of motivations for students taking doctorates such as the DBA have already been identified but no empirical research has been conducted to examine what actually happens to DBA students after completion of their courses.

#### ***7.2.4 Conclusion: Further Research***

The DBA is potentially an exciting area for research. Comparative research with other forms of doctorate would be interesting in all of the areas mentioned above. Research on DBAs has been limited with much of the empirical work being conducted in Australia. Professional doctorates, in whatever form, will be part of the portfolio of HE providers in the future. Sponsors, government, institutions and most importantly students, however, will want more objective research undertaken around the sort of issues outlined above. There is more clarity and consistency about what a DBA is and where it is placed in the market. What is not clear is how it gets that message to the market and whether the market is willing to invest the considerable resources in DBA students. The themes above are far from comprehensive, but they do give a flavour of the range of

perspectives that further study into DBAs can take. What follows is the concluding chapter of this work.

### **7.3 Implications of This Research**

This research contributes to both practice and knowledge. It must be remembered that this research was conducted as a DBA thesis and therefore it is appropriate that the work contributes to practice alongside knowledge. The findings of this research are not generalisable as this is an interpretivist piece of work. Some of the findings were expected, others have emerged from the study as it has progressed. The distinction between contribution to practice and knowledge is often not clear and can be rather distracting (Candlin 2000; Winter et al 2000). The study's contribution to practice and knowledge is made through advancing our understanding of doctoral education and our comprehension of the relationship between doctoral and management education. The study also enhances theory on strategy, strategic management and those that conceive and assist in the formulation and implementation of strategy, namely strategists.

The research indicates that DBAs can contribute to the development of strategists in several ways. It is accepted that, to an extent, a strategist is a social construction (Scott et al. 2004). This work, however, proposes that a strategist is a far more real and tangible entity in an organisation. The real and tangible aspects of a strategist are manifest in what this study has identified as characteristics of a strategist. It is found that DBA programmes can contribute to the development of virtually all the characteristics of a strategist identified. Fundamentally, a DBA builds capacity in an individual to be reflexive and reflective. This is probably a claim that all doctorates, including the PhD, should be able to make. What differentiates a DBA is the context in which this reflexivity and reflection takes place. The context has two dimensions. The first is that the context for a DBA should be based in the workplace, in the practice of the individual involved. The second is the level at which the reflexivity and reflection takes place. It is argued that, in some circumstances, this is at a

strategic level. Authors, such as Ohmae (1982), view the production of strategy as "... a state of mind." (p.4) This research indicates that the DBA, across a range of characteristics, enhances an individual's ability to achieve that state of mind. The DBA can help break established patterns of strategic behaviour in the way a strategist might have traditionally deployed her or his skill set. This is an essential element of being a strategist (Chung and McLarney 1999). Most who have attempted to complete a doctorate will attest to the depth of reflection required. The reflection is not only on the subject being studied, but also the way that the researcher views the subject and the wider world context, being reflexive. Reflection at the highest level on organisational (business) issues is the primary role of a strategist. Whipp (1996) criticises the field of strategic management for lacking reflexivity. The DBA is a vehicle to enable strategists to develop reflexive and reflective capabilities in the workplace and thus to meet the challenge of commentators such as Whipp.

An issue of concern for the writer of this work is that doctorates by their very nature are focused pieces of research. Strategic decision-making requires a holistic perspective. As some respondents have attested focused doctoral research requires a far wider perspective of an issue than is perhaps portrayed in a thesis or paper, which allows an individual's holistic perspective on a particular business issue to develop.

Writers such as Mintzberg have been critical of established management programmes such as MBAs (Mintzberg 2004) because he believes their structured delivery prevents creativity and blocks intuition. This research indicates that this is not necessarily the case when someone undertakes a structured course of study leading to a DBA. There is always a danger that any form of structured study will hinder the ability of people to think originally and creatively. As the ABS, however, makes clear in its guide to DBAs (Association of Business Schools 2005) and the QAA in its 2008 DBA guidelines it is essential for all DBA students to be able to demonstrate, "... the creation and interpretation of new knowledge through original research or other advanced scholarship." (Association

of Business Schools 2005, Point 2.1; Quality Assurance Agency 2008). The creation of new knowledge via DBAs matches the practice witnessed in this research.

Zaleznik (1977) gives a compelling argument for the design of programmes to develop organisational leaders. It is hoped that this work gives a similar argument for the DBA and its contribution to developing strategists. The literature has traditionally assumed leaders are strategists. This work takes a very different view. They can be one and the same, but often they are not. The DBA might be suitable for leaders who want to develop strategic capabilities, but it is not suitable for strategists wanting to develop leadership qualities, except in one area, communications skills.

This work has an original perspective on the ability of DBAs to develop strategists. Agencies and institutions have not identified this association. As this research has demonstrated, the link is unconsciously formed. Around the central research question a number of related themes were explored. Examination of the institutional rationale for offering DBAs highlighted a number of areas. A fundamental driver in the development of DBAs is the attempt to address the relevance gap. The DBA signifies a move to Gibbons et al's (1994) mode 2 of learning. More instrumental institutional objectives such as accessing new markets and capitalising on students with MBAs were clearly in the minds of many senior university managers as they validated their DBA programmes. The evidence in this study suggests that DBAs do not actually provide the revenue streams that they were thought to bring and the relationship with the MBA is not as straightforward as first considered.

This research provided some useful insights into the extrinsic, instrumental and intrinsic motivations of those taking a DBA. The 'badge' is important to some individuals and in terms of strategy as a social construction, the doctorate title can offer credibility in a professional context, particularly in a field such as consultancy. This does not suggest that the DBA is a licence to practice as a



strategist. An interesting finding is the apparent naiveté displayed by some people in terms of expectations of a DBA. Clearly, all students that were interviewed were ambitious and aspired to, or are in, strategic positions. The researcher, however, was left with a belief that as students progressed through their DBA they became less instrumental and more reflective. But all students gave the impression of a life changing experience that had questioned their perspectives on the world in which they operate.

The different forms and evolving nature of DBA encountered during this study needs further research, particularly in terms of their impact on individuals and organisations. The results in this study were deliberately aggregated so responses from individuals who have had experience of different forms of DBA were combined to form an amalgam of perspectives. Disaggregating results by the different DBAs and types of respondent would be useful. It is believed, nevertheless, that in a study of this nature this approach would have over-complicated the analysis and would have prevented a clear overview of the topic. The DBA is a relatively new form of doctorate and associating it with the development of strategists is a novel perspective. At this stage of research into DBAs drilling down into the minutiae would have hindered investigation onto the central research aim. Future research should explore the different and evolving forms of the DBA in the context of management development from all key stakeholder perspectives. An interesting research question would be to establish what the antecedents are to successful strategists and whether such antecedents are enhanced by undertaking doctoral research. There appears to be an over-reliance on traditional forms of delivery and assessment and it also seems that the DBA community does not yet have the confidence to attempt more radical forms of course delivery or assessment. Parity with the PhD and recognition of the qualification are paramount, maintaining the gold standard in HE (Ruggeri-Stevens et al. 2001). As professional doctorates become more accepted, perhaps more relevant structures will develop around the DBA.

The central question that this thesis explored is: How can DBAs contribute to the development of strategists?" The answer is unequivocally positive. The researcher nevertheless recognises that this piece of research probably raises more questions that it could ever hope to address. Far more empirical research has to be conducted so that all stakeholders have an unambiguous view of where the DBA is today and how it can progress in the future. Although the PhD is transforming and adopting many of the forms that we associate with a professional doctorate, such as the DBA, there is necessity for a practice-based, high level qualification that will allow strategists to reflect on business activity. The DBA, however, is not just for strategists. The DBA can allow practitioners at all levels to examine and reflect. The dual divides of relevance and rigour between academia and practice might be overcome from a deeper form of research (Hodgkinson 2001) such as the DBA.

Strategists cannot be reduced to a list of essential ingredients that can be created by some form of alchemy. The characteristics of a strategist identified in this work are certainly not mutually inclusive, it is probably not a comprehensive list and the inclusion of each of the elements is open to debate. This research, however, has shown that a DBA, because of its focus and context can assist the development of strategists and perhaps aid organisational strategic decision-making. The DBA can not only contribute to practice, but it can also and should contribute to knowledge. It is hoped that the reader of this work is left with the impression that this research has achieved both.

