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Academics and the Psychological Contract: The formation and manifestation of the Psychological Contract within the academic role.

ALAN JOHNSON

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

8th February 2021
Declaration

I, Alan Johnston, declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. I have personally carried out all the work of which this is a record.

Signed:

Date: 8th February 2021

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I would also like to acknowledge colleagues across the sector for helping me by either contributing as participants or helping me to find participants and facilitating my research.
Abstract

The psychological contract is a feature of everyday relationships in the workplace and is understood to be the manifestation of the employment relationship and is built on the assumed promises, expectations, and obligations of the employee. Not so much as what has been agreed but the perception of what has been agreed. While much research has been undertaken to analyse the psychological contract in the context of the workplace, and in particular of professionals in the workplace, very little has been undertaken with a focus on academics and specifically academics within the UK Higher Education Sector.

This research set out to explore the psychological contract of academics within Business Schools (or equivalent) within the UK University Sector and identify the impact it has on them including its manifestation into discretionary effort. Discretionary effort plays a major role in performance within academic roles, as expectations on academics have increased (administrative load, teaching load and pressures surrounding research) while resources have become more restrictive. The research took a qualitative approach as the basis for investigating the lived experiences of academics across the ‘three’ predominant sub-sectors of the UK Higher Education Sector. Eighteen interviews were conducted across nine institutions (two interviewees per institution) with a supporting questionnaire to collect elements of data to support each individual response and to gain an overall picture.

The analysis of the data used a thematic approach in which key themes were identified and explored. In particular, the research findings suggested that academics undertook a large amount of additional work that impinged on life outside of what may be considered working hours. This discretionary effort was deemed, in most cases, to be more acceptable when related to academic work (teaching and research) but was less so when related to administration. Further analysis suggests that rather than the place of employment, role perception, was more influenced by background and doctoral studies.

The research concludes by setting out key contributions to theory and practice and provides a set of recommendations based on the key findings which are targeted at institutions (or part of) and individuals to ensure the psychological contract can be appropriately formed to allow academics to better understand the expectations of them in their role.
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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction
Change and upheaval have been recurring themes of the UK Higher Education sector for several years. Many of these changes have been a result of internal structural changes while many others have been externally imposed. A consequence of these recurring changes has been alterations to the role of academic members of staff including the employment relationship between them and their employer. This employment relationship is recognised as the psychological contract and may be recognised as a key factor in an individual’s discretionary effort. This thesis discusses the content and nature of the psychological contract for the academic and the manifestation of it in the form of discretionary effort. In doing so the study identifies the importance of person-organisation fit, individual context, and motivation/work ethic as both complementary and contributing factors. That is to suggest that person-organisation-fit and motivation/work ethic are both internal and external to the psychological contract, but impact on the discretionary effort that an individual is willing to display. The growth of interest in academics and academic institutions as an area of study was prevalent at the 2015 conference of UFHRD (University Forum for Human Resource Development)

1.2 Background and Positioning Statement
The researcher has twenty-seven years of experience of working in further and higher education. Having left University in 1992 with a degree in Economics with Accounting, he initially found employment in a small College of Higher Education (now a University) in his home city as Technical Coordinator in Psychology. This role was designed primarily as a support role for both academic staff and students but developed an academic strand as the role developed. The role included providing IT support, setting up and supporting experiments and providing assistance to generate statistics from data that had been collected. The role also included taking responsibility for budgets and resources within the department. As the role developed it started to include teaching. Teaching included IT programmes / applications related to IT (excel) and statistics (SPSS, Statistica and ANOVA). This role started my interest and enthusiasm for teaching. As such
applications were made to Further Education Colleges (FEC) and Higher Education Institutions (HEI) for appropriate teaching jobs. This led over a two-year period of undertaking part time teaching at several institutions (1 FEC and 3 HEIs), teaching in the areas of IT, finance and economics. Ultimately this led to securing a full-time teaching at an FE College in 1998.

The researcher spent three and a half years at this FE College rising to Coordinator of Professional Programmes in the School of Business and Management (SOBAM). Subsequently at the end of 2001, I was recruited to a post at a different FE College as Head of Division of Business and Management. A significant aspect of this role was to over-see the development of sub-degree provision within the division following the divestment of the college’s HE Faculty (and Campus) and degree provision to a local and expanding HEI. As part of the divestment arrangement, it was agreed that the college would develop a range of sub-degree provision which would be validated by the HEI, which had recently gained University status and degree awarding powers. As part of the divestment several staff were transferred from the FE College to the HEI. This included all staff who were attached to the HE Faculty and a few staff from within the Business and Management team. Although the division was part of the FE side of the College it had always serviced the HE Faculty due to the overlap of provision. Despite this transfer of staff, the old HE faculty initially remained under-staffed and as such it was agreed for me to continue to contribute to the degree programmes that were now part of the University. Over the next five and a half years the division grew to incorporate Teacher Education, Law and Access to HE and changed to be the Department of Business and Professional Studies. As part of this the Certificate in Education was further developed and validated by the University.

Following a short period of taking up the role of Resources and planning Manager at this College, I moved to the role of Head of Department (Business and Professional Services) at another FE College. Similarly, to my previous post, a primary role of this post was to develop the Foundation degree provision and establish a Top Up degree. The role involved taking responsibility as the Route Leader for Services to People. This was the section of the HE provisions within
the College that incorporated Business (four foundation degrees and a top up degree), Hospitality and Tourism (one foundation degree), Child Studies (one foundation degree and one top up degree), Health and Social care (one foundation degree), and Hair and Beauty (one foundation degree). Following three years in this role, I moved to my current institution initially as a lecturer and then moving into a role as Senior Lecturer / Head of Programme and subsequently into my current role as Director of Undergraduate Studies.

Throughout my twenty-seven-year career working with and managing academics it has been fascinating to observe the behaviours of many colleagues and trying to work out what makes them ‘tick’ as a colleague and how I can get the best out of them as a manager (leader). This has led to me reading about the psychological contract and developing an interest in how this works for academics. Although a significant proportion of my experience was from within FE Environments, the practices, and idiosyncrasies I observed within the FE Colleges were as apparent in the University that I am now employed in.

1.3 Rationale for the Study

Gray (2014) suggests using an adapted Johari Window in choosing a topic, arguing that research based on a familiar work area and familiar knowledge area can provide the most appropriate opening for research.

![Johari Window](image-url)

Figure 1.1: Johari Window
As such, having worked within educational (FE and HE) establishments for 27 years the researcher has a wealth of experience in the sector, and has observed the actions and reactions of academics for numerous years, and through reading and scholarship has gained a high level of theoretical understanding of some of the key concepts related to the subject area. This would suggest ideal placing in the familiar work area – familiar knowledge area quadrant suggested by Gray (2014). Through this experience the researcher has identified how different members of staff engage in their activities and the efforts they put in. Different individuals place the key amount of their efforts in different aspects of the job, and comment about different aspects of the role, their engagement and participation in the role. This has been apparent regardless of the institution (FE College or Higher Education Institution). The researcher is therefore intrigued as to why this happens regardless of institution and whether, with particular focus on the University sector, there are commonalties due to the type of institutions they are and the academics who reside in them.

The analogy of a fried egg may also be used to consider appropriate areas to conduct research in. If we picture a fried egg (figure 1.2) with the yoke identifying the individual's knowledge base and the albumen the scope of available knowledge, operating close to the periphery would be advantageous.

Fig 1.2: The ‘research’ fried egg
Coupled with this the researcher is a progressing academic leader within a UK University and wishes to gain an understanding of why some team members display a greater level of discretionary effort than others, in a role where undertaking activities beyond the norm may be considered an expectation or even an obligation. In considering this the researcher wishes to develop a high performing team and as such needs to consider the ‘buttons’ that need pressing for individuals to improve their performance and engagement with the full role. It is important from a managerial perspective to understand the psychological contract and its link to discretionary effort as this in itself will help to unlock the individual drivers of each individual. This suggests that there is an important factor in building the manager-employee relationship which sits at the heart of an individual’s psychological contract. The conclusion of this may suggest it to be possible to better manage individuals, create greater job satisfaction and thus improve individual and organisational performance, thus enabling the channelling of discretionary effort into the right areas.

In support of this line of thinking, the psychological contract may be considered fundamental in helping the modern manager in working with individuals through understanding the factors that affect their relationship with the organisation and with them as managers (Del Campo, 2007). Critically it helps them manage and develop that relationship. Through the effective management of the psychological contract managers can build highly effective working relationships which will improve individual motivation and performance leading to improvements in both team and organisational effectiveness. This in turn, should lead to improvements in job satisfaction, organisational commitment and reduce intention to leave and actual staff turnover due to happier employees (individuals). Krivokapic-Skoko and O’Neill (2008) conclude effective knowledge of and management of the psychological contract can spearhead improvements in an organisation’s performance.

The 1980s and 1990s were characterised by significant periods of turbulence for organisations, and subsequent challenges to relationships between employers and employees (Freese and Schalk, 2008). This turbulence challenged the traditional view of the employment relationship and generated a new wave of interest in the
construct of the psychological contract (Cullinane and Dundon, 2006; Del Campo, 2007; Freese and Schalk (2008); Herriot et al (1997). Studies which have taken a similar line to this study include Sewpersad et al (2019) who studies academics in a South African context. In support, Saunders et al (2009) suggest that management research should be grounded in practice. The psychological contract has seen a wide range of articles over the last two decades in a broad expanse of organisational environments and linked to a range of variables and factors. Although there has been a growing literature on academics and the psychological contract, little has focussed on the UK and this thesis takes the opportunity to expand that base of knowledge, while opening the discussion for consideration (and perhaps implementation) by line managers and Human Resource Management functions.

Saunders et al (2009) point to Lewin’s (1945) suggestion that scientific or practical results are not achieved without first developing the theory. They highlight the growing focus on the dual need of practical relevance and academic rigour. This thesis will draw on theoretical principles, identifying the psychological contract for academics with the intention of allowing organisations to improve the manager - academic interface.

1.4 Research Focus
The research focuses on the relationship between the content (Herriot et al, 1997; Conway and Briner, 2005) of academics’ psychological contract of academics, its causes, and influences, and to the level of discretionary effort they exert. Theoretical perspectives (Del Campo, 2007; Guest 2004; Rousseau and Parks, 1993) suggest that individuals with a relational psychological contract are more likely to engage in additional effort above and beyond the expected norm. This research seeks to consider whether this is true within an academic context and looks to investigate whether contributing factors distort the traditional perspective. Universities are complex organisations (Robinson, 2012; Yelder and Coding, 2004), which are characterised in different ways and although autonomous are often directly influenced by outside influencers, significantly government policy. This complexity of Universities centre on their dual identity as a business (and processes) and as an education provider. As such differing perspectives on the
role of the University exists, and the prevalence of this amongst academics is that they undertake academic work, and it is a public good (Ahlburg, 2018). By contrast, external pressures and notably public funding entail increased scrutiny (Deem and Brehony, 2005). As such notions of quality become a central feature of management with particular emphasis on value for money and management processes. Consequently, systems are designed to monitor outcomes, which many determine to be managerialism (Deem and Brehony, 2005). In this study, we seek to investigate whether the nature of this environment contrasts with the central beliefs of many academics who value constructs such as academic freedom and resist control measures (Mercer, 2009).

This research therefore investigates the relationship between academics’ discretionary effort and their psychological contract. The research assumes and identifies several contextual features of Universities that are likely to influence the degree of discretionary effort exerted and the broader psychological contract.