This thesis presents a robust case for the DBA as a mechanism in the development of practice and knowledge. This thesis also provides a strong justification that the process of undertaking a DBA provides strategic decision makers with an enhanced skill set that enables them to provide better strategic decision making.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDICES

## *Appendix A: Interview Letters to Interviewees*

### **Letter to Staff**

Dear XXXX

I am undertaking an in-depth study into the form and function of DBAs. In particular I am interested in the influence, if any, the DBA has on managers and management.

To further this study I would like to examine a number of established UK DBA programmes and your University's programme is one that I would like to include in my research. For each course I am hoping to:

1. Interview to key staff (the course leader and module delivery/ supervisory staff)
2. Interview successful DBAs (preferably two or three non-faculty participants)
3. Examine course validation and publicity material
4. Examine module assessment material
5. Examine DBA thesis topics

I realise that this is a lot to ask. I can visit your institution over a number of days and interview successful DBAs at their convenience. I imagine that each interview will last around an hour. Obviously, all data collected will be handled with the normal ethical considerations that a study of this nature requires. Individuals and the institutions with which they are associated will not be revealed in the final study.

I will be able to disclose the specific nature of the research being undertaken after the interviews, but I hope you appreciate that revealing the exact research aim before interviews might compromise the data.

I hope that you can assist me in my research.

Thanks

## Letter to Agency

Dear XXXX

I am undertaking an in-depth study into the form and function of DBAs. In particular I am interested in the influence, if any, the DBA has on managers and management.

To further this study I intend to examine a number of established UK DBA programmes and institutions that have been closely involved in the development of the qualification.

As a representative of a leading agency influencing the development of the DBA in the UK, I would like to interview you and ask you very general questions about DBAs. I intend that each interview will last no more than an hour. Obviously, all data collected will be handled with the normal ethical considerations that a study of this nature requires. Individuals and the institutions with which they are associated will not be revealed in the final study.

I will be able to disclose the specific nature of the research being undertaken after the interviews, but I hope you appreciate that revealing the exact research aim before interviews might compromise the data.

I hope that you can assist me in my research.

Thanks

## Letter to Student

Dear XXXX

I am undertaking an in-depth study into the form and function of DBAs. In particular I am interested in the influence, if any, the DBA has on managers and management.

To further this study I intend to examine a number of established UK DBA programmes and institutions that have been closely involved in the development of the qualification.

As a student, who has completed the DBA, I would like to interview you and ask you very general questions about DBAs. I intend that each interview will last no more than an hour. Obviously, all data collected will be handled with the normal ethical considerations that a study of this nature requires. Individuals and the institutions with which they are associated will not be revealed in the final study.

I will be able to disclose the specific nature of the research being undertaken after the interviews, but I hope you appreciate that revealing the exact research aim before interviews might compromise the data.

I hope that you can assist me in my research.

Thanks

## *Appendix B: Interview Question Prompts*

### **Agency**

#### **Interview questions:**

1. What is your role?
2. What is your and your institution's involvement with doctoral education?
3. How does your organisation influence doctoral education?
4. What is the purpose of doctoral education in the UK today?
5. What forms of doctoral education do you recognise?
6. How do PhDs and PDs differ?
7. In terms of university delivery of doctoral education is there a difference between rhetoric and reality?
8. What do you know about the DBA?
9. What is unique about the DBA (focus; delivery)?
10. The motivations for universities offering the award
11. What are the motivations for people taking the DBA?
12. How do you see doctoral education developing?
13. Which of the following characteristics of a manager would you expect a PhD and DBA to develop (see table below)?
14. Is anything missing from the table? e.g. ability to plan or project manage; to write
15. How do managers develop these characteristics on a PhD and/ or a DBA?

### **Staff**

#### **Interview Questions (Staff):**

##### **General**

1. What is your institution's involvement with doctoral education?
2. What is your involvement with doctoral education?
3. What is the purpose of doctoral education in the UK today?
4. What forms of doctoral education do you recognise?
5. How do PhDs and PDs differ?
6. In terms of university delivery of doctoral education is there a difference between rhetoric and reality?
7. How do you see doctoral education developing?

##### **The DBA**

8. Can you describe the history of your DBA (when was it established)?
9. The are the motivations for your university offering the award?
10. How many students do you attract per cohort?
11. What has your student growth been?
12. What type of students do you attract?
  - a. Age
  - b. Sex
  - c. Location
  - d. Industry
  - e. Position
  - f. Education
  - g. Motivations/ aspirations (extrinsic and intrinsic)
13. Has this changed over the time you have offered the DBA?

14. How do you attract your students?
15. What is unique about your DBA (focus; delivery)?
16. How is your DBA delivered?
17. Have you considered other delivery forms/ structures/ patterns?
18. How do you assess on the DBA?
19. What is the focus of student study (operational or strategic)?
20. What are the common benefits with the DBA?
21. What are the common problems with the DBA?
22. Could you describe the profile of staff (age, sex, subject areas, industrial experience, etc) involved in the award?
23. The student experience – what have they gained from taking the qualification?
24. Which of the following characteristics of a manager would you expect a PhD and DBA to develop (see table below)?
25. Is anything missing from the table? e.g. ability to plan or project manage; to write
26. How do managers develop these characteristics on a PhD and/ or a DBA?
27. Future developments of the award

### **Students**

#### **Interview Questions (Students – current and completed):**

- 1 Can you describe the history of your involvement with the DBA?
- 2 What is your educational background?
- 3 What is your employment background?
- 4 What are the motivations for you taking the award?
- 5 What are the motivations for your fellow students taking the award?
- 6 How is your DBA delivered?
- 7 What is unique about your DBA (focus; delivery)?
- 8 Have you considered other DBAs? If yes, why?
- 9 How is your DBA delivered? (Subjects, delivery)
- 10 How are you assessed on the DBA?
- 11 What did your thesis (if relevant) explore?
- 12 What are the benefits of the DBA?
- 13 What are the problems with the DBA?
- 14 Which of the following characteristics of a manager would you expect a PhD and DBA to develop (see table below)?
- 15 Is anything missing from the table? e.g. ability to plan or project manage; to write
- 16 How do managers develop these characteristics on a PhD and/ or a DBA?
- 17 How have your views on management changed over the course of the DBA?
- 18 What do your colleagues, peers, friends know about the DBA?
- 19 How do you think the DBA will develop in the future?





## *Appendix C: Initial Notes & Emergent Themes*

### *Example of Initial Notes and Identification of Emergent Themes in the Analysis of a Transcript*

*(Please note – because of re-pagination the page references on the Summary table will not match the pages of this example)*

#### **Transcription of Interview**

##### **StaffA**

*(Preamble – thanks etc)*

**(Respondent)** Back to those conferences, you know, both at Grenoble, and Durham, etc. I think that, you know, it was quite clear from some of the debates that were going on that there wasn't really a consensus what the DBA was, even amongst people who were providing them...

**(Researcher) Yeah.**

...and there was quite a lot of debate, wasn't there?

**What's your, sort of, take on that?**

Well, do you want me to talk about the general DBA or the YYYY one?

**I would like you to talk on your general views on what a DBA is and if you could talk specifically about YYYY.**

Okay, the view we have is just that the DBA's equivalent to a – in standing to a PhD. But we're looking for a contribution to practice rather than necessarily a contribution to theory. Although in fairness, I think when you look at previous DBAs and PhDs, I think there is a lot of crossover...

**Yeah.**

...there is a lot of crossover there. I think when we look at the DBA offerings, there are some DBA's which have a, sort of, very large talk component, you know, for example, our colleagues down the road at Durham [laughs]...

[Laughs].

...follow that model. Whereas the DBA that we operate at YYYY, we're assuming that if somebody wanted to do an MBA they've already got one and, you know, our DBA is much more akin to a PhD.

**Yeah.**

Equivalence of PhD to DBA

**Comment [W1]:** the DBA's equivalent to a – in standing to a PhD

**Comment [W2]:** But we're looking for a contribution to practice rather than necessarily a contribution to theory.

**Comment [W3]:** Although in fairness, I think when you look at previous DBAs and PhDs, I think there is a lot of crossover...