- Universities are complex institutions that differ in heritage (e.g. structure, history ethos) and context (e.g. culture, climate, working practices)
- Individual academics may not necessarily ‘identify with the University at the institutional level and therefore do not necessarily forge a close relationship with the entity. Instead, academics identify with sub-units within the University or individuals within the institution.
- Academics’ interpretation (and expectation) of the job role are influenced by previous experience (including education) and ideological perspectives. This furthermore influences their career and personal aspirations which in turn influences expectations. This is most important in considering the faceted aspects of the role (teaching, research, and administration)

1.5 Research Questions

1. What are the characteristics and manifestations of the psychological contract of academic staff in a UK University setting?
2. What are the contributory factors (experience and expectations, person-organisation fit and motivation / work ethic) in influencing the formation and development of the psychological contract of academic staff?

3. Is discretionary effort a visible representation of the psychological contract?

1.6 Research Objectives

1. Critically review the literature on the psychological contract, its formation, contribution, and impact on academics and the exercising of their duties.

2. Describe and interpret the characteristics and manifestations of the psychological contract for Business School academic staff.

3. Consider the contributory factors on the psychological contract affecting work attitude and performance.

4. Consider the relationship between work behaviour, the psychological and the manifestation of discretionary effort.

5. Contribute to the literature by advancing the concept of the psychological contract as a fundamental feature of the employment relationship within the context of academia.

6. Draw conclusions and make recommendations which will help line managers and Human Resource departments (and functions) within Universities to more effectively manage and lead, academic staff and academic teams.

1.7 Contribution to Knowledge and Practice
In achieving the objectives of the research, the thesis contributes to knowledge and practice (covered in greater depth in Chapter 7). The research highlights the complexity of the psychological contract of academics with their employers. Significantly, it is suggested that the Universities are a vehicle through which
academics seek to pursue their individual interests, whether in teaching or research. These interests colour the employment relationship and the strength of the relationship. Consequently, discretionary effort is implicit within the academic role and as such is not recognised in much of the academic activity undertaken. Furthermore, of additional relevance is the notion of ‘denting’ which is a more likely offshoot than breach and violation in the relationship between the academic and their institution. Denting in this context has not been adopted in the literature. As such ‘Denting’ for the purpose of this study may be defined as “the phenomenon of disruption felt between an academic and their institution which leads to a breakage in the relationship, but which is not to the extent of breach or violation due to the commitment to students and research”.

Additionally, the research has important insights for practice. Understanding the multiplicity of academics’ psychological contract and the formation across the institution provides institutions and employees greater clarity regarding interpretation of the contract and how it is lived. These insights can be used to develop improved recruitment and selection practices, as well as induction and socialisation processes. Highly important to these processes is the declared positioning of research and teaching and the emphasis that the individual institution place on them.

1.8 Structure of the Thesis
The following thesis is submitted to the University of Huddersfield as a component for the Award of Doctor of Business Administration (DBA). The thesis is structured into several chapters to provide a clear and articulate report on the research undertaken.

Chapter One – Provides an introduction and background to the thesis and a rationale for the area of research. The chapter includes a positioning statement for the researcher, providing an insight to why the researcher believes this study is of interest and why it is practically relevant and advances new knowledge. Alongside this the chapter outlines the Research Questions and the Research Objectives that the thesis seeks to meet.
Chapter Two – Provides an overview of the contemporary Higher Education Sector and the key challenges it faces. The chapter also discusses the notion of the Business School and the role of the academic.

Chapter Three – Provides a critical review of literature around the key subjects. The literature review focusses on the broad concept of the psychological contract before narrowing with a focus on the psychological contract in academia. The literature review then reviews key literature around mediating factors which impact on the individual and their effort, again with an increasing focus on the academic.

Chapter Four – Provides an overview of the qualitative design of the study. It starts with a clear position of the philosophical stance before moving towards, the design and collection of interview-based data, research quality, ethics and limitations.

Chapter Five – This chapter presents the findings from qualitative interviews. Data are presented at individual, institutional and sector level.

Chapter Six – Provides a discussion of the key findings in relation to the literature. The discussion chapter examines the key findings of the study in the context of the literature. It identifies the key contributions to knowledge generated by the study.

Chapter Seven – Provides key conclusion that can be drawn from the research and provides recommendations alongside contributions to theory and practice.
Chapter 2: The Higher Education Sector context

2.1 Introduction
It is important in considering the research to understand the context within which it is set. For the purpose of the research, the HE Sector has been contained within a boundary of the public funded University. This includes Universities that are recognised by their history as Universities that were in existence prior to the Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 and Universities that were within the sector in 1992 and have since been granted University status. These were notably Polytechnics or Colleges of Higher Education.

In addition to understanding the type of institutions in the sector, it is also important to understand contributory features of the sector, notable, managerialism, marketisation and competition and university identity and examine the impact this has on both the activities the University undertakes, its priorities and the perception it portrays which may influence the academic mindset.

The chapter pays particular attention to the conflicting discourses pertaining to managerialism, marketisation, competition and identity. On the one hand, the ethos that these ideas characterise are to raise performance and enhance quality, thus leading to improved value for money (Bryson, 2004). As such, they are considered to ensure better quality of experience for students and higher quality research outputs (Deem, 2006). By contrast, seen from the position of individual academics, managerialism reduces academic freedom and innovation thereby reducing the experience of students and the quality of research outputs. In addition, marketisation and competition have increased the pressures to increase numbers within higher education, which leads to more students and heavier workload, without the clear re-investment of finances (Houston et al, 2006) The third key feature of this chapter is the focus on university identity. This is borne from a University’s history which determines its ethos. The university identity will often dictate the priorities it places and alongside reputation influences who it attracts into academic roles and the aspirations that many have.

Finally, given that the empirical context of the study is the Business School, this chapter considers the differences that may exist between Business Schools and
University level approaches. These considerations are of important given that there is a perception that Business Schools are more commercial than other schools / departments and house a different type of academic (Starkey and Thomas, 2019). It is possible that Business School academics are not as research focussed as other academics, where they are research focussed there is a concentration on applied research, and there is more emphasis on developing work-readiness in the student body. Therefore, this influences the academic mindset.

2.2 Higher Education Sector
Traditionally (prior to 1992) the HE Sector consisted of Universities, Polytechnics (with degrees awarded by the CNAA) and Colleges of Higher Education (associated with Universities, who provided the degree qualifications). Alongside this several Further Education Colleges offered sub-degrees in the form of Higher Nationals (HND/HNC) with accreditation provided by BTEC. The defining point that changed the HE landscape significantly and started a shift HE Sector which continues to reverberate today, was the Further and Higher Education Act of 1992, which Polytechnics from local authority control and widened the University Sector. Chan (2018) suggests that change in the HE sector is nothing new and has been a recurring theme since the middle of the 19th century.

However, 1992 saw the biggest change in the structure of the Higher Education Sector as it widened access to the ‘University’ title, with many Polytechnics immediately gaining University status (and with it, degree awarding powers), and many Colleges of Higher Education (over the next twenty years) un-coupling themselves from University control to also gain separate University status. These (for example) included the University of Chester (Chester College of Higher Education), Liverpool Hope University (Liverpool Institute of Higher Education) gaining University status and separating from the University of Liverpool in 2005 and 2006 respectively, and Leeds Trinity University gaining University status in 2009. They had previously been a College of the University of Leeds. The most recent College to convert to University status was Newman University (formerly Newman College of Higher Education) in 2013. This significantly increased the number of Universities and at the same time competition.
During the same period, Further Education Colleges increased the availability of sub-degree programmes initially focussing on HNCs and HNDs but with some partnering with these new Universities to gain University accreditation (e.g. Hugh Baird partnered with University of Central Lancashire, as did Newton Rigg College and Preston College). These partnerships were further developed and enhanced in 2000 with the launch of Foundation degrees which required the Universities to be the validating bodies. As such several FE Colleges partnered with Universities to deliver these new sub-degrees, which broadened the availability of Higher Education qualifications. Although Foundation Degrees were intended as a vocational offering and were seen as an end-point assessment, Colleges subsequently saw an opportunity to develop ‘top-up’ degrees to allow their students to progress to an Honours level qualification. Some FE Colleges (e.g. Bradford College) have also progressing to offering taught postgraduate qualifications. In more recent years several colleges have applied for Taught Degree Awarding Powers (TDAP). These include Bradford College and Newcastle College Group. Newcastle College Group were awarded TDAP in June 2016.

Alongside this governments have attempted to ‘open up’ the sector to further competition and the private market. Subsequently a number of ‘private providers’ and during recent years we have seen a number of private institutions delivering degree and sub-degree provision. Some of whom have gained University status (e.g. University of Buckingham and BPP University College) while others are supported with degrees being awarded by UK based or International based institutions. In addition, the internet has opened-up the UK market to a larger number of online providers across the world. The HE environment has therefore changed significantly over the last 25 years to a sector which was not recognisable in 1992. To that end this study will maintain its boundaries around that may have been identified as the key places degrees were awarded notably, pre-1992 Universities, post-1992 former Polytechnics and post-1992 former Colleges of Higher Education.
Fook (2017) asks as to the purpose of higher education. She suggests that H.E. has a series of purposes, notably, making a difference, banking knowledge, learning how to learn, and learning from ambiguity and uncertainty. She also notes the importance of social justice and skill development as key aspects of the agendas of differing universities. Alongside this, Byrd (2001) noted that higher education was in a process of transforming into becoming more business-like. These measures meant they were changing the ethos of institutions into more market driven forces. Previously, Pugsley (1998) noted the attempts to develop an ethos of choice in higher education and the growth in creating a market for higher education. Willmott (2003) points to the commercialisation of UK Higher Education. He points to the shifting ideologies of the state and links to industry as key elements in this process. Willmott (2003) points to the RAE (Research Assessment Exercise) in 1986 as the start of the process. More recently we can look at REF (Research Excellence Framework), which replaced the RAE in 2014, TEF (Teaching Excellence and Student Outcomes Framework) which had its first output in 2017 and KEF (Knowledge Exchange Framework) as successors to this process.

2.3 Managerialism
Managerialism in use within higher education is often referred to as New Managerialism, New Public Management and even New Public Service Management (Randle and Brady, 1997). They suggest that this approach is intended to bring about the combined notion of economy, efficiency, and effectiveness, thus achieving value for money. This approach also suggested that practice found in the private sector could be implemented within the public sector including the growth and inclusion of marketisation.

Managerialism resonates highly with academics who often cherish the notion of academic freedom (Russell, 2015). As such levels of managerialism are deemed to restrict the freedom of academics to follow their own route and undertake the role, in the way they wish. Managerialism is seen as ways of restricting practice, controlling activities, and placing targets onto individuals.

Key features of a new managerialist approach centre around
- Quality improvement
- Removal of practitioner control
- Marketisation
- Erosion of Professional Status

(Randle and Brady, 1997)

Trowler (1998) builds on Randle and Brady's (1997) interpretation of managerialism as a package of management tools, to include the inclusion of values and beliefs, thus suggesting more of an ideological approach. He highlights managerial surveillance and control as key features of the process. Furthermore, Trowler highlights a key feature of managerialism is the impact of the cultural characteristics of individual institutions. He suggests that Universities are like any other large organisation in that they have multiple cultures. Alongside this, Deem (1998) distinguishes between the pre-1992 and post-1992 universities in terms of how the managerialist approach has affected them suggesting that the change is greater in the pre-1992 universities whose approach and culture has been more laissez-faire and collegial, whereas the post-1992 institutions has always been bound by greater bureaucracy.

Deem (2006) suggests that one of the reasons for the changing landscape is the move from elite to mass higher education and the costs associated with it. Over the past 30 years there has been several key legislation and reports that have had or will have a significant impact on the Higher Education sector. Notably, 1992 Further and Higher Education Act and the Higher Education and Research Act, 2017. In addition to this there have been the Dearing Report, 1997 (also commonly known as the Independent Review of Higher Education Funding and Student Finance) and the Augar Review, 2019. Deem (1998) highlights the Dearing Report as implying a highly managerial approach to higher education institutions, while although the Augar Review has yet to see any of its recommendations implemented the other legislation and reports have had a significant on the H.E. sector in such ways as the increase in managerialism, marketisation, student fees and cuts in funding and most recently the establishment of the Office for Students. Historically, Miller (1998) highlights the increasing interference of government alongside the increased market orientation.
in the university sector. He highlights key features of managerialism as a top-down approach, accountability and control and entrepreneurialism. Rawn and Fox (2018) point to the history of the university sector having always been under pressure from the political external environment.

Watson (2000) describes higher education institutions such as large organisations and highlights the physical characteristics of the campus, the location, relationship of the campus to surrounding community and the characteristics of the staff and students, as being critical in the management and behaviour of the University. Alongside, Silver (2003) considers organisational culture within the higher education institutions, suggesting that culture is a major driver in universities’ behaviours. They suggest organisational culture as a key aspect as to what drives individuals within institutions and the way they think about their role, in relation to teaching, research and administration.

According to Watson and Watson (1999 p488) the basic picture is that academics are being asked to do more, in a more flexible manner, with fewer resources. Consequently, managers needing to adopt new ideas and practices to maintain and even improve efficiency. So, while academics have traditionally enjoyed a high level of autonomy working in a liberal system, new practices have generally reduced autonomy which has faced significant resistance (Watson and Watson, 1999). As such they highlight tensions that characterise university life.

- Controlling and caring
- Centralising and devolving
- Collectivism and individualism
- Means and ends

Subsequently there remains a contradiction between university goals in that they want to achieve all these things against clashing perspectives.

2.3.1 Marketisation and Competition

Bryson (2004 p39) points to the “increased marketization of HE”. Alongside the general changes in the sector and the attempt to open-up the market to private
provision, the sector has also been introduced to the reality of fee and loans. Although loans (for maintenance) were first introduced in 1990, it was not until 1998 (£1000) that tuition fees were first introduced. This was subsequently increased to £3000 in 2006. Both, fees were considered as contributions to the cost of a course, however in 2012 fees were raised to cover full cost as fees of £9000 were introduced. (Ahlburg, 2018). Ahlburg (2018) further suggests that at the time there was some belief Universities would regulate fees, so that fees became variable based on course costs within a University. However, many University charged the highest fee immediately, while those that did charge slightly lower fees quickly followed suit as price did not seem to affect applications / enrolments, as courses with lower fees being perceived as poorer quality by many.

The 2016 white paper (Mampaey, 2018) continued to drive the government’s attempts to drive competition and marketisation into the sector by opening up the market to new providers, making it easier for private providers to get TDAP (Teaching Degree Awarding Powers) and University Status, allowing students at private providers to access £9000 tuition fees (tuition fee loans are currently capped at £6000 at private providers effectively limiting the fees of these institutions) and the introduction of the TEF which aims to measure teaching quality at each institution. The government belief that this puts students at the centre of the system and suggests that this will create competition treating education as a product in the belief that it will force prices down and create a more competitive market. According to Ahlburg (2018) the government believes driving competition through student led demand will solve the problems of the higher education system in the UK. He suggests a failing by the government in that it attempts to treat HE like any other business, while it is not. He points to National Audit Office (NAO) data which suggest only 32% of students consider their course offers value for money.

As students become more central to the process and as TEF starts to judge perceived quality, the notion of student experience becomes more prevalent in the metrics used to make judgements regarding TEF. Duzevic et al (2018) note the growing importance of customer service related to student satisfaction as a fundamental feature of university behavioural patterns. This is coupled with the
“business” concepts of attracting new customers (students) and retaining customers (students) through the notion of loyalty. This may be regarded as retaining students through their studies but can also be regarded as retaining them on from undergraduate to postgraduate taught and on to postgraduate research but can also be translated to include active alumni. This notion of loyalty also impacts with this notion of student satisfaction which builds towards perceived value for money.

2.4 University Identity
Universities in the UK are formed through the creation of some aspect of legal entity. This may have been through a Royal Charter or Act of Parliament. Both the University title and the ability to award degrees (referred to as Degree awarding powers) are protected by law. Organisations with degree awarding powers are called recognised bodies, Degree courses may also be provided at listed bodies, leading to degrees validated by a recognised body. Recently the UK government has simplified the process for gaining University status and with it gain degree awarding powers. Alongside competition and marketisation University identity has also become something of an issue for consideration. Not only in the sense of what the university is visibly but also what it stands for. As such, Mampaey (2018) suggests that Universities operate in a strongly “institutionalised environment”, (p1241) suggesting that they are driven by the notion of conforming to a set of values which are endorsed by the institution. For example, Mampaey (2018) suggests HEIs are over-occupied with symbols and what they portray of the institution. Apart from the notion of traditional symbols (crests, buildings etc.) a key symbol may be the course fee. When fees were initially raised to £9000 there was a mis-guided expectation that there would be a range of fees set for courses at universities. While there was some initial variation in the standard fee this was quickly altered to find most fees hit the top level and other approaches were used to discount fees for the “widening participation” and “access” agendas. Universities were not going to set their courses as “cheaper” due to the assumed link between price and quality. Instead as Mampaey (2018) notes, the key is around translation, as HEIs translate the environment around them and respond accordingly.
The UK higher education system places a significantly high level of prestige on Universities which are research-intensive and which are part of the high-profile Mission groups (namely the Russell Group). As such it would be suggested that academics would expect to have different emphasis on their role dependent on where they worked.

This notion of what a University is about and what it stands for has led to Universities thinking about how they differentiate themselves from others and how they work together to achieve their goals. Starkey et al (2004) suggest a symbiotic link between three systems – culture, educational and occupational, and thus provides the justification for the stance taken and the allocation of resources. This has led to the formation of mission groups designed to help promote ‘sets’ of University’s priorities. In essence the mission groups help identify what that grouping of university is about and this is their reason for existence. As Deroche-Miles (THE, 2009) argues "It is in their intrinsic interest to air their positions clearly and often enough that member institutions keep recognising themselves in the message and keep belonging." The THE noted there were five (Russell Group, the University Alliance, MillionPlus (formerly Million+), the 1994 Group {this has since dissolved}, and GuildHE mission groups in existence (THE 2009) each with its own priorities or as Scott (2013) puts it ambitions. Two other key groups exist in the form of the Cathedrals Group and Universities UK. Cuthbert (THE 2009) identifies them as pressure groups and suggests that their focus is in essence to ensure their part of the HE Sector (i.e. their group of Universities) is listened to and UK HE policy does not restrict their activities. Scott (2013) describes the mission groups as clubs which are formed from Universities with similar origins, ethos and ambitions. This however can be challenged through the notion of wanting to belong to the better club and Universities swapping clubs as they move up the rankings and change their mission / ethos. Perhaps it is more about ethos and ambition than origin. Interestingly the Russell Group makes frequent references to "leading universities" perhaps suggesting a tiering of universities and a rivalry among them. However, this would question whether rivalry and competition are necessarily the same.
2.4.1 Mission Groups

*Russell Group*
Consisting of 24 research intensive Universities, committed to excellent research, outstanding teaching and learning, and excellent links with local and national business. They produce over two-thirds of the UKs world-leading research. (Russell Group n.d.). It originally consisted of 19 members with 5 joining later.

*1994 Group*
The 1994 Group as the name suggests was formed in 1994 consisting of the smaller research-intensive Universities. in response to the formation of the Russell Group. It has since dissolved (2013). The 1994 group originally consisted of 17 members rising to 19 at its height but only having 11 members at its point of dissolution. This was due to many members seeking membership of the more prestigious Russell Group. Ten of the original seventeen members had left the group by the end of 2012.

*University Alliance*
Formed in 2006 from the technical and professional universities who were committed to growth and innovation within British industries. They focus on applied research and associate impact. The University Alliance consists of 18 members, most of who are former polytechnics. (University Alliance, n.d.)

*MillionPlus*
MillionPlus aims to promote the role of the modern university the UK Higher Education system. There are currently 20 members, all of whom would be classed as ‘new’ universities as all have gained University status since 1992. (MillionPlus, n.d.)

*Guild HE*
Formed in 2006 out of the previous Standing Conference of Principals. It tends to represent the smaller newer Universities and a small number of non-University higher education institutions. GuildHE highlights key foci as distinctiveness and
inclusiveness. It has 49 members most of whom have University status. (GuildHE, n.d.)

_Cathedrals Group_
Coalition of new Universities with historic links to the Christian Church and generally with a background in religious and teacher education.

Universities UK
Formed in 1918, Universities UK (UUK) seeks to be the voice of the University Sector in the UK. It seeks to be an advocate for all and seeks the common interest of all Universities. It originally started as the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom (CVCP).

Classifications of UK universities
The UK historical system allows the classification of Universities into several different categories, some of which helps to explain their background or status and the ethos that they seem to uphold. Universities may fit into several different categories and due to their history and development do not necessarily remain consistent with the principals related to the categories they have always belonged to.

- **Ancient University** – refers to the six Universities created before the 17th Century.
- **Redbrick University** – refers to the civic Universities created at the end of the 19th century / beginning of the 20th Century in the major UK towns and cities.
- **Plate glass University** – refers to the group of Universities created in the 1960s
- **Technological University** – refers generally to universities with technology at their heart, often previously known as polytechnics
- **Campus University** – refers to a university on a single site
- **Collegiate University** – traditionally refers to universities with constituent colleges, however more recently the term collegiate university has become
used to refer to Universities with more than one site or spread throughout a town or city.

- Civic University – refers to Universities initially instituted serving a particular town or city
- Private University – refer to the small number of UK Universities that sit outside of public funding.
- Public University – refer to the majority of UK Universities who are in some way funded by central government and have charitable status

2.5 Business Schools

As the research focuses on Business Schools (or equivalent) it is important to appreciate the role and nuances of Business Schools within UK Universities. As such it is important to be able to contextualise the challenges faced by Business Schools and how they may be out of alignment with other curriculum areas within Universities.

Business Schools are university level institutions which offer business qualifications. While the term Business School is the most common term used other terms such as Management Schools is also common. Alternatively, the name School of …, or Department of …. Is also common within the sector. A key aspect of Business Schools and business school behaviour is to take academic theory and apply it to real-life business scenarios (Princeton Review 2019). As such key drivers behind business schools are to create graduates for leadership positions and those who can challenge contemporary business practice, thus achieving a social good. CABS (2019) examined the changing shape of business education provision. According to the report CABS suggest that the market for business education has been constantly changing and as such Business Schools have needed to be innovative and ever evolving. They have needed to consider ever changing and new audiences, commercial opportunities and the application of technology. As such it has become apparent that globalisation and technology will be key drivers in meeting the demands of the marketplace. CABS concluded that business education providers would need to consider
• how to embed skills needed to operate in a “volatile, uncertain, complex
and ambiguous business and cultural environments” (CABS, 2019:24)
• how to work with partners
• new approaches to learning and delivery models
• the development of new products
• how to use their research base and tradition, setting themselves apart from
the competition.

There has been mounting criticism of Business Schools over the last few years
(Starkey and Thomas, 2019). They question whether Business Schools are fit for
purpose. In addition, they highlight the contemporary approach to capitalist and
managerialist approaches, that has driven most teaching and development. Given
the failings of many high-profile businesses and leaders it is perhaps no surprise
that criticism has followed. As such there has been greater drive to ensuring that
Business School provision has a wider scope and at the centre of it should be
ethical and sustainable practice. They also suggest that a broader-curricula
should be encouraged rather than focussing on the technical skills that seem to be
engulfing provision currently (Starkey and Thomas, 2019). Several authors
(Cheib, 1985; Miles, 1985; Hawawani, 2005; Pfeffer and Fong, 2002, 2004; CABS,
2019; Stevens, 2000; Starkey et al, 2004) have written about the criticisms and
future of Business Schools and Business Education. It seems that Business
Schools have been under attack for the last half century and as such have
continually felt the need to reinvent themselves. It seems that as often as not
Business Schools come under attack each time poor business practice raises its
head. Alongside this, Pitelis (2019) suggests a need to re-imagine business
schools and for them to become functions to achieve “a better and brighter future”.
He highlights the need for Business Schools to have professional credibility and
academic legitimacy to drive focus and acceptance.
Pfeffer and Fong (2002) note the lack of influence on management practice that
Business School research was having. Pfeffer and Fong (2004) identified
possible roles for Business Schools as;
• a source of critical thought and inquiry about organisations and
management
• making management a profession
• improve management practice

Pfeffer and Fong (2004) suggest that Business Schools do not pay enough attention to professionalism and professional standards. As such they question whether Business Schools lack a clear message regarding the importance of standards, has led to an implicit message suggesting that unethical practice and business behaviour is somewhat acceptable. As such Business Schools are a recent invention. This builds on the work of Hawawani (2005) who acknowledge the need for a curriculum with softer skills.