Cross over between PhD to DBA

DBA offers a contribution to practice than necessarily to theory

Link to MBA

**Comment [W4]:** . we're assuming that if somebody wanted to do an MBA they've already got one

**Comment [W5]:** our DBA is much more akin to a PhD.

Copying a PhD

Now, obviously with PhD's currently, you know, with the Roberts agenda and so on, you know, YYYY's invested a lot of money into faculty training programmes and each of the three faculties offer faculty training programmes that cover issues such as – I can give you copies of the programmes and things, if that would be helpful. But they – as I can for the DBA, I can give you a handbook, which will give you a good insight, if you'd like...

Yes...

...a copy?

...that would great.

And I'll perhaps email that through or whatever.

Yes, that's great, thank you.

So, the, you know, we have the Faculty Training Programme now that, you know, supports students in the early stage of doing their Doctorates. But really the DBA's, sort of, pre-dated that idea and what we basically do is we have four workshops, which are generally about a week, some of them are four days; some of them are five, yeah? And the first workshop has the – in fact the students are being engaged in the workshop. The first workshop, the function is induction, so the students know what the DBA is, they know, what the objectives of the programme are and they learn a little bit

Faculty Training Programme supports students

DBA precursor for development of standardised doctoral research training

**Comment [W6]:** Faculty Training Programme now that, you know, supports students in the early stage of doing their Doctorates

**Comment [W7]:** But really the DBA's, sort of, pre-dated that idea

**Comment [W8]:** is we have four workshops

about what research is. It involves induction to the infrastructure, which is something that I place very great emphasis on personally, because the students are working remotely and so they need to access things such as the library catalogues, the computing facilities, etc. They need to interact with those remotely. So we have a large emphasis on you know what research is; how you access the resources, and we also get the students into a position where they understand what the next deliverable is that they have to deliver at the next workshop. So the first deliverable is the research proposal, that they, you know, that they have to deliver at the second workshop, so we cover that in the first workshop. Then, that's really, you know, that's really introductory in nature and the type of material that we cover is pretty much akin to the material that the, you know, the PhD students would cover on the First Year Faculty Training Programme, although it's a lot more tailored to Management. We have, within the first workshop in particular, we have a lot of orientation activity which is basically we have people from different areas of Management who'll present a short presentation on their particular research, particularly highlighting the methods that they've used and the approach that they've adopted in the research. And the objective of that really is to give the students a flavour of where they're going. The focus that I had, when I was DBA Director, was very much on this remote support and I developed a very comprehensive blackboard side as a virtual learning environment...

**Okay, yeah.**

...so I can actually show you that afterwards. But I basically wanted to put all of the resources online, so all of the presentations, or all of the links to papers that's – you can't put papers on themselves with copyright, but you can link to

Faculty training programme tailored to management

**Comment [W9]:** the PhD students would cover on the First Year Faculty Training Programme, although it's a lot more tailored to Management.

Systematic structure of support

**Comment [W10]:** and I developed a very comprehensive blackboard side as a virtual learning environment...

them and all this sort of stuff. So all the resources are in one place and there's lots of 'how to sheets', you know, instructions on how to do a literature review, how to connect to the library catalogue [laughs]...

**Comment [W11]:** lots of 'how to sheets',

**Yeah, yeah.**

...how to structure a thesis, etc. Yeah, so we've got lots of documents that are available online that the students can access.

So they then got through to the second workshop and here the focus is more on research methods, because at that stage the student, they should know what their research questions are because they've written the research proposal...

**Yes.**

...and they should have some basic idea of the research methods and then we start to go into the research methods, you know, in more detail. The next deliverable, which they deliver at the third workshop, is the Literature Review.

**Right.**

So, you know, we have sessions on the backup, what they've covered previously, and we remind them how to do a Literature Review, and we've got sample thesis on the blackboard system, etc. And then for the fourth workshop, they're required to deliver a pilot project, and the idea here is that we're wanting them to be able to really do a research, a small

research project, which takes them through all the elements of the research, so that that would involve, you know, framing the research question, identifying suitable methods, perhaps doing some form of case study, analysing it, drawing some conclusions. And then we're hoping that that then gives them the necessary skills that they can then move onto the second stage of our DBA, which is the last three years, where they actually, you know, they actually produce a thesis. You know, I came to the PhD thesis and one of the problems that we'd had was that a lot of students were losing contact in that second stage of three years, because they didn't have the support of the workshops. So the students who've entered this year, have actually got new – they've got a new student handbook and we've introduced activities for them during each of the stages so in the third year, they have to do a critique of a thesis; in the fourth year they have to do a conference paper, and then in the fifth year, you know, there's obviously the submission. So it really tried to apply a lot more structure to the, you know, to the student, you know, to the second stage. I think the other thing, the other very big development is that obviously with the Roberts Agenda, there's been a lot more focus on Research Training and our Administrators are very keen on having particular paperwork systems, etc, etc, so those have all been embedded into the DBA, so retrofitted. So it's unusual in the sense that it's both the Research Degree, but it does have a taught component, although we've been at pains to call them workshops rather than modules, because if they were modules they'd have to be credit bearing, etc, etc.

**We've gone down the credit bearing module route, that's what we want to review at this stage because we're not overly happy with the results and it's quite restricting in some ways. There are advantages to both models, and variation. Looking at the, sort of, student that you've been – you've either targeted, or attracted, 'cause I think looking at the various DBA, I've seen DBAs being developed for a particular market and it hasn't actually attracted those particular types of students. What sort of student did you envisage and what sort of student have you – I**

**Comment [W12]:** Can describe this process in findings

**Comment [W13]:** I came to the PhD thesis and one of the problems that we'd had was that a lot of students were losing contact in that second stage of three years, because they didn't have the support of the workshops.

**Comment [W14]:** So it really tried to apply a lot more structure to the, you know, to the student, you know, to the second stage

**Comment [W15]:** Roberts Agenda, there's been a lot more focus on Research Training and our Administrators are very keen on having particular paperwork systems,

**Comment [W16]:** so those have all been embedded into the DBA

**Comment [W17]:** So it's unusual in the sense that it's both the Research Degree, but it does have a taught component, although we've been at pains to call them workshops rather than modules

know this is gross generalisations of course, but what sorts of students have you then subsequently got on the course?

XXXXX |

Comment [W18]: N.B. Do not quote this section

Okay. If you look at some of the motivations for these people doing the qualification, what's the motivations, do you see for them coming to you?

Okay, that varies a lot, and you can quote me again from now on.

Okay.

I think the motivation varies a lot, that obviously academics are doing it for career reasons.

Motivations for taking DBA – Academic career advancement

Comment [W19]: I think the motivation varies a lot, that obviously academics are doing it for career reasons.

Yeah.

They're doing it for progression, etc. So the academics have very clear motivation. The – I think there are some people who are doing it for, sort of, prestige, you know, they actually want to be called Doctor, they're wanting to do it for status, etc. And we have other people who are just generally disposed to personal study and improvement, yeah. And, you know, we've got quite a few of those as well...

Motivations for taking DBA – Status

Motivations for taking DBA – Personal study and advancement

Comment [W20]: some people who are doing it for, sort of, prestige, you know, they actually want to be called Doctor

Comment [W21]: And we have other people who are just generally disposed to personal study and improvement,

Yeah...

...so quite a mix.

Motivations for taking DBA – Mixed in cohorts

Comment [W22]: so quite a mix.

Yeah.

I mean, some people are also using it as a way of changing career as well...

Motivations for taking DBA – Change career

Motivations for taking DBA – Move from industry in academia

Comment [W23]: I mean, some people are also using it as a way of changing career as well

Yeah.

...you know, so you've got, you might have people who are in industry who are thinking perhaps they might want to become an academic, etc, and it's quite a good way of them, sort of, testing the water.

Motivations for taking DBA – Move from industry in academia and "testing the water." (CHp.7)

Comment [W24]: people who are in industry who are thinking perhaps they might want to become an academic,

Comment [W25]: testing the water.

I'm particularly interested in maybe the Professional Manager, who's trying to develop their career, and I know actually, from my findings so far, that might actually be only a small percentage of the people actually taking a DBA. There are so many reasons for someone taking a DBA.

We might – I'm not sure whether we've got systematic stats. It might be worth having a word with – 'cause I actually asked our Marketing Team to actually do some breakdowns, so that we could actually identify, you know, the origins of

Comment [W26]: Contact XXXX for the stats

Comment [W27]:



our students so that we then knew what markets to target. So we might have some quantitative data where we can give you – that, you know, we can give you.