2.6 Conclusion
The context of the HE Sector, the types of institutions, the manifestation of managerialism and the broadening of HE as a marketable product are important as the contextual background for influencing behaviours amongst academic staff. This chapter seeks to raise some of the key features of the HE Sector to place into context how we may see the environment and context of the workplace for academics. Importantly, University Identity is a crucial aspect of the HE Sector and individual Universities make every effort to create an effective identity which characterises themselves within certain categories while also distinguishes themselves from competitor institutions. This they use to their benefit to attract students and staff. The chapter closes some of the key aspects that suggest that Business Schools may be different to some of the other schools / departments within a University.
Chapter 3: Literature Review: Psychological Contract

3.1 Introduction

The psychological contract is defined differently by different authors dependent on their perspective of whether the psychological contract is mutual or idiosyncratic. The psychological contract is defined as “The individual’s beliefs about mutual obligations, in the context of the relationship between employer and employee” Rousseau (1990, p391). Alternatively, Herriot et al (1997 p 151) define it as “the perceptions of mutual obligations to each other held by the two parties in the employment relationship”. Contemporary professional use may simplify this as “the unwritten set of expectations of the employment relationship as distinct from the formal, codified employment contract” (HRZone, 2020).

The first part of the chapter addresses core theoretical issues surrounding psychological contract including the basis of the psychological contract and its importance to the employment relationship, the idiosyncratic and mutual nature of contracts, the content of the psychological contract. Thereafter, the chapter identifies the contributory factors that build individual psychological contracts and how this may have changed over time. The chapter also considers theoretical critiques of the psychological contract as a construct and develops an understanding of the key issues related to its measurement and control. In addition, the concepts of multiplicity and agents are identified as critical features with the psychological contract.

Having identified the basis of the psychological contract, the literature review considers empirical studies within the context of academia. This section considers key aspects of the psychological contract and how that applies within academia, considering the academic role and how they see it. The Chapter then moves into considering some of the key factors that may influence individuals and the development of individual psychological contracts. Issues such as work ethic, person-organisation fit, managerialism, and job design as critical issues in how individuals portray their role, their obligations and where they place their discretionary effort.
3.2 Basis of the Psychological Contract

Several authors incorporating Cullinane and Dundon (2006), Del Campo (2007), Freese and Schalk (2008), Herriot et al (1997) and Shen (2010) suggest the origination of the psychological contract lies with work undertaken by Argyris throughout the 1960s, however Tookey (2013) points to the work of Menninger in 1958. Alongside this Tookey also suggests an alignment to organisational equilibrium theory and social contracts. Similarly, Schein (2010) points to Wraith (2008) who considers Jean Jacques Rousseau’s 1762 articulation of the relationship between the individual and the state, known as the Social Contract. Subsequently, Jardat (2012) suggests high levels of similarities between the psychological contract and the social contract constructs. Despite this, however, he recognises a “tectonic fault” (p44) with the social contract based on the idea of power and reward, while the psychological contract is reliant on the notion of exchange.

The first users of the concept however were Levinson et al in 1962 (Cullinane and Dundon, 2006) who introduced the key players in the employment relationship with the focus on expectation. Significantly they recognised its fundamental implicit nature. Rohling (1997 cited in Cullinane and Dundon, 2006) highlights the important role that Levinson et al played in the establishment of the concept, however it did not become a prominent construct until the 1990s (Cullinane and Dundan, 2006; Freese and Schalk, 2008) influenced by the continuous unrest of industrial relations which were a prominent feature of the preceding decade. As such the work of Rousseau in 1989 followed by other papers throughout the 1990s made an overwhelming and perhaps earth-shattering contribution (Cornelisson and Durand 2014). According to Shoss et al (2018) uncertainty and instability in the workplace has a significant negative impact on the employment relationship and this was a prominent feature of the western economies through the 1980s brought about by western economies moving away from a manufacturing base with the desire to cut costs resulting in much of the work moving to Asia.

Herriot and Pemberton (1997b) noted the idea of a ‘new deal’ which was borne out of tensions that built up in the employment relationship which led to breakages (deemed as breach and violation later in the chapter) and realignment within the
psychological contract. These tensions and breakages would lead to a renaissance for the psychological contract which subsequently produced an overabundance of articles in the past two decades. (Johnston, 2017). This interest was kindled by the fractious industrial relations which marred much or the period between 1980 and 2000 and the changes with organisations that ensued (Freese and Schalk, 2008). However, it was not so much the nature of the changes that had greatest impact but rather the recurring nature of the changes. This is in agreement with Bratton (2007) who suggested that a key feature for the increased popularity of the psychological contract was the contradiction (or at least the incompatibility) between the idea of commitment and flexibility, and the drive of more for less. van der Smissen et al (2013) highlighted that recurring change within organisations and organisational settings can have constructive and destructive impact on the psychological contract, however actual change has limited impact (Johnston, 2017). Kelley-Patterson and George (2001) however highlight the psychological contract as a manifestation of the ongoing and evolving employee-employer relationship. In support of this, Adams et al (2014 p281) suggest the psychological contract is “lived and not defined”. Hiltrop (1995) had previously highlighted the need for the psychological contract to evolve as new characteristics and expectations change, he acknowledged the changing workplace environment, notably technology and globalisation, which was occurring.

Since the rebirth of interest in the psychological contract, two strands of thought have been established, one based on stance of an idiosyncratic viewpoint (Rousseau 1989, 1990, 1995) while the other based on a belief in the ideas of mutuality and reciprocity (Del Campo, 2007) following that of Guest (1998) Rousseau’s (1990, p391) definition identifies “the individual’s beliefs about mutual obligations, in the context of the relationship between employer and employee.” which recognises the existence of the psychological contract within the mindset of the individual, based on their interpretation of what is agreed. As such Rousseau identifies the significance of the individual’s perception of the relationship and what has been agreed, whether implicit or explicit. Put simply, Rousseau et al (2018 p1) start their paper with “the obligations individuals believe exist between themselves and others…” outlines the very nature of the psychological contract as an
idiosyncratic construct that does not really have a mutual nature. Alternatively, the CIPD (2014) define the psychological contract as “the perceptions of the two parties, employee and employer, of what their mutual obligations are towards each other”. While there is little difference between the two definitions there is one fundamental and significant variance, that being the role of the employer. While Rousseau clearly removes the employer from the construct, the CIPD sees the employer as a key contributor. This may be expected given the role and position of the CIPD, however it raises the question about what or who is the employer. Similarly, Stiles et al 1997 p57) define the psychological contract “as the set of reciprocal expectations between an individual employee and the organisation”. They suggest that while conditions are stable contribution will generally be consistent, however during more challenging times contribution will become more fractious and there is opportunity for more occasions of breach of the psychological contract and lead to reduction in commitment and compliance. This debate shall be returned to later in the chapter.

The psychological contract cannot be underestimated in terms of its importance in understanding individuals and their relationship within organisations. Coyne and Gavin (2013 p96) suggest that it “provides employees with a mental model of the employment relationship”, while Shen (2010, p576) suggests that it “fills the perceptual gaps in the employment relationship", in essence the areas open to interpretation, which may be implicit in the relationship, and will determine how individuals respond within the workplace (Kasekende et al, 2015). As such the this influences an individual’s reactions to their employer and the role they have. Furthermore, Herriot and Pemberton (1997b) highlighted the importance of the integration of both the organisation and the individual to effective management. In support, Rousseau and Schalk (2000) highlight the importance of understanding and organising the psychological contract. They suggest that successful use of the psychological contract as a management tool leads away from ‘using people’ to ‘building people’ and that a key element of this comes down to trust. This is further developed and considered by Wellin (2007) who argues that the approach needs to be embedded with the organisation’s culture, while Guest and Conway (2004) link it to effective communication. Kelley-Patterson and George (2001) point to the development or the manifestation of the psychological contract is a
product of the interaction between both the employee and the employer. Jha and Pingle (2015) support the idea that the psychological contract changes over time, in response to how the relationship changes which determines changes in expectations. They point to the importance of managing the psychological contract. Importantly, Rousseau et al (2018) highlight that much of the research conducted has focussed on snapshots – a point in time – rather than considering how relationships change over time and this the psychological contract needs to be considered as a dynamic process, rather than the static interpretation that is often considered.

Salicru and Chelliah (2014) highlight the importance of leaders to “empower every employee to achieve the extraordinary” (p38). They suggest a model based on the psychological contract due to the inherent importance of the relationships. Salicru and Chelliah (2014) identify discretionary effort as “performance in which individuals go beyond the call of duty or exceed normal demands, requirements or expectations of their job” (p44). They suggest that discretionary effort will “add value to the team” (p44) and will therefore benefit the organisation. They link this to both commitment and engagement. Furthermore, Conway and Briner (2005) highlight that the inter-relationship of employers and employees affects the attitude and behaviour of employees. It can have a major negative affect when an employee believes he or she has been wronged and hence psychological contract has been violated. In parallel, Parzefall and Hakanen (2010) build on the ideas of Schaufeli et al (2002) who highlighted three components of work engagement: vigour, dedication and absorption. Vigour related to effort, dedication to enthusiasm and absorption to commitment to the job. Subsequently, Parzefall and Hakanen (2010) suggest a model of motivational process which suggest a relationship between psychological contract fulfilment, being engaged in work and having commitment linked to turnover intentions.
3.2.1 Breach and Violation of the Psychological Contract

A significant focus on psychological contract literature has centred on issues related to breach and violation (Jonsson and Thorgen, 2017). The two terms are generally used interchangeably. However, Tookey (2013:31) defines breach as “one’s organisation has failed to meet one or more obligations” while violation is “an emotional and affective state that may follow from the failure to maintain the contract”. The importance of breach and violation (not attempting to undermine the literature) mainly manifests in the removal or at the least reduction in trust, a breakdown in the employment relationship and perhaps a move from a relational to transactional relationship. Long term effects predicate a reduction in motivation, job satisfaction, discretionary effort, and organisational commitment, perhaps leading to a reduction in organisational and individual performance, absenteeism, industrial unrest, and high levels of staff turnover. Rodwell et al (2015) emphasise that the fulfilment (or breakage) of promises is more important than the promise itself. However, this raises the question as to whether the psychological contract can be fulfilled or is it that it can merely be maintained. Wei et al (2018: 130) refer to this as “incongruence” and raise the question as to whether the psychological contract is perpetually fractious and is always on the edge of breach and violation. Kasekende et al (2015) highlight that although there is a plethora of literature the focus has mainly been on violation and breach, and not on managing the psychological contract. They suggest that much of this research has neglected the
turbulence of the business environment. In consideration of this, organisational climate therefore contributes significantly to the psychological contract’s construction and materialisation. Alongside this they also suggest a relationship between organisational climate and an individual’s commitment to the organisation. Similarly, Griep and Vantilborgh (2018) suggest a cyclical nature of PC breach and repair but including differing cycles which may be continuous and over-lapping and with differing agents.