**That would be great, yeah.**

Yeah.

**If I said to you the Practicing Managers, how many, you know, what, sort of, what would you expect to give them and what would they expect to actually receive from a Doctorate? So, we're not looking here about the people after the badge and that's fair enough, that's their motivation, great. But if we're looking at the person who wanted to develop their career or even their management competency, what would you expect to offer them from a DBA?**

My personal point of view is which I think the real benefit that people get is just that they actually learn how to systematically address a problem...

**Right.**

...how to frame the question. They understand the methods that they can use to tackle the question; they learn skills, you know, that wants them collect and synthesise and analyse data, sometimes partial, you know, they learn the skills to be able

Benefits of taking the DBA – learn skills to systematically address organisational issues

**Comment [W28]:** I think the real benefit that people get is just that they actually learn how to systematically address a problem

Benefits of taking the DBA – learn skills to collect data

**Comment [W29]:** ; they learn skills

**Comment [W30]:** that wants them collect and synthesise and analyse data,

Benefits of taking the DBA – learn skills to analyse data

Benefits of taking the DBA – learn skills to synthesis data

to systematically draw conclusions. So it's really that process of improving, sort of, for want of a better word, academic maturity...

**Comment [W31]:** they learn the skills to be able to systematically draw conclusions.

**Comment [W32]:** So it's really that process of improving, sort of, for want of a better word, academic maturity

Okay.

...that I think that then equips those students with, you know, better skills to actually perform, you know, to perform their job systematically.

Benefits of taking the DBA – learn skills to draw conclusion from data

**Comment [W33]:** I think that then equips those students with, you know, better skills to actually perform, you know, to perform their job systematically.

Yes OK – but can you explain how?

Benefits of taking the DBA – learn skills to perform job systematically

Right.

...and I'm particularly interested in management and leadership. How can the DBA help develop the skill sets that enhance individual's abilities in these areas?

And that's what we're proving through a DBA is, critical thinking is clearly one of the things that we're trying to encourage [laughs].

Benefits of taking the DBA – Criticality

**Comment [W34]:** is, critical thinking is clearly one of the things that we're trying to encourage

How doe this relate to the MBA?

Well, MBA's vary a lot as well, don't they?

**Indeed, yes, yeah. But what's your reaction to them?**

I mean, it does develop critical thinking, there's no doubt about that. It doesn't have the breadth of the MBA, and I think a lot of the tools that the Strategists would need would have to be learnt elsewhere. You know, with our DBA, we're assuming that if somebody had wanted to do an MBA that they'd already got one. So the DBA by itself wouldn't equip somebody for that, unless that was their particular thesis, yeah?

**Yeah.**

Although I think it would help develop their personal skills that would encourage that. And I think what's also, you know, I was mentioning the Code of Practice, I mean, one of the things that we started to do is the, sort of, self-assessment of skills audit...

**Okay.**

...so the students go through an audit procedure, a self audit, there's a number of skills and, you know, again, this is out of the Roberts Agenda, that they basically identify where they are with respect to those skills and then, you know, if, you know, if they wish, they can either, I mean obviously the workshop package we have on the DBA is prescribed, you know,

Benefits of taking the DBA – Criticality

Issue with DBA – lack of breadth

Issue with DBA – other strategic skills would have to be learnt elsewhere

Support for students – self assessment audit

Support for students – Faculty Training Programmes

Support for students – EDAMBA workshops

**Comment [W35]:** it does develop critical thinking, there's no doubt about that.

**Comment [W36]:** It doesn't have the breadth of the MBA, and I think a lot of the tools that the Strategists would need would have to be learnt elsewhere.

**Comment [W37]:** You know, with our DBA, we're assuming that if somebody had wanted to do an MBA that they'd already got one.

**Comment [W38]:** So the DBA by itself wouldn't equip somebody for that, unless that was their particular thesis, yeah?

**Comment [W39]:** I think it would help develop their personal skills that would encourage that.

**Comment [W40]:** we started to do is the, sort of, self-assessment of skills audit...

**Comment [W41]:** so the students go through an audit procedure, a self audit, there's a number of skills and, you know

but if they wanted to attend Faculty Training Programmes or if they wanted to attend other programmes by EDAMBA workshops or whatever, you know, that we can help them identify those based upon that audit. We haven't been as systematic with that as we should be, to be honest, but...

**Comment [W42]:** Faculty Training Programmes or if they wanted to attend other programmes by EDAMBA workshops or whatever, you know, that we can help them identify those based upon that audit

**I think you're well ahead of the game.**

It's something that's evolving.

DBA is evolving

**Comment [W43]:** It's something that's evolving

**Yeah, I've got to think, you know, looking at other Institutions, including my own, I think you're well ahead of the game on that. I don't that's even really been systematically thought through in many organisations.**

I mean, what we're doing here is, these things are all linking into progression.

**Yeah, right.**

So, I mean, going back to the postgraduate, you know, the ordinary PhD, you know, the process is becoming a lot more prescriptive, you know, we've just developed an E progression system, which is a web portal, and the students submit their documents electronically and there's basically a workflow model and it involves the student, the Director of Postgraduate Training, the Head of School, the Dean, etc, and, you know, one can track...

PhD moving to structures adopted by DBA

**Comment [W44]:** the ordinary PhD, you know, the process is becoming a lot more prescriptive,

**Yeah, that's a huge cultural shift as well as a...**

That's a huge cultural shift. It was piloted last year in Medicine and in Natural Science, yeah, but it's going to be...

**I can see Medicine and Natural Science, okay.**

But it's going to be rolled out this year.

**That's interesting.**

So we're into a situation where we've got a lot more transparency and we've got a lot more accountability and we've got the onset of these new systems and so the, you know, meeting those requirements, you know, it has to be demonstrated potentially through audit. So, you know, the student handbook has to reflect the Code of Practice and its requirements; the progression has to reflect it, you know, etc. So, the self-assessment of skills is part of that; I can show you the paperwork afterwards, if you're interested.

**Yeah, that's an interesting aspect to it, certainly from my own experiences of the major issues, and many Institutions about that, not for probably the right reasons, but cultural reasons, I think particularly in Business Schools, where there's a very different traditions of more than aware.**

Drivers for structures and support – requirement for transparency and accountability (Code of Practice)

**Comment [W45]:** So we're into a situation where we've got a lot more transparency and we've got a lot more accountability and we've got the onset of these new systems and so the, you know, meeting those requirements,

**Comment [W46]:** the student handbook has to reflect the Code of Practice

But the problem that you have is, which I think that when you – in fact, in the Times Higher last week, you’ll have noticed that there were statistics published on the number of PhD’s submitted on time, etc, you know, that these are feeding into the Leagues Tables, etc. And I’m actually an Engineer by background, so I’ve come from a different culture anyway...

Failure of PhDs to complete a driver for more structured support

Comment [W47]: Get this report

Yes, yes.

...but the you know, I think that the, sort of, traditional social science model, where you just let the students muddle on, and you have, you know, a dreadful completion, submission rates, I personally don’t think that that’s acceptable...

Failure of PhDs to complete reflects badly on league tables

Comment [W48]: these are feeding into the Leagues Tables,

Nor do I.

...particularly when you look at the fees that the students are paying and the amount of commitment in time, I think that actually standardising the process with students actually, it reduces the uncertainty a lot. I mean, you’re never going to get it down to zero, but you’ll hopefully get nearer to those targets of 80%, you know, than we are currently.

Traditional PhD model of muddling through – GQ “... [The] traditional social science model, where you just let the students muddle on ...” (CHp.12)

Comment [W49]: traditional social science model, where you just let the students muddle on

Comment [W50]: a dreadful completion, submission rates, I personally don’t think that that’s acceptable

Yeah. Do you think there’s a, and really to bring it together, do you think there’s a future for the MBA – for the DBA, rather? It’s been questioned at virtually every Institution I’ve visited, there is a big question mark hanging over the DBA as a long-term project.

Structured approach reduces uncertainty

Comment [W51]: standardising the process with students actually, it reduces the uncertainty a lot.

Comment [W52]: targets of 80%,

At YYYY, the part-time DBA has a very limited market and I would have a question mark over that's long-term future, because it, you know, it's actually more expensive to deliver because you've got staff travelling across Europe to deliver it. The full-time DBA appears to be getting ever increasing numbers. You know, it's small scale still, but if you can get commonality with PhD programmes, that's fine. So I think there will be a DBA of some sort, but quite exactly which market it's tackling is not clear. I mean I, you know, I would personally prefer us to identify clearer markets that the DBA is to address and then have a far more focussed product...