3.3 Nature and Content of the Psychological Contract
3.3.1 Psychological Contract Nature
Sherman and Morley (2015) highlight that there has been little research conducted into the formation of the psychological contract. While several authors (Morley, 2007; Sturges and Guest, 2001) have suggested that there is an instinctive forming of any new psychological contract on any first engagement, Sherman and Morley (2015) emphasise the importance of organisational socialisation as a key factor in the formation of the psychological contract, thus they point to the information givers in the socialisation process. This they identify as the human resource processes and organisational agents. In essence individuals form expectations based on the information they are given. Kasekende (2017) suggests that often line managers are identified as the employer as they are the front-face of the organisation.

The model of the psychological contract originally advocated by Rousseau (1989, 1990, 1995) suggested the existence of two facets notably relational and transactional. The distinction between the two centred on the relationship between employee and employer and whether they are based on long-termism or short-termism. Long-termism was often based on the emotional connection with the employer which may have been associated with a form of mutual interrelationship. Short-term perspectives however are dictated by transactional activities such as financial reward. Dabos and Rousseau (2004) further developed the model to embrace a hybrid (also termed balanced) contract. This emphasised the psychological contract as an evolving and shifting phenomenon along a continuum, in which time and activities change the relationship. Drawing on Rousseau and others, Shields (2007) developed a matrix (appendix one)
elaborating these four forms of the psychological contract. Whether the relational psychological contract in its purest form can ever be uncovered is questioned by Philbeam and Metcalfe (2013) however they recognise the need for the growth of emotional attachment from the employee towards the employer for it to exist. They argue that the dynamic nature of the psychological contract will result in relational and transactional aspects will be evident in all individuals. Rousseau and Schalk (2000) in line with changes in industrial relations suggest that there has been a shift from relational to transactional contracts, and this has created employees who as a group are more scheming and egocentric. Many writers recognise that the psychological contract is not a consistent phenomenon and will differ across and within organisations, particularly across professions (Shen, 2010), while others such as Conway and Briner (2002) and Rousseau and Parks (1993) consider differences in contracts (part-time v full-time and temporary v permanent) will create differing influences. The link between permanency and the relational psychological contract has been highlighted by Millward and Hopkin (1998) and Johnston (2017). Notably, Hendry and Jenkins (1997) note a general move from relational to transactional psychological contracts. They acknowledge the decline in loyalty across a range of organisations and sectors. They suggest that organisations need to develop new deals to cope with the implications of the breakdown of the old deal and form new relationships with their employees to get the best out of them and accept a different type of employee now exists. Subsequently Herriot and Pemberton (1997a) acknowledge the changing environment and suggest the contracting process has also changed. They acknowledge the key feature of career management as an ingredient of the psychological contract.

Robinson and Rousseau (1994) argue that there is a promissory nature to the psychological contract, while Makin et al (1996) further this by highlighting the importance of this promissory nature above expectations. This is supported by Tallman (2008) who states, “psychological contracts are promise-based”. However, this should perhaps be more clearly identified as a “combination of promise and interpretation – not what has been promised but what the belief (interpretation of the promise) has been” (Johnston, 2017 p5), which raises another contributor, trust.
Robinson (2012) suggests that a key feature in any employment relationship is trust and as such it becomes fundamental in the development of the psychological contract and that perhaps trust boundaries have shifted as the employment relationship has changed. Rayton and Yalabik (2014) highlight the notion that the interaction between the organisation (or representatives of the organisation, in the eyes of the employee) and the employee naturally creates expectations regardless of intention. These expectations may be implicit or explicit. They highlight a link between these expectations and work engagement.

An alternative view of the psychological contract model has been composed of three contract types (traditional; disengaged; independent) based on commitment to the organisation (Guest and Conway, 2004). The Traditional contract is underpinned by the traditional of view of individuals have permanency (or at least a tenure which may be considered long term) and that they undertake substantive working hours which on the whole may be considered full time. The Disengaged contract alternative advocates individuals with little or no emotional link to their employer. Alternatively, these individuals are focused outside of the workplace. Thirdly the Independent contract aligns with those who are often engaged in a transactional relationship in which they are anticipate being rewarded but only anticipate a short tenure in a role. Often these individuals would be well qualified and in high demand. While there is an obvious link to the ideas of Rousseau and does not necessarily dispute her model, Guest and Conway are more directly advocating a stable situation, whereas Rousseau’s model may be considered a more fluid state that is more dynamic in nature. They are perhaps merely suggesting an overarching contractual engagement model as to the reason for being employed rather perhaps identifying the psychological contract. Nutakki et al (2015) advocate an adaptation of the Guest (2004) model of the psychological contract as an appropriate model to help interpret the psychological contract of professional workers. They make use of this model in their study of the Indian Higher Education Sector.
Lub et al (2016) investigated how different generations responded to the fulfilment of the psychological contract, arguing that it was important for Human Resource Managers, and managers in general to consider how society and more importantly societal changes impact the psychological contract. They argue that one of the key aspects of the psychological contract is its formation. They argue that different generations will have formed their grounding of the psychological contract at a time of different societal pressures and argue that society has changed most quickly for the current generation. Mannheim (1952 cited in Lub et al 2016) suggests that ages 16 to 25 are the critical years for forming attitudes and values. Lub et al (2016) identify three generations: Baby Boomers; Generation X and Generation Y, each with their own generic characteristics. While the characteristics of the generations are based on the social atmosphere of the times, these also informed organisational policies and procedures. Significantly their research found that for Baby Boomers social atmosphere a critical factor, while Generation X were influenced significantly by organisational policies and social atmosphere, while Generation Y are significantly influenced by career development and rewards fulfilment. Camblin and Steger (2000) highlight the importance of faculty development in raising performance. They suggest meeting everyone’s individual needs as being problematic and recognise the need for overarching strategy. In addition, Adams et al (2014) suggest that men and women will have different expectations in the workplace, and this is formed due to largely different perceptions of inducements which in turn influence expectations. Linking back however to Lub et al (2016) this may be influenced and changed relevant to their generational characteristics. Notably, Jonsson and Thorgren (2017) highlight that much of the research conducted on the psychological contract relationship focusses on the employer’s obligations towards the employee and ignores the mutual aspect, that includes the employees’ obligation to the employer, challenging the notion of mutuality as an important feature of the psychological contract.

3.3.2 Psychological Contract Content

Having identified what the psychological contract is, it is important to understand what it contains, that is the content of the psychological contract. Sherman and Morley (2015) suggest previous experience as a significant factor which influences
the formation of the psychological contract A term they refer to as “the antecedents of schemata” (p171).

Conway and Briner (2005) (see appendix two) suggest that the psychological contract contains the following key features:

- beliefs and perceptions are central to the psychological contract
- the psychological contract is implicit
- there is a form of perceived agreement
- psychological contract is reciprocal
- psychological contract is continuous and ever evolving

Reviewing the range of different approaches and perspectives of the psychological contract, Tookey (2013) highlights common themes:

- Beliefs constitute the psychological contract
- Psychological contracts are implicit in nature
- Psychological contracts are subjective
- Psychological contracts are associated with a perceived agreement
- A concept of exchange
- Entire set of beliefs regarding a relationship
- Ongoing exchange between two parties
- Identity of the parties
- Shaped by the organisation

3.4 Critiques of the Psychological Contract
3.4.1 Psychological Contract as a Contract

Criticisms are raised in the use of the term contract as pertained in the construct through the ‘legal metaphor’ that is associated with it. (Johnston 2017). Pesqueux (2012 p14) suggests “the concept of a contract is about will, agreement, obligation, promise, commitment, staying true to one’s commitments, cooperation, sanction and bond”. In a true sense “contract” implies some form of “legal binding” (Jha and Pingle, 2015 p31), the psychological contract has no legal emphasis. However, Jha and Pingle (2015) suggest a special form of binding exists between people in the form of expectations and obligations. This they suggest is the psychological
contract. As such it is not a relationship between a person and an organisation, but instead it is a relationship between a person and another person who they identify as or with the organisation. Hence between an employee and their manager (the organisation). Wei et al (2018) note that the psychological contract differs from a legal contract in that it is perception based and promissory, as such the psychological contract is open to a broad interpretation by the interacting individuals, as there is no formal written agreement. The idiosyncratic nature of the psychological contract further complicates any ‘agreed’ obligations.

3.4.2 Psychological Contract and Free Will
A further critique of the psychological contract lies with the notion of free will. Free will may be defined as “an individual’s capacity to make choices without certain constraints: physical, social or personal”. (Rousseau, 2012 p8) The notion of free will is a primary function within the psychological contract as there is the expectation that the ‘contracting’ process is available. Subsequently, “the notion of the psychological contract is ontologically related to the notion of autonomy” (Pesqueux, 2012 p30), arguably that free will relies on intellectual and emotive processes (Rousseau, 2012) sacrificing rights to meet what has been committed to. Further to this, Pesqueux (2012 also notes that discussion between employee and employer would inform any promises or obligations and perhaps that there may be some trade-off.

3.4.3 Psychological Contract as a Construct
A further critique of the psychological contract is posed by Thomas et al (2003, cited in Cullinane and Dundon, 2006) who note the subjective nature of the psychological contract due to the individual perceptions of individuals drawn from individual baggage. Culture, beliefs, background etc will influence cognitive processing of information and thus determining the thought processes which help to affirm the psychological contract. This challenges the construct’s homogenous nature or whether it is instead more a collective of ideas that have just been jumbled together to create a model.

This is further questioned by Marks (2001) who suggest it lacks analytical rigour based a lack of clarity in relation to definitions, debateable principles and as
previously raised the legal metaphor of the term contract itself. Furthermore, the question of the organisation or the employer is challenged as to what or who this is. Marks (2001) argues that instead of one relationship with the employer instead many individuals are recognised as the employer (in many organisations) and instead individuals have multiple relationships with those they may identify with as the employer. This concept of agency permeates the suggestion that the individual has a multiplicity (Marks, 2001) of individual contracts with various individuals (agents) who the employee sees as the employer. These guises each have a different relationship with the individual employee. (Guest, 1998) Pesqueux (2012) links agency with that of free will. This coincides with notions of mutuality (Guest 1998) and multiplicity (Marks, 2001) in the psychological contract and the employment relationship. If Rousseau’s view of the psychological contract as a construct which is idiosyncratic and as such within the mind of the individual it is mutuality becomes a questionable concept, as it is difficult to know what is understood and interpreted within a belief. Mutuality would suggest that there is a relationship.

3.4.4 Multiplicity within the Psychological Contract
As the psychological contract is a relationship between an individual and the institution they work for, personal interaction between the individual and who they identify with as the organisation is of significant importance. As such the notion of multiplicity and agency (Guest, 1998) is raised as individuals identify with individuals (or sometimes groups of individuals) as the organisation. This may be individuals such as the Vice Chancellor, Dean of School, Head of Department, or a group such as the HR Department or the Senior Team. Mark’s (2001) view of multiplicity suggests that we have different psychological contracts with different agents (individuals) we identify with as the organisation. See fig. 2. There remains a continuation in the debate however there is now general acceptance of the psychological contract (Del Campo, 2007).
The idiosyncratic nature of the psychological contract is questioned by Tallman (2008) who suggest that instead of it being individual there are affinity and homogeneity between colleagues and workmates who contribute to each other’s beliefs, interjected by “personal dispositions” (p216). Further to this, Tallman’s research highlighted the retribution and remuneration systems imposed by employers to enforce employee obligations but recognised that employers obliging to discuss their obligations. Subsequently, Rousseau et al (2018) critique the conflation of the use of promises, obligations and expectations as creating confusion within studies and empirical research, suggesting it is not surprising to find the psychological contract has come under significant criticism within the areas of coherence and construct validity. This suggests the psychological contract centres on obligations – as this is more concrete. Promises and expectations may give rise to obligations but not in reverse.