**Right.**

...because I think that the product that we've got at present between YYYY and WWWW, you know, it's quite clearly not recruiting in the numbers that we would like to recruit, at the quality of student we would like to recruit and, you know, it never has done. But that's, sort of, anecdotal evidence.

**Yeah, I think if I could get hold of the numbers, I don't think there's a DBA in the country that's making any money, even Henley.**

Their fees are very high as well.

**Their fees are very high, but certainly the indication I got from them was, everybody thinks we're making money, but we're not. Cranfield think they break even on it, but even they're not sure...**

Issue with the DBA – GQ “I would have a question mark over that's long-term future ...” (CHp.12)

Future of DBAs – commonality with PhD

Issue with the DBA – limited part-time market

Issue with the DBA – Unclear market focus

Issue with DBA – not recruiting target numbers

**Comment [W53]:** the part-time DBA has a very limited market

**Comment [W54]:** I would have a question mark over that's long-term future

**Comment [W55]:** it's actually more expensive to deliver because you've got staff travelling across Europe to deliver it

**Comment [W56]:** The full-time DBA appears to be getting ever increasing numbers.

**Comment [W57]:** it's small scale still, but if you can get commonality with PhD programmes, that's fine

**Comment [W58]:** there will be a DBA of some sort, but quite exactly which market it's tackling is not clear

**Comment [W59]:** I would personally prefer us to identify clearer markets that the DBA is to address

**Comment [W60]:** quite clearly not recruiting in the numbers that we would like to recruit,

No.

...and they're putting through the biggest volumes in the Country by some chalk.

I don't think – I think in fairness though, I don't think YYYY are doing the DBA for financial reasons...

Institutional motivations for doing the DBA – not financial

Comment [W61]: I don't think XXXX are doing the DBA for financial reasons

No.

...and, you know, I think that the DBA does make quite a lot of intangible contributions to the Institution here, you know, we've certainly got a strong focus on internationalisation and we're, you know, we're developing a memorandum of understanding with various Institutions. And I think having a, you know, having a strong relationship with WWWW, which is, you know, it's one of the leading Institutions in France, you know, I think that that's, you know, that that's seen as being positive in terms of profile. And I think also offering a DBA, you know, I think there is an expectation that leading Business Schools should offer DBA's.

Institutional motivations for doing the DBA – Internationalisation

Comment [W62]: DBA does make quite a lot of intangible contributions to the Institution

Comment [W63]: we've certainly got a strong focus on internationalisation

Comment [W64]: we're developing a memorandum of understanding with various Institutions

Comment [W65]: I think also offering a DBA, you know, I think there is an expectation that leading Business Schools should offer DBA's.

Yes.

We're never going to make any money out of it unless we get higher volume. I mean the other issue we've got as well is that it's supervisory capacity...

Issue with DBA – supervisory capacity

Comment [W66]: We're never going to make any money out of it unless we get higher volume

Comment [W67]: I mean the other issue we've got as well is that it's supervisory capacity...



**Yeah.**

...that again, going back to this Code of Practice, we have very firm criteria as who can and who can't supervise PhDs or Doctorates rather, and this includes DBA's, that you, in order to supervise a DBA one has to have a Doctorate oneself. You have to be demonstratively research active, in other words, you have to have a recent publication and you also have to have to had two previous completions, yeah? Now, we've probably got about a third of staff that meet that requirement...

Supportive structure – Code of Practice regulates who can supervise

**Comment [W68]:** Code of Practice

**Comment [W69]:** we have very firm criteria as who can and who can't supervise PhDs or Doctorates rather, and this includes DBA's,

**You're about the same as us, probably, we're slightly less, so you've got exactly the same.**

...about a third. So one of the issues strategically is trying to develop that capacity, so it's basically an apprentice model we have whereby the Primary Supervisor is the old hand, done it before several times and then he will collaborate with the Secondary Supervisor, who can be somebody who hasn't got any experience, and that then enables them to not shut the completions. But it's obviously a slow process. And so one of the things again, that I've started to pay attention to, you know, when I was Director of the DBA was actually being a lot more strategic about how you selected supervisors. The fact that, you know, it didn't make much sense to put two Primary Supervisors together [laughs], for example, you know, or two people who were capable of being Primary Supervisors, because that was, you know, that that was sucking up the limited capacity, because again in a Code of Practice, there's an intended limit of six, a maximum of six students per Supervisor, yeah? Although the Dean's, in practice, he's quite flexible on that, providing the students get a good service.

Issue with DBA – supervisory capacity

**Comment [W70]:** strategically is trying to develop that capacity,

**Yeah, yeah.**

Also he gets some people, like myself I'm very enthusiastic about Research students and, you know, I've put a lot of time into it, so he's happy for me to have more. But there's still obviously a capacity constraint.

**Yes. The, sort of, issues you've been talking about, yeah, are absolutely core to what the DBA is at. I still think it's got the – whether it's got the market credibility to actually carry on. Although I suspect with post RAE and the Government's focus on engagement in business and practice, that there might be a re-doubling of efforts to develop the DBA or a practice based PhD, but to my mind, quite clearly you've got the DBA as a practice based contribution to knowledge and the PhD, which is clearly research.**

Exactly, and again, at YYYY we've put a lot of focus on engagement, you know, we've appointed five Professors of Practice, you know, who are Senior Industrialists from outside who've been given Professor positions. I don't know the details, but you'll find it on the web, and there's a, sort of, list, there's a list, so, you know, we are actually, you know, I think YYYY really does...

**You're embedded in the...**

...want to embed that, and also we've got, you know, we've got Science City in YYYY...

**Yes, yeah.**

Institution  
ethos based in  
practice

**Comment [W71]:** at XXXX we've put a lot of focus on engagement, you know, we've appointed five Professors of Practice.

...which is a very good initiative, you know, it was John Prescott had the idea and the University, together with the Regional Development Agency and the Council, they've bought the old Brewery site that was just over there...

**Oh, yeah.**

...and it's – they spent about 35 million on the land and the intention is that that will be, you know, that's likely to be where the new Business School's located and again, it's to stimulate the, you know, I think the idea is to spin out companies that they'll be consultancies, etc, etc, etc, and it's still quite undefined. But that's the, you know, it's very much a practice orientated agenda that's driving that, but it's not just from the University, it's from the regional perspective as well, so again, you know, the DBA, could potentially underpin that type of activity.

**Brilliant, thank you very much, excellent.**

I hope I've answered...

XXXX |

...there's not a clear position.

Comment [W72]: N.B. Not for quotation

**Brilliant. Thank you very much, great.**

Do you want the handbook and so on?

**Yeah...**

Have you got a memory stick or do you want to...?

**I'll e-mail you and can you send it?**

I'll throw it back for you?

**That's fine. I'm going to whiz up and see Lucy now, because I'm trying to get the, sort of, five o'clockish – is the gate to the other...?**

It's a ten minute walk.

**I've got a map, so...**

Okay, that's fine. I mean, I can tell you in very broad terms.