3.5 The Psychological Contract in Academia

As previously stated, the psychological contract remains an area of relevant research (Del Campo, 2007) and in addition Nutakki et al (2015), Shen (2010) and Tookey (2013) suggests that a gap within the literature centred on academics and academic institutions, In particular he highlights the changing nature of academics and academic work over the past 20 years thus suggesting it is an area that shares much of the turbulence that mirrors the 1980s and 1990s. He suggests that
a fundamental shift during the previous 20 years was based around how academics saw their role and how the environment had changed having an impact on their ambitions. The lack of literature suggests that little is known about academics and their psychological contract. Shen (2010) furthered the discussion asking whether traditional models applied in academia who points towards Gillespie (2001) who suggests that the academic psychological contract will differ from those apparent in other professions. He suggests traditionally academics are likely to hold a relational psychological contract but questions the strength of the relationship in comparison to that with their professional area or to academia itself. On reflection it has been acknowledge that a growing transactional emphasis has been developing over the period of unrest (Shen 2010). Bathmaker (1999) undertook her research in an ex-polytechnic noting indistinctness that surrounded institutions as having a detrimental effect on academics relationship with their employers. Key factors for this centred on a loss of identity and insecurity. She suggests that these new universities were run more as businesses, with the need for managers to satisfy stakeholder requirements and as such adopted a new managerialist approach. She suggested that academics felt devalued and as such the psychological contract of individuals moved to a more transactional nature. Bathmaker’s work was supported by Gammie (2006) who identified ‘new managerialism’ and in particular politicised control, noting the introduction of research ratings (RAE) and an inspection framework and resulted in a move towards more mechanistic organisational structures and a reduction in the academic influence within organisational decision making processes.

Shen (2010) recognised key baggage areas influencing the formation of their psychological contract such as their educational level and organisational persuasion of where they studied as to whether they were research or teaching orientated, length of service and previous experience in an industry setting. This it was suggested had a dual influence of how they saw the academic role. In addition traditional areas such as demographics, nationality and culture were also seen to have a significant influence on how they saw their role. This subsequently results in academics perceiving jobs through one of 3 lenses (Gammie, 2006). He suggests a job orientation lens in which individuals are focussed on the rewards they expect to receive, career orientation in which there is focus on advancing
their career, and a third lens centred on a calling orientation which focusses on undertaking work which is of socially perceived value.

He emphasises changes in job role and titles as manifestations of this attempt to categorise individuals by institutions and individuals’ pursuit of their job lens. He highlights the emergence of ‘Teaching Only’ contracts and ‘Research Fellows’. However, while this may have negative connotations, it may also have positive ones in which organisations advocate it as part of a make strategy (Miles and Snow, 1980) giving lecturers opportunity to develop a research profile without the pressure of research ratings. Similarly, research assistants and research fellows do not have the pressure of teaching pressures (and more recently teaching ratings (TEF). Johnston (2017) questions the role the REF plays in influencing the agenda as individuals are pressurised by implicit influence which ties research to promotion, while organisations are influenced by funding rewards of successful assessment ratings.

As previously stated, experience is crucial to the development of the psychological contract, with organisational influence having a significant influence on individual’s beliefs. (Rousseau and Parks 1993) Critically a key element remains with who the academic identifies with and as such Agency is of a high level of significance in determining the psychological contract. Academics engage with agents on a regular basis and their enculturation within an organisation will determine the manifestation in a public arena. Much of Levinson's (1965) portrayal of the psychological contract is based on the concept of continuous and long term (life) employment. As such, the ideas and the notion of loyalty may be questionable. The concept and features of transactional psychological contract may be considered similar regardless of profession (Baruch and Hall, 2004). This may not be the same for relational contracts due to the nature of the academic role and the relationships they have and build with colleagues and students.

Tipples and Krivokapic-Skoko (1997, cited in O’Neill et al 2010) emphasise the importance of the working environment for academics. Alongside this areas such as a rewarding and satisfying job role (teaching or research, preferably both), opportunities for career development and advancement, and job security are seen
as crucial promises on the institutions behalf. This they would suggest plays a big role in the formation of the psychological contract amongst academics, and this may be heightened by career aspirations of academics, most notably linked to career prospects and desires whether linked to research, teaching or service. Does the academic desire a route towards, professorial or managerial ‘greatness’ or a career focussed on teaching, a role potentially which has no obvious career progression route. Interestingly, Tookey (2013) reflecting on the model proposed by Guest and Conway (2004) suggests that (potentially at least) academics may fit into all three of these categories, however there is a distinctive element that may suggest that many academics are disengaged. Not necessarily from a work perspective but that rather than associating with their employer, organisation, or school / faculty, they instead associate with their professional body, their research subject / discipline area, or the wider academic community.

3.6 Contributing Factors to an Individual’s Psychological Contract
3.6.1 Work Ethic, Motivation and Discretionary Effort
Understanding why individuals apply more effort (or not) in the workplace remains of interest to HR specialists (Adamska et el, 2015). One area of interest lies with how the psychological contract manifests in the form of discretionary effort (Schimmel et al, 2013). They conject that there is a link between how hard employees work and how much extra effort they put in, is an intrinsic component of an individual’s psychological contract that lies within. As such, person-organisation fit (P-O fit) plays a significant role in how individual employees consider their place within the. This they suggest will lead to greater levels of motivation. However, they also note the importance of work-ethic which they identify as an inherent driver (Johnston 2016). Likewise, Kasekende (2017) suggests the psychological contract manifests as discretionary effort.

Kasekende (2017: 896) adopts the term “employee discretionary behaviour” but suggests that the usual name used is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Ramdhony and Francis (2014) however challenge the level of free will in discretionary effort arguing much discretionary effort has instead become expected, particularly in certain professional roles. They raise the notion of induced discretionary effort in which the manifestation that is discretionary effort is
expected. Kasekende (2017) notes however that disagreement exists between authors regarding the existence of discretionary behaviour. Authors such as Organ (1988) and Kickul and Lester (2001) recognise the notion while others such as Stone-Romero et al (2009) suggest that what many see as discretionary effort is often in fact expected performance. This is particularly prevalent in managerial and professional roles.

Further to this, Kasekende (2017) acknowledges the importance of employee engagement, while Demerouti et al (2010) argues that more engaged employees are more likely to have a relational psychological contract. This is supported by Rahman et al (2017) who emphasises team culture as a key factor. Kasekende (2017) suggest that the fulfilment of the psychological contract leads to an increase in discretionary effort and proposed a hypothesised model.

Figure 3.3: Adapted from Kasekende (2017)

In addition, Hardy et al (2016) highlight the concept of morale as a factor affecting discretionary effort, suggesting the higher the morale the more likelihood of an individual applying discretionary effort. They point to 3 components to morale.

**Antecedents**
- Organisation factors
- Centre factors
- Management factors
- People factors
- Customer factors

**Morale**
- Value
- Future/goal
- Interpersonal

**Consequences**
- Customer Service
- Discretionary
- Collaboration

Figure 3.4 Adapted from Hardy et al (2016)
They argue that morale is contagious, it effects the behaviour and attitude of others, and it also affects performance. Bryson (2004), highlighted a falling level of morale among the academic workforce. In his research he points to key factors which has led to this deterioration (p40).

- Declining salaries
- Difficulties in recruiting staff
- Obstacles to promotion
- Diffusion and blurring of roles
- Work intensification and overload
- Casusalisation and job insecurity
- Demoralising Autonomy
- Declining collegiality
- Declining commitment to the institution
- Managerialism

Although Bryson reported on these as critical issues in 2004, it was found that academics perceived similar issues in their institutions and suggested that the key issues remained unaddressed. Bathmaker (1999) identifies the ‘Janus-faced’ role within academia. She suggests that academics are expected to have different foci and as such motivation becomes a challenge for employers as the intrinsic factors remain far stronger than those which may be considered extrinsic. The academic will be driven within their work by how they perceive their role and as such interpret their own psychological contract. Cullinane and Dundon (2006) argue that the malfunction of the psychological contract is a result of employee expectations which are often realistic and as such employers are unable to fulfil them, rather than it being a failure on the side of the employee. Rayton and Yalabik (2014) consider three elements to work engagement. These are vigour, dedication, and absorption. This supports the ideas of Schaufeli et al (2006) who focussed on the commitment and engagement of individuals based in human service professions. Rawton and Yalabik (2014) suggest a key relationship between an individual’s work ethic, engagement and commitment to the organisation / job role and their psychological contract.
3.6.2 Work Design

Bratton and Gold (2012) link the psychological contract to attitudes to work and suggest that changes to the work role and work design has caused a rupture. Shen (2010) however highlights that academics are used to doing work beyond normal contracted hours and the ‘normal’ workloads. Noon et al (2013) also make the link to work ethic and suggest that generally there has been a demise in the work ethic. Noon et al (2013) suggest that work ethic is a conscientious endeavour and relates to:

- Having a purpose
- Productivity
- Working hard

Graham (2016) suggests that organisations give academics a passageway to what they really want to do, thus supporting the notion of individuality and self. This is supported by Kershaw-Solomon et al (2015) who focussed their research on the relationship between CPD and engagement of academics, and in particular on the teaching development of academics. They pointed to the drive for fellowship of the HEA as a major indicator of this push. They cite Shuck and Rose’s 2013 model of:

\[
\text{engagement} = \text{motivation} + \text{individual interpretation of cognitive and affective meaning/purpose}
\]

Johnston (2016) conducted a small-scale study on the motivational drivers of academics, in which he suggests that subject expertise and meaning are key drivers, while material reward and power are less likely to be a force for motivation. Significantly the research found that the rise in managerialism had a negative impact on motivation.

Rawn and Fox (2018) point to previous research which suggests an academic’s work should be designed on a 40:40:20 basis being research: teaching: service. According to Rawn and Fox (2018) a key element to the role is dependent on perceived expectations. Staff on teaching only contracts expect to undertake teaching, service, and professional development. They noted that staff on teaching
only contracts often undertake pedagogical research. Court (1999) acknowledges the dominant position of research in the development of an academic career. In addition, Oshagbemi (2000) noted that research tends to overshadow teaching in the traditional universities. He also noted that where teaching is related to research there are higher levels of satisfaction amongst academics. Research by Rawn and Fox (2018) identified that 52% of respondents perceived research as the primary way to obtain rewards, while 23% viewed research, teaching and service as being equally weighted. Only 20% weighted teaching and research, with only 4% put teaching as the primary way to receive rewards.

Court (1999) suggests that those staff not involved in research to a high level are in danger of being regarded as, or treated as, second class citizens. He suggests it is up to institutions to take roles into account. Oshagbemi (2000) notes that staff who are more teaching focussed rate their chances of promotion to be lower than those who are more researched focussed, suggesting that while teaching may provide intrinsic rewards, research often provides both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. In contrast, Lueddeke (2003) is critical of many academics who he suggests have not adapted their teaching to meet the needs of learners, instead simply relying on traditional teaching methods and their own knowledge. He suggests this is due in some part to the priority of research over teaching and that there is a lack of scholarship of teaching (p217) which fundamentally has a negative impact on pedagogical practice. Subsequently, in terms of administration, generally staff were dissatisfied with the high levels of paperwork and time consumed by administrative tasks. There was also a feeling that being competent in administrative tasks did not lead to promotion (Oshagbemi, 2000).

3.6.3 Careers and Expectations
Seopa et al (2015) suggests that those with a boundary-less career have less reliance on a single organisation. They point to Arthur and Rousseau (1996) who suggest that individuals with this form of career orientation tend to be concerned with self-promotion for their career advancement. However, Seopa et al (2015) suggest that employees do not necessarily focus on their career progression, but instead concentrate on developing themselves to give them the ability to be attractive to alternative employers. They refer to the development of skills, but
most notably they also consider reputation. Potentially therefore a key element of an academic's reputation is based on research outputs. Arguably the development of the Research Excellence Framework (REF) may seek to reinforce the imbalance, however, it is difficult to see how academics may build their reputation, or alternatively have a single individual impact on rating in the same way as a significantly research active academic may have. That said, Grove (2016) highlights that academics feel that the REF creates additional pressure, causing academics to feel less motivated and causes the quality of research to fall. In addition, he reported that academics at lower ranked universities were under less pressure than those at higher ranked. However, academics at higher ranked institutions felt exclusion from REF would affect career prospects.