*Appendix D: Summary Table*

*(N.B. This also includes columns on the right hand side of the table that indicate each emergent themes association with the study's research themes)*



## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

## Research Findings: Superordinate, Master and Emergent Themes

## Reference Coding

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## RESEARCH AREAS (Themes)

								Institutional Rationale	Individual Motivations for Starting a DBA	Different Forms of DBA	Approaches to Delivering the DBA	Impact on an Individual of Taking DBA	Future of DBAs
	Superordinate Theme		Master Themes	Emergent Themes		Reference (page)	Quotes						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	The DBA assist in career advancement	1.2.7	StaffA7							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	The DBA builds self-confidence	1.2.8	ASA9							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	The DBA is applied and relevant – practical application	1.2.9	StuA3; StuB4; StaffF11; StaffF12; StaffD14; StaffA1; StaffC4; SSB3; StaffE5; StaffE6; StuC4							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	The DBA promotes the development of objectivity in business decision making	1.2.10	ASA8; ASA16; ASA17							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	The DBA provides a flexible approach to studying organisational issues	1.2.11	StuA8; StaffF14; StaffD16; SSB7	"I think research is a process rather than a product; you never know what product you can get." (SSB p.7)						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	The structure of delivery of the DBA might lead to a speedier completion	1.2.12	StaffF7							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	Thesis topic allowed the relevance gap to be bridged – started with a business problem and looked to academia for the answers	1.2.13	StuA5; StuB4; StuB11; AA3; SSB1; AA4; StaffC13; StaffB6; SSB5; SSC4; SSC6; StaffB7	"I sort of started from the trade question and added in an academic view point" (StuA p.5)						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.2	Professional development	DBA gives the external perception of expertise	1.2.14	StuA4							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	DBA allows appreciation of different research perspectives	1.3.1	StuB7; StuB8; StuB9; StuB10; StuB11; StuB14; StaffD14; StaffD15; ASA1; SSC6; StuC6							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	DBA allows focused study	1.3.2	StuA3; StuA4							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	DBA allows the development of research skills	1.3.3	ASA8; SSC4							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	DBA develops cognitive and intellectual skills	1.3.4	SSC9; StaffF12							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	DBA develops skills to allow informed decisions about research	1.3.5	SSC4; SSC6							



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1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	The DBA aids the development of analytical skills	1.3.6	StuA8; StuB14; StaffF14; StaffD16; StaffA8; StaffC17; ASA8; ASA9; SSA17; SSB7	"I think the real benefit that people get is just that they actually learn how to systematically address a problem." (StaffA p.8)					
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	The DBA aids the development of data accessing skills	1.3.7	AA4						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	The DBA aids the development of data collection skills	1.3.8	StaffA8						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.3	Research skills	The DBA improves general transferable research skills	1.3.9	AA4; ASA8; SSC3						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	DBA allows an individual to enhance their ability to stimulate strategic dialogue	1.4.1	StaffF13						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	DBA allows an individual to enhance their ability to think logically and to formulate logical arguments	1.4.2	SSA10; SSB1; SSC9; StaffA8; StaffF12	"... they should be developing their ability to construct a rational, well reasoned, well argued argument ..." (StaffF p.12) "I think the real benefit that people get is just that they actually learn how to systematically address a problem." (StaffA p.8)...					
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	DBA enhances the ability to influence change	1.4.3	StaffF12	"... they should be developing their ability to construct a rational, well reasoned, well argued argument ..." (StaffF p.12)					
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	DBA improves ability to negotiate	1.4.4	SSB16						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	DBA improves ability to persuade	1.4.5	SSB16						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	The DBA aids the development of change management skills	1.4.6	AA4						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	The DBA improves presentation skills	1.4.7	StaffB6; StaffC7						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	The DBA improves verbal skills	1.4.8	StaffF12						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	The DBA improves writing skills	1.4.9	StaffF12; StuC6						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.4	Strategic communication skills	The DBA stimulate strategic dialogue and aids strategic communication	1.4.10	StuA9; StaffD14; StaffD16; StuA8; StaffD16	"I think before I sort of thought strategy and vision and all of that came from up above and I was more of an implementer and now I'm much more part of that communication process ..." (StuA p.9)					

## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

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	Superordinate Theme		Master Themes	Emergent Themes		Reference (page)	Quotes					
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	DBA aids the development of strategic perspectives	1.5.1	StuA5; StaffF3; StaffF11; StaffF13; SSB16; StaffD15; StaffC5; SSB15	"DBAs are probably a multidisciplinary, cross disciplinary ..." (StaffF p.3)					
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	DBA allows appreciation of different organisational perspectives	1.5.2	StuB7; StuB8; StuB9; StuB10; StuB11; StuB14; StaffF11; StaffF13; StaffD14; StaffD15; ASA1; ASA2; SSB15; StuC6	"Our view there was that it's important to know the choices and the direction in which organisations can develop, and how management influence can affect that process." (ASA p.2)					
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	DBA improves ability to consider alternative strategic options	1.5.3	SSB16						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	Multiple beneficiaries: The student, the customer and sponsoring company	1.5.4	StuA2						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA aids the ability of the student to become a reflective practitioner	1.5.5	SSA19; StaffE5; StaffB6; StuC6; StuC7; SSB8						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA aids understanding of practice – development of an active agent	1.5.6	StuA9; StaffB5						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA allowed the development of a rounded appreciation of business problems through the use of generic organisational modules	1.5.7	ASA1						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA allows consideration of issues at a deeper level	1.5.8	StaffF13; SSB16	"I think they'd [the students] have a better understanding of some of the processes that are being inactive in organisations because the same abilities to think about things on a deeper level." (StaffF pp.13-14)					
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA develops critical thinking ability	1.5.9	StaffF15; StaffD14; StaffA9; StaffA10; StaffC17; StaffC18; SSA12; SSC4; SSC6						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA develops innovative thinking about organisational problems	1.5.10	StuB7; StuB11; StuB13; StaffF10; StaffF11; StaffD16; AA4; SSC9						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA improves strategic evaluative skills	1.5.11	SSB7; StaffE13						

## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

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	Superordinate Theme	1.5	Master Themes	Emergent Themes	Reference (page)	Quotes							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA improves the ability to identify organisational intent	1.5.12	StuB13; StaffD16							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	The DBA improves the development of a more holistic manager	1.5.13	StuC7; StuC8; StuA8; StuB13; StuB14; SSB15; SSB16; StaffE5							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	Thesis linked to a strategic issue/s	1.5.14	StuB10; SSB7; StuC4	"... I would like to do is actually change policy ... " (StuB p.10)						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	Thesis linked to strategic customer, supplier, etc.	1.5.15	StuA2; StuC4							
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	Thesis studied a strategic innovation	1.5.16	StuA4	"... but looking at it from an emotional side and seeing how shoppers react to the environment was something that previously we'd not looked at so it gave a completely fresh look at store atmosphere." (StuA p.4)						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives	Thesis study of strategic financial importance for company	1.5.17	StuA4; StaffF13; StuC4	"...our intension is to deliver 10 to 15% additional sales from the same amount of space so productivity of space will increase, so that as the retailer and for us for prices that supply for the retailer will have a significant effect on our turnover ... " (StuA p.4)						
1	Benefits of taking the DBA	1.5	Strategic perspectives/ Functional performance	The DBA improves the ability to gather industry intelligence	1.5.18	StuA8; StuB13; StaffF11							
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	ABS guidelines are a move to clarify the DBAs position in the market	2.1.1	AA1							
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Companies failed to sponsor individuals	2.1.2	StaffC9			Neg				
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Convince [customer and] employer of worth of thesis	2.1.3	StuA2			Neg		Neg		Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	DBA is not directly attributable to career development	2.1.4	StuA4			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	DBA is not well known in the sector and in industry	2.1.5	AA1; AA2; StaffE8			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Different expectations of sponsor, student and university	2.1.6	StaffD10			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Participants do not recognise that the DBA is more than reflection on practice	2.1.7	StaffC5			Neg				Neg

## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

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2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	People in workplaces suspicious of the doctorates	2.1.8	StaffF2; StaffF3			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Perception that doctorates over analysis – paralysis by analysis	2.1.9	SSC6			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Smaller than expected numbers taking DBA	2.1.10	StaffB4			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Students do not fully understand the process of obtaining a DBA	2.1.11	StuB4; StuB9; StuB15	"...I'm going to be really cynical here, because I think this is an area he's very interested in and I think it was just convenient to have a student go off and do what he wanted them to do." (StuB p.9)		Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Students do not have a clear idea of what the DBA entailed before starting the course	2.1.12	SSB3			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	The benefits from the course are not apparent during the programme	2.1.13	StuB13; StaffD15			Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	The DBA is an evolving qualification	2.1.14	StuA2; StaffF6; StaffA10; StaffC11; ASA1; SSA2; StaffE3; SSC1							
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	The student does not believe that they are academic	2.1.15	StuB3	"I'm not an academic." (StuB p.3)		Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.1	Awareness issues	Issues around the title – is it a diploma, is it too close to the MBA?	2.1.16	StaffC4; StaffE3	"I mean sometimes people think it's a diploma." (StaffE p.3)		Neg				Neg
2	DBA award issues	2.2	Contribution to practice	Making a contribution to practice not just theory	2.2.1	AA1; SSA10	DBA is "similar and different" to the PhD. (AA p.1)						
2	DBA award issues	2.2	Contribution to practice	Professional managerial qualification	2.2.2	StaffD8; AA1	"The DBA is a professional managerial qualification." (StaffD						
2	DBA award issues	2.2	Contribution to practice	Reflection on practice	2.2.3	StaffD9; StaffA1; AA1; SSA3; SSC10	"... should be some element of reflection on personal professional factors, and possibly also the practice of the profession." (StaffD p.9) "Defining a DBA: you must show what its relevance to your practice as a manager/ consultant, whatever you are, and/or to your profession. " (StaffD p.11) "But we're looking for a contribution to practice rather than necessarily a contribution to theory." (StaffA p.1)						





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3	DBAs supportive structure	3.1	Delivery structures	Structure of the DBA aids an holistic integrative, strategic perspective	3.1.13	StuA5; SSB15; SSB16; StaffF5; StaffF6						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.1	Delivery structures	Support for students through monitoring	3.1.14	StaffA4						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.1	Delivery structures	Supportive structure – students meet outside class	3.1.15	StaffD6						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.1	Delivery structures	The DBA cohort structure allows socialisation which is a supportive element	3.1.16	StuA3; StuA5	"... having that group of colleagues going through the same process." (StuA p.3)					
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.1	Delivery structures	The DBA provides a flexible approach to studying organisational issues	3.1.17	StuA8; StaffF14; StaffD16; SSB7	"I think research is a process rather than a product; you never know what product you can get." (SSB p.7)					
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.1	Delivery structures	The research focus emerges in the first stages of the programme	3.1.18	StaffC13; ASA1	"That happens with all Doctorates, how they define it. And I think it's a bit like the Wizard of Oz, you start in Kansas and you go on a long journey and fight some demons and you come back and at the end you're still in Kansas, but, you know, you see it differently and you understand it differently." (StaffC p.13)					
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.1	Delivery structures	The use of research projects	3.1.19	StaffC14						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.2	Staff support	Applied nature of institution	3.2.1	StaffC4; StaffF2; StaffA15	"Our mission is to impact the practice of management and our strap line is "knowledge into action". (StaffC p.4)					
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.2	Staff support	Close relationship with supervisor	3.2.2	StuC3; StuC4						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.2	Staff support	DBA structure (guidance and training) is supportive	3.2.3	StuA3; StaffF4; StaffF5; StaffC11						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.2	Staff support	Early appointment of mentors and supervisory team	3.2.4	StaffF5; StaffF7; SSA13						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.2	Staff support	Mentors appointed at start of course of study	3.2.5	StaffF5; StaffF9	"Based on that process, we then offer them a place and I match their research outline, their research guidance, with a member of staff, who is interested in that area and they meet in the first weekend." (StaffF p.5)					
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.2	Staff support	Panel and supervisors appointed at outset	3.2.6	StaffC13						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.2	Staff support	Staff are out of contract when delivering	3.2.7	StaffF1			Neg	Neg		Neg







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3	DBAs supportive structure	3.4	The structure of the DBA encourages and embraces criticality	Structure of DBA developed questioning and curiosity	3.4.6	StuA6; SSA19						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.4	The structure of the DBA encourages and embraces criticality	Student proposals have to be defended in a constructive forum	3.4.7	StaffF7						
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.4	The structure of the DBA encourages and embraces criticality	Summarising papers is a key DBA skill	3.4.8	StuA6; StaffF5	"... not just to take tunnel vision at it but to look at it but look at it from all different aspects." (StuA p.6)					
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.4	The structure of the DBA encourages and embraces criticality	Taught elements of DBA gives the skill set for the independent thought required for a doctorate	3.4.9	StuA3	"PHD where it's very much more straight into your own focus research in the beginning. It's a tough way to do it." (StuA p.3)					
3	DBAs supportive structure	3.4	The structure of the DBA encourages and embraces criticality	The viva process is challenging	3.4.10	StuB5						
4	Institutional issues with the DBA	4.1	Institutional capacity	Academic staff lacked industrial knowledge	4.1.1	StuC5		Neg				
4	Institutional issues with the DBA	4.1	Institutional capacity	The available number of supervisors	4.1.2	StaffA14		Neg				Neg
4	Institutional issues with the DBA	4.1	Institutional capacity	The available number of supervisors in specialist areas	4.1.3	StaffA14		Neg				Neg
4	DBA award issues	4.1	Institutional capacity	Often DBA proposals are less detailed at the outset of the course	4.1.4	SSA13		Neg				
4	DBA award issues	4.1	Institutional capacity	Starting point of a DBA is a business issue identified by the student	4.1.5	StaffC5		Neg				
4	DBA award issues	4.1	Institutional capacity	Broad themes – innovation and technology	4.1.6	StaffE2						
4	DBA award issues	4.1	Institutional capacity	Scholarship may cross more than one theme or discipline, more than one discipline or function	4.1.7	StaffC5						
4	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	4.1	Institutional capacity	Lack of capacity/ willingness for an institution to take on a thesis topic	4.1.8	StuB4		Neg				Neg
4	Institutional issues with the DBA	4.2	Market issues	Dissonance then between the realities in terms of recruitment – many international and staff taking DBAs	4.2.1	AA2		Neg				Neg
4	Institutional issues with the DBA	4.2	Market issues	Fees for PhD much lower than a DBA	4.2.2	ASA4						Neg





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	Superordinate Theme		Master Themes	Emergent Themes		Reference (page)	Quotes						
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.5	Portfolio approach to management education	Very poor completion rates for part-time PhDs	5.5.5	StaffF2; StaffA12	"you'll have noticed that there were statistics published on the number of PhD's submitted on time, etc, you know, that these are feeding into the Leagues Tables..." (StaffA p.12) "I think that the, sort of, traditional social science model, where you just let the students muddle on, and you have, you know, a dreadful completion, submission rates, I personally don't think that that's acceptable." (StaffA p.12)						
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The DBA as a complementary award to the MBA	DBA complements the MBA	5.6.1	StuA2; StaffF3; StaffD14; StaffA2; StuC3							
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The DBA as a complementary award to the MBA	Normally have an MBA	5.6.2	ASA3; SSC4; StaffB5							
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The DBA as a complementary award to the MBA	The DBA allows students to critically appraise prescriptive models learnt on MBA courses	5.6.3	SSA16							
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The DBA as a complementary award to the MBA	The MBA provides an overview but is superficial	5.6.4	StuA3; StaffF3; StaffC7; StaffC8	"... you only really get a glimmer of a hint of the total topic." (StuA p.3) "You can't churn it like you can churn and MBA" (StaffC p.8)		Neg				Neg
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The MBA as a complementary award to the DBA	MBA addresses a broad range of diverse subjects	5.6.5	StuA3; StaffF2							
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The MBA as a complementary award to the DBA	MBA allows for an accelerated DBA (4 years instead of 6)	5.6.6	StaffC7							
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The MBA as a complementary award to the DBA	Participants' organisational role and MBA and DBA are complementary	5.6.7	StuA1	"I've been moving up the ladder in XXXX and the MBA and DBA at weekends so they've complimented one another very nicely." (StuA p.1)						
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The MBA as a complementary award to the DBA	The MBA addresses a diverse range of business functional areas and gives a holistic view of organisational development	5.6.8	StuA2; StaffF3; StaffD14							

## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

## Research Findings: Superordinate, Master and Emergent Themes

## Reference Coding

Black - Staff ('StaffX'); Red - Student ('StuX'); Blue - Staff/ Student ('SSX')

Purple - Agent ('AX'); Green - Agent/ Staff ('ASX')