Further to this Rousseau and Schalk (2000) suggest a link to moral standards within society, arguing that different societies have different approaches. This may differ within countries and between countries. Noon et al (2013 p173) suggest that “worth represents an important part of social existence.” How work is viewed by society and the worth that is placed on it therefore is factored into an individual’s psyche. This can be further enhanced by considering what individuals seek from career opportunities. A new lecturer for example may seek:

- Opportunities to research and advance career
- Develop skills and advance in teaching
- Develop skills towards an administrative, management or leadership role

Brown (2012) also criticises research and research outputs for the lack of “practical utility” (p6). This he suggests is a consequence of the need to generate quick outputs without focussing on consideration of the usefulness of the research. O’Donohue et al (2007) highlight the importance of ideology and social conscience among academics. This follows on from Thompson and Bunderson (2003) who suggest that an individual’s psychological contract may not just be about perceived obligations and expectations but may also be influenced and entrenched in ideological beliefs or principles. For academics this may be entrenched in beliefs about educational values as a significant element of the formation of the psychological contract. They coin the term ideological currency. Supporting this,
Krivokapic-Skoko and O'Neill (2008) in a study of an Australian university suggest academics have a high work ethic accepting that there is an acceptance of working outside ‘normal’ hours and taking on additional roles. The argue the role of an academic is distinct and highly individualistic with a key aspect being the individual’s beliefs in the purpose and role of education. Similar conclusions were drawn by Chen (2010), Chan (2018) and Rawn and Fox (2018).

3.6.4 Employee Engagement

Eldor and Vigoda-Gadot (2017) suggest there has been a growth of interest in employee engagement amongst academics in recent years suggesting that there is a disagreement as to whether it is a new construct or a re-badged version of other ideas. Crucially however they suggest that it is a mutual factor alongside the psychological contract in explaining and understanding the employment relationship that individuals have with their organisation. Demerouti et al (2010) argue that more engaged employees are more likely to have relational psychological contracts. This is supported by Rahman et al (2017) who emphasise team culture as a key factor.

Sutherland (2018) suggests that several factors affect commitment and engagement.

- Level/type of job
- Levels of responsibility
- Contract nature (permanent/temporary)
- Length of tenure
- Contract (part-time v full-time)
- Size of organisation (smaller is better)
- Gender (female more)

The most notable aspects within most academic posts affect contract nature and contract which have also been highlighted within the psychological contract literature. On the whole, most academics seek a permanent full-time contract, however as always there are exceptions to this
In support of this, Rayton and Yalabik (2014) also point to the impact that not fulfilling these expectations has a negative impact on job satisfaction. Subsequently employees without job satisfaction tend to be less engaged in their work.

3.6.5 Management and Managerialism within the context of Higher Education

As noted in the preceding chapter, managerialism has become to have a greater influence and occurrence within Higher Education, and as this has increased the mental model of academics and the expectations of how they are managed. As such managerialism has changed the face of organisational behaviour and has in many ways restricted the notion of academic freedom.

Deem and Brehony (2005) point to a key manifestation as regulation and control, and the focus of power being managerial, performance management, financial targets, quality audits. As previously noted, a key turning point in the Higher Education sector was borne out of the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act (McTavish and Miller, 2009) as a defining moment for Higher Education. Key to this new approach centred on the efficient, effective, and economic use of resources within institutions. With it came a more business-like managerialist approach. Within the Sector Universities already had a high level of autonomy, but the act freed Colleges of Higher Education and Polytechnics from the control and involvement of local authorities. In addition, Bryson (2004) highlights the significance of change in the UK Higher Education, that has impacted on the sector. These include the move from a system based on elite to a more mass based system of education, the ending of the university – polytechnic/HE college divide, financial restraint, increase in accountability and the notion of value for money, fees, and the move from teaching to student centred learning. In addition to this there has been the increased marketisation of Higher Education, the drive for a greater proportion of the population encountering higher education.

O’Neill et al (2010) focussing on Australian Business Academics and then Creasy (2013) writing about HE in FE noted how political ideology has influenced decision making and have moved to turn higher education into a private good shifting the cost from the state to the individual, thus ignoring the social benefits that higher
education brings. Feather (2012) references the “Trojan horse” (p336) suggesting that both business and government would like a bigger say in how Universities are run and what they do. Robinson (2012) notes the centrality of the student in the ‘modern’ system placing the student as a consumer and altering the relationship that Universities have with their students. Deem (1998) highlighted the growth of managerialism in HEIs and predicts the need for cultural change within organisations due to changes in government policy and expectations. As such, Gedro (2015) emphasises that HEIs are a workplace and as such are as turbulent as other forms of workplace. Although viewing it through a U.S. lens she recognises a similar basis of 3 trends.

• towards minimalism from Government
• towards managerialism
• towards knowledge economy

Mercer (2009) identified new managerialism in a department at a mid-ranking UK university. Key to her findings were efficiency, accountability, marketisation, and entrepreneurialism. In conducting her research, she asks what the role of Higher Education is, and the contribution it makes to society. Research in an Australian University and found similar features related to the growth in managerialism. In conducting the research, O’Neill et al (2010) recognised the similarities between the changes that had taken place in the Australian HE Sector and that being experienced in the UK. In this context, they argue, the psychological contract becomes more relevant. Pedersen and Hartley (2008) discuss the changing context of public leadership and management and while their article does not directly relate to the higher education sector, similarities can be drawn on this new approach to the management of the public sector.

Bryson (2004) concluded that a key factor in an individual’s views was not membership of particular groups, but rather based on individual constructions of individual situations and circumstances, hence idiosyncratic perceptions. The research also concluded that a fundamental motivator of academic staff is intrinsic, allowing the freedom to pursue their own academic interests, be that from a research or teaching standpoint. The move for increased productivity and
workload, coupled with the massification of higher education has eroded this freedom. O’Byrne and Bond (2014) suggest that changes to higher education were dictated by a “neoliberal policy agenda” (p572) which influenced the development of managerialism and consumerism within the centre. According to Graham (2016) neoliberalism provides the basis of current managerialism within higher education. This rise in managerialism has induced workload management processes as a means of managing academic staff. Crucially, Inelman et al (2017) also highlight the importance of organisational justice in individuals’ approach to workplace activity. Key issues relate to perceptions of equity related to workload and resources.

Bryson (2004 p40) highlighted a growing trend of:

- Declining salaries, recruitment difficulties and increasing obstacles to gaining promotion
- Diffusion and blurring of roles
- Work intensification and overload
- Consolidation of employment and job insecurity
- Deteriorating autonomy
- Declining collegiality and commitment to the institution
- Managerialism

Vardi (2009) suggests the increase in managerialism and the competitive environment of HE has led to increased workloads for academic staff, which has resulted in higher levels of dissatisfaction amongst academic staff. According to Vardi (2009 p 499) the increase in managerialism manifests itself in “more auditing and accountability”. Alongside this there is an increase in the expectations of academic staff in terms of teaching, research, and administration. Vardi draws on the work of Anderson et al (2002) who suggests this change in organisational climate has resulted in a reduction in collegiality and autonomy. This is supported by Yiedler and Codling (2004) who point to government ideology about organisational efficiency and competition as the key drivers. Morrison (2010) points to the fact that although the concept of the psychological contract has been around for a while, its rise to popularity with managers has been recent. He
suggests however that too many managers see it as a tool for manipulating people rather than for understanding human interactions. This however is influence and determined by perceptions of motivation. As such, Reisz (2017) highlights research conducted amongst academics into workload. Key findings from the research found:

- 71.6% did not feel respected and valued by senior management
- 79.6% regularly worked evenings and weekends
- 55.6% felt under pressure to publish and had a negative impact on their wellbeing
- 69.5% felt they did not have enough time to support students.

Sir Cary Cooper (Reisz, 2017) suggests that poor quality H.R. staff within universities are a significant part of the problem. He argues they are process driven and “focussed on pay and rations rather than concerned about academics’ learning and measuring well-being” (p7). In line with this, Graham (2016) suggests that workload planning is crucial as it leads to “financial stability” (p1052) which is of significant importance within post-92 institutions where staffing costs “account for around 58% of income” (p1052).

3.6.6 Academics and their professional identity

The term Academic may be considered to be a broad term covering a wide range of roles and focus within a University. How an academic identifies themselves and their role is of significant importance to the formation of the psychological contract. This is particularly important in where they emphasise their role and most centre around a focus on teaching and learning or research. That said it is not unusual for individual academics to find a balance between these two facets. Some academics who are choosing a managerial route may also have significant focus on administration. The focus of their role and the identity that ensues will influence their psychological contract.

Terpstra and Honoree (2009) and Macfarlane (2011) support the split of teaching, research and service activity. Historically there have been several critical changes in the UK higher Education system. Much of this has related to social change and
the attempt to move from elite to mass education. More recently there has been significant change in international recruitment strategies, growth of part-time and temporary contracts and a perceived decline in respect for the academic position. Coupled with this are the apparent attractiveness of working overseas such as in Australia and the US. Of significant influence is the Robin Report (1963) which advocated the growth of vocational courses and the need for applied research. In essence this brought about a major change to the academic landscape and perhaps changed the purpose of high education. Subsequently but of no less significance followed the Further and Higher Education Act (1992) and the Deering Report (1997). Tookey (2013) suggests that these both contributed to the divide that exists between pre- and post-1992 institutions. In essence the importance of scholarship and research held greater significance in the pre-1992 institutions. The type of organisation an academic works in will no doubt influence and dictate their approach and appreciation of the role (Baruch and Hall, 2004). Certainly, this becomes an issue related to academic identity.

Tookey (2013) identifies a range of factors which contribute to both an individual’s psychological contract and to the development of an identity. How the academic identifies with these and how the organisation facilitates and encourages such factors include but are not limited to networking opportunities, conference attendance, academic freedom, and the focus on research and/or teaching. In addition, Tookey (2013) identified the concept of organisational commitment as an important element. Organisational commitment and its link to the psychological contract is supported by Robinsons and Rousseau (1994) and has been identified by Baruch and Winkelmann-Gleed (2002) as critical in the development of the psychological contract. Arguably its suggestion and the importance of organisational commitment demonstrate the need for person-organisation fit (which is discussed later in the chapter).

According to Houston et al (2006) academics undertake complex work in an environment which is increasingly demanding, however teaching and research remain at the forefront of what they do. Macfarlane (2011) identifies two types of academics. Firstly, there are “all round” academics involved in teaching, research, and administration, while there are also “para-academics” who are only involved in
one (usually teaching or research). This singularity tends to lead to disengagement with colleagues and as such reduces academic citizenship. Significantly, Houston et al (2006) suggest the role is apportioned between teaching, research and administration and suggests that the drive for knowledge within the knowledge society has increased pressure and workload on academics. Benmore (2002) conducted a study of how 19 academics at Southampton Institute perceived their employment identifying the singular focus on one or other (teaching or research. Macfarlane (2011) notes this role of para-academics which although many may describe as professional services roles are being increasingly incorporated into the role of academics moving staff from the “all round” to para-academics, related research only professional roles, managerial career roles and teaching only contracts. Ultimately Macfarlane (2011) suggests this causes a deskilling of lecturing staff.

3.6.7 Person-Organisation Fit
Morley (2007) and Biswas and Bhatnager (2013) point to the importance of person-organisation fit as a key feature of the interaction between the individual and the employer. Connor (2013) relates person-organisation fit to commitment and job satisfaction and suggests that how an individual aligns themselves with the strategic aims affects their focus. Kristoff (1996 p4) defines person-organisation fit as “the compatibility between people and organisations”. Goal Congruence is a crucial element in the relationship. Parr (2014) reporting on the satisfaction of workers in the Times Higher Education (THE) survey highlights that 60% of academics stated they were proud to work for their institution. The same research, however, suggested that many academics have greater loyalty to their discipline and further complicates the issues around multiplicity (Marks, 2001) and the agency problem (Guest, 1998) discussed earlier.