## RESEARCH AREAS (Themes)

							Institutional Rationale	Individual Motivations for Starting a DBA	Different Forms of DBA	Approaches to Delivering the DBA	Impact on an Individual of Taking DBA	Future of DBAs
	Superordinate Theme		Master Themes	Emergent Themes		Reference (page)	Quotes					
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The MBA as a complementary award to the DBA	The MBA as a stage in personal professional development, like the DBA	5.6.9	StuA1; StuA2; StuA3; StaffF3; SSB3	"I see the MBA as a marker point today I have got to that level of education where as the DBA is a much more all about the thesis that your doing and the relevance of that topic to your working life." (StuA p.3) "I've been moving up the ladder in Coty and the MBA and DBA at weekends so they've complimented one another very nicely." (StuA p.1)					
5	Institutional rationale for offering the DBA	5.6	The MBA as a complementary award to the DBA	The MBA is a feeder award (after more experience) to the DBA	5.6.10	StaffF3; StaffD14; StaffA1; SSA4						
6	Student characteristics	6.1	Student's attitude	Can do attitude	6.1.1	StaffF4						
6	Student characteristics	6.1	Student's attitude	Some people have propensity towards strategy	6.1.2	StaffC21						
6	Student characteristics	6.2	Student's experience	Long term experience of management	6.2.1	StuA1; StaffF4						
6	Student characteristics	6.2	Student's experience	Must have significant work experience	6.2.2	SSA5; SSA10	"...there must be some experience, because otherwise it's not a DBA really, 'cause you can't draw on your practice." (SSA p.7)					
6	Student characteristics	6.2	Student's experience	Normally have an MBA	6.2.3	ASA3; SSC4; StaffB5						
6	Student characteristics	6.2	Student's experience	Often 'older' (early 40s, late 30s)	6.2.4	SSC3						
6	Student characteristics	6.2	Student's experience	Someone with real managerial experience	6.2.5	AA2						
6	Student characteristics	6.3	Student's position	Access to data	6.3.1	StaffF4; AA2; SSC3; StaffB6						
6	Student characteristics	6.3	Student's position	Senior manager	6.3.2	StuA1; StaffF4; StaffD14; SSC2; SSC3; StaffB5; AA1; StaffC6; SSC3; StuC1; StuC2						
6	Student characteristics	6.3	Student's position	Support from company	6.3.3	AA2						
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.1	Dubious value of MBA to DBA study	MBA of limited value to participants	7.1.1	StuA5						Neg

## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

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## RESEARCH AREAS (Themes)

								Institutional Rationale	Individual Motivations for Starting a DBA	Different Forms of DBA	Approaches to Delivering the DBA	Impact on an Individual of Taking DBA	Future of DBAs
	Superordinate Theme		Master Themes	Emergent Themes		Reference (page)	Quotes						
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.1	Dubious value of MBA to DBA study	Questionable value of an MBA in developing researchers - need to unlearn	7.1.2	StaffC7		Neg	Neg				Neg
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.1	Dubious value of MBA to DBA study	The MBA provides an overview but is superficial	7.1.3	StuA2; StaffF3; StaffC7; StaffC8	"... you only really get a glimmer of a hint of the total topic." (StuA p.3) "You can't churn it like you can churn and MBA" (StaffC p.8)	Neg	Neg				Neg
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.2	Issues around lack of relevance to workplace	Confuses issues	7.2.1	SSB16	"You could make a very simple thing become more complicated." (SSB p.16)					Neg	Neg
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.2	Issues around lack of relevance to workplace	It is not clear that a DBA informs practice	7.2.2	ASA9; SSC5; AA3; StuC5; StuC6; StuB5; StuB7; AA3	"Look, I think the organisational impact of those people who have positions within an organisation has probably been really quite limited." (ASA p.9) "I'm wondering actually if the kind of model that you're looking at is the sort of hourglass with, you know, a narrow waist in it, and it's in the narrow waist that your DBA sits, because that's the person who can appraise the research, understand its limitations and its strengths and pass that information on to the strategic level. (ASAp.14) "I wouldn't, and you wouldn't, I'm sure, recommend the DBA as, you know, the route to being a CEO." (ASAp.14)					Neg	Neg
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.2	Issues around lack of relevance to workplace	Students do not take an overview of organisational issues	7.2.3	SSA19						Neg	Neg
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.2	Issues around lack of relevance to workplace	The DBA hinders communication in the workplace	7.2.4	StuB14	"... you spend so much time on your own you actually become a social outcast. (StuB p.14) "You actually fail to be able to communicate with ordinary people." (StuB p.14)		Neg			Neg	Neg
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.2	Issues around lack of relevance to workplace	The DBA is too academic – relevance gap not bridged	7.2.5	StuC5; StuC7			Neg			Neg	Neg
7	Student experience whilst completing the DBA	7.2	Issues around lack of relevance to workplace	The qualification is not recognised as having value in the workplace	7.2.6	StuB5; StuB7; StuB14	"You take someone like a DBA into the workplace and they all think you are on a funny planet." (StuB p.5)		Neg			Neg	Neg











## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

## Research Findings: Superordinate, Master and Emergent Themes

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## RESEARCH AREAS (Themes)

								Institutional Rationale	Individual Motivations for Starting a DBA	Different Forms of DBA	Approaches to Delivering the DBA	Impact on an Individual of Taking DBA	Future of DBAs
	Superordinate Theme		Master Themes	Emergent Themes		Reference (page)	Quotes						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Accessibility and awareness of course	8.2.1	StuA1							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Altruistic	8.2.2	SSA9							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Ambitious to be in strategic roles	8.2.3	StuB3							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Becoming an academic after leaving industry	8.2.4	StaffF8; StaffA7; AA3; SSC3	Move from industry in academia and "testing the water." (StaffA p.7)						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Boredom with current role	8.2.5	StaffC8							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Career change	8.2.6	StaffF8; StaffA7; SSA8; SSC4	"... the DBA is often used by people who want to take stock or change direction." (SSC p.4)						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Career progression	8.2.7	StaffF8; StaffA7; StaffE2; StaffB5; StuC4	"I saw that [the DBA] as a great next step." (StuA p.3)						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Change in personal circumstances	8.2.8	StuB2							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Circumstances, chance, etc	8.2.9	StuB2; StuB3							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Consultants to improve practice	8.2.10	StaffC10; SSC3							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Consultants to increase credibility	8.2.11	StaffC10; SSA8; StaffE2							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Credentialism – collects qualifications	8.2.12	StuB4; StuB9; StaffF8; StaffA7; SSB3; StuC3	"I knew all my life that I would do, particularly when I went to University that I wanted to become a Doctor." (StuC p.3)						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Desire for academic credibility – impressed by academic title/ reputation	8.2.13	StuB2; StuB5; StuB9; StuB10; StaffF8; StaffA7; ASA3; SSB3; SSC5; StaffB4							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Develop research skills	8.2.14	SSC2							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Early under-achiever	8.2.15	StuB2; StuB4; StuB11							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Enjoyment of research process	8.2.16	StuA1; StuB4; StuB8; ASA4							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Enjoyment of study	8.2.17	StuB2; StaffF7; StaffA8; StaffC8; ASA4; StuC3	"Educational enthusiasts' "... we have other people who are just generally disposed to personal study and improvement." (StaffA p.7)						

## DBA &amp; STRATEGISTS

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## RESEARCH AREAS (Themes)

								Institutional Rationale	Individual Motivations for Starting a DBA	Different Forms of DBA	Approaches to Delivering the DBA	Impact on an Individual of Taking DBA	Future of DBAs
	Superordinate Theme	8.2	Master Themes	Emergent Themes		Reference (page)	Quotes						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Instrumental	8.2.18	SSA9; SSB3							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Manager push for personal development of student	8.2.19	StuB2							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Networking with other people	8.2.20	StuA1							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Next step from MBA – 'education junkies'	8.2.21	StuB2; ASA4; SSC5	"Well, I've finished my MBA, now what on earth do I do next? I've got to go on and I can go on." (ASA p.4)						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Often, the students are not clear why they are taking a DBA	8.2.22	SSA8							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Payback society	8.2.23	StaffC8							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Personal development	8.2.24	SSA8							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Portfolio career development	8.2.25	StaffF8							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Professional qualifications lead to academic route	8.2.26	StuA3; StuB2							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Student a completer finisher - tenacious	8.2.27	StuB3; StuB6							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Student enjoys challenges and work	8.2.28	StuB2; StuB6; StuB11; SSA8							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Student is very practical and business focussed	8.2.29	StuA3	"I think because I'm very practical and I wanted it to be very business related." (StuA p.3)						
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	To become a consultant	8.2.30	StaffF8; SSA8; StaffE2; SSC3							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	To become an academic	8.2.31	StaffC5; SSA9							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	To become internal consultants (Change agents)	8.2.32	ASA4							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	To gain equality in terms of qualification	8.2.33	ASA10							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	To help their organisation	8.2.34	StaffC10							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	To solve actual business problems	8.2.35	SSA9							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Valuing research	8.2.36	StuA1							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Want to improve organisational capability	8.2.37	ASA5							
8	Student motivations for taking DBA	8.2	Personal motivation for taking the DBA	Want to improve strategic capabilities	8.2.38	ASA4							