Terpstra and Honoree (2009) suggest that the type of university dictates or influences the importance of each aspect of the role (teaching, research, administration). The influence of this assists in the development of identity and can influence behaviour. The link between organisational and individual expectation also has an impact or perceived competence thus linking further to identity. Tookey (2013) highlights future career aspirations and expectations as a
key aspect. He identifies the seminal work of Rousseau (1990) which provided the focal point. There is an assumption in the work of Tookey (2013) however that the primary aspiration of an academic links to research and forgoes the view that perhaps for some (even many) the motivation is in the teaching. This perhaps differs from organisation to organisation. Furthermore Tookey (2013) focuses on job satisfaction which may or not relate to the organisation. As discussed previously it is possible that the academic does not relate to the organisation but to the subject or professional body. Therefore, it may be conceivable that an academic can have job satisfaction with working in the organisation. Arguably job satisfaction may not be the result of leadership or organisational variable but may be instead linked purely to doing what you enjoy doing. That said being allowed to do it the way you want to do it may be the organisation’s (manager’s) gift.

Zhang et al (2017) further highlight the relationship between organisational identity and the psychological contract. They identified the greater the organisational identity the more likely on a relational psychological contract. Baruch (2004) suggests that the imposition of bureaucratic systems of control are resisted within academies, however he suggests that managers have still attempted to follow this process through. Although in many institutions output and performance is measured by publications and research output, freedom has become restricted, and the working landscape has become increasingly dominated by performance management systems which are at odds with roles requiring autonomous self-managed teams (Rowlands 2013 p48), Palmer and Gignac (2012) meanwhile highlight the importance of employee engagement–leadership relationship in achieving discretion effort.

Kataria (2015) suggests that the relationship between an employee and their organisation is critical to an organisation’s performance. Jabeen et al (2015) highlight a key similarity between the psychological contract and organisational commitment in that they both develop over time. This development can be either a positive or negative development, and there is a direct relationship between the two. That is that the two constructs are inextricably linked, and a positive movement leads to improved organisation and individual performance. Embedded within this, Jabeen et al (2015) describe organisational commitment as the
“emotional attachment” (p105) of an individual to their organisation. However, in the context of an academic, this emotional attachment can also be found with other bodies which may include their subject area or professional/academic body and may not be with their institution. Macfarlane (2005) includes the notion within academic citizenship that an individual’s academic community extends further than their own institutional environment and may include the wider subject based community.

Linz et al (2015) emphasise that organisations benefit from a loyal workforce, because they tend to fully engage in the organisation, its activities and strive to meet its goals. Jabeen et al (2015) reference the concept of “contingent employment” and “workforce externalisation” (p106) as a growing phenomenon of the workforce used in several companies. Thus, they suggest that this has a major impact on the behaviour and thus psychological contract of employees. Temporary contracts and casualisation impact on an individual’s commitment. This creates additional issues as many HEIs move towards a more casualised workforce and temporary or fixed term contracts. Havergal (2017) points to research by the University and College Union which identifies 58% of lecturers, teaching fellows, researchers and research fellows in the UK are on fixed term contracts. Accordingly, “the casualization of academic labour” (Vernon, 2011 p45) is of substantial concern. In his research Bryson (2004) identified differences however dependant on period of tenure with “younger” staff (i.e. those newer to the profession) were more accepting of the current conditions and job roles than those with a longer tenure. The belief being that this was linked to career progression. More experienced academics suggested however that the situation was impacting on work-life balance and thus creating issues. Similarly, there were differences between those on permanent fixed term and “casual” contracts, however not all comments on fixed term and casual contracts were negative as some staff worked on this basis by choice.

3.6.8 Citizenship

Inelman et al (2017) adopt the term “cooperative work behaviours” (p1142) as an alternative to OCB. Examples of OCB include taking on extra-roles/additional duties and having a positive effect on organisational performance. Buluc (2015:
49) define Organisational Citizenship as “individual behaviours which are volunteer and supportive of the common goals of the organisation”. Included in this are being helpful, well-meaning, and cooperative to others. Subsequently, Inelman et al (2017) coin the term academic citizenship to explain discretionary behaviour within the context of universities. Reed (2017) suggests successful academics focus on their priorities. This does not mean being selfish but rather knowing which is important. As such being part of the team community is important so long as it is achieving what needs to be achieved. Dean and Forray (2018) note the importance of Academic Citizenship in being academic, as many of the “academic” systems and processes that make use of the “broader” academic world rely on this concept. They point primarily to the peer-review system within academic journals as a primary example, but further examples can be included. According to Macfarlane (2007) academic citizenship has been undermined due to the reduction in community as a value within Higher Education. Inelman et al (2017) argue this reduction in community is a consequence of the changing measure of academic performance. Academics therefore become more self-centred to pursue personal research agendas. They suggest however that more teaching focussed institutions may be more collegiate due to the nature of the organisation. Burgan (1998) recognise academic citizenship as part of the culture within higher education institutions. Academic contributions act as the glue within different schools or departments and allow them to function. She suggests a key element of this relates to the administrative roles’ academics undertake. Macfarlane (2005) highlights the reduction in academic citizenship brought about by an increasingly disengaged workforce, which is supported by Docherty (2014) who bemoans the demise of academic freedom and the increase in managerialism within universities.

Dean and Forray (2018) suggest that it is no surprise that research productivity drives most academic staff. This they suggest is because academic reward e.g. promotion and career advancement are often based on successful research outputs. Bergeron et al (2014) suggest this is the measure of academic success. This follows from Macfarlane (2007) who acknowledges that individual achievement is what academics get rewarded for. In most cases this is related to teaching and research (most prominent) with very little reward or recognition
providing for service. Rawn and Fox (2018) point to the work of Terpstra and Honoree (2009) who note 52% of academics in the US perceived research as the key influence for reward, while 23% believed there was equal weighting between research, teaching and service. Subsequently 20% believed it to be an equal weighting between research and teaching (no inclusion of service) while only 4% believed teaching was the primary route to reward. Dean and Forray (2018) point to the changes in “academic life” over the past twenty plus years, suggesting that there has been an introduction of more business-like approaches to the running of institutions. They identify the development of performance management and the notion of shifting academic priorities and the concept of workload management as institutions ask academics to do “more with less”. Rawn and Fox (2018) highlight the increased use of teaching only contracts within higher education, and while their research focussed primarily on Canada, any trawl through the job pages of sites such as THE or individual institution vacancies pages will identify this trend in the UK also. Change however through external factors have once more heightened the expectation around teaching which has potentially re-focused many organisations toward teaching and skills development. Interestingly teaching was the key emphasis of most initial universities, with the notion of research and service following. It was only later as funding models changed and the prioritization of research shifted primary focus for many institutions and individuals. (Rawn and Fox, 2018). The research undertaken by Rawn and Fox (2018) still found academics on teaching only contracts were still research active, with over 50% undertaking research related to pedagogy with 40% “conducting disciplinary research” (p613). Rawn and Fox (2018) suggest the traditional 40:40:20 split (research: teaching: service) but recognise different practices in differing institutions and differing systems (countries).

Kahn (1990) first introduced engagement as a key concept noting that people “harnessed” themselves to their role and/or their organisation. There has been several and some contradicting attempts to develop the notion of engagement. A common thread within this notion of engagement is that of a “psychological connection”. (Pham-Thai, 2018 p952). Macfarlane (2007) produced a service pyramid in which he identified five levels. At the base of the pyramid, he identified student service with collegial service, institutional service, discipline-based (or
professional) service as the three succeeding levels and public service at the apex. Significantly the lower three levels are the areas that most would acknowledge within academic citizenship focussing internally, while the higher two are more external facing.

3.6.9 Organisational Justice and Trust
Organisational justice relates to whether individuals perceive fairness in the workplace. Three types of organisational justice may be considered, distributive, procedural and interactional. Distributive justice depends on whether individuals believe the amount of effort they put in is compensated for in terms of rewards and outcomes. Procedural justice is determined by issues around consistency within the system, while interactional justice is explained by the level of understanding of the reasons for decisions. Critical to this is the exchanges between the organisation and the individual. Buluc (2015) suggests that interactional justice is critical to academics in general as this affects their commitment to the university, however of most significance is distributive justice, while Erturk (2007) in a study of Turkish academics identified trust as a key element in perceptions of organisational justice. According to Adamska et al (2015) trust is a key element of the psychological contract. Trust of the employee in the employer. This can positively shape the behaviour of the employee in their work role. A key element in this is an individuals’ own personal belief system. How much value an employee places on the task will determine the amount of effort applied. At the same time, the level of autonomy the individual has, to do the task, may also attract extra effort.

Furthermore, Adamska et al (2015) suggests that breach has a greater negative impact on relational psychological contracts than on transactional as trust is a more prevalent factor in a relational contract. Ahmad et al (2019) emphasise the importance of the psychological contract to organisational citizenship behaviour and argue the link to leadership is critical. Significantly they note the importance of ethical leadership which enhances trust and provides for a more relational psychological contract.
3.6.10 Conclusion
The psychological contract is crucial to the employment relationship that an academic share with their institution. However significant features which build the psychological contract are determined by appreciating how the role of academics and universities are perceived. As such there are several contributing factors that contribute to the complexity of the psychological contract. If there is disagreement about these basics, then the psychological contract is unlikely to operate smoothly? The literature would seem to suggest that that academics are committed to the role; however they may not necessarily identify with the organisation but may identify with off-shoots of their discipline area or agents of the university. Critical to the understanding of the academic is the notion of what they are in it for and what they want to achieve, A fundamental aspect of the role is the combination of teaching and research which will dictate their approach. Administration is an aspect of the role which academics are resistant to.
Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Research Methodology
Different authors (Saunders et al, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al, 2012; Quinlan, 2012; Crotty, 1998) advocate differing frameworks for the design and development of the research methodology of any research paper. This research methodology reflects on each of these frameworks and makes use of the consensus that a methodology section should incorporate discussion of the theoretical underpinnings (ontology and epistemology) that influence us in our research, followed by consideration of how we design our research and culminating in consideration of our methods of data collection and data analysis. The chapter gives consideration of ethics, validity and reliability, and the limitations.

This chapter builds on the literature base in considering the context of the research undertaken in to investigate the key concepts of the psychological contract and discretionary effort. The chapter considers the appropriate ways to gather data which will inform the research activity, developing a link been the two key variables while also navigating around contributing factors which were identified in the previous chapter. The chapter considers the philosophical stance of the researcher, research design decisions and the research process, culminating in the activities taken, providing a justified approach for conducting this research. A key element of this justification centres on the literature previously considered central to the concepts but also adopting key thoughts and concepts from the Methodology literature.

4.1.1 Conceptual Framework
The psychological funnel is the representation of the contextual (expectations and aspirations; environment; context) factors which are evident within the psychological contract which leads to discretionary effort.

Expectations are related to the activities that academics expect to undertake, what we may refer to as academic work. These expectations are developed from an individual’s personal baggage which they draw from previous experience. This
experience includes beliefs (e.g. political, cultural) and background which may include factors relating to education (including educational institutions attended) and experience. Aspirations relate to the purposes of the individual. This may relate to career aspirations and intentions but also relates to purposes behind the role (e.g. teaching, research) and to achievements.

Environment relates to the working environment in which the academic operates. This considers the culture and climate of the organisation and in particular its history and ethos. In many academic institutions this may be identified by its membership of mission groups and its focus on teaching and or research.

Context relates to the working practices within the organisation. This may manifest in the amount of autonomy / freedom is available to the academic staff. The level, or at least perceived level pf managerialism is also within context.

Personal Baggage relates to the multitude of components that individuals carry with them through everyday life, which are brought together from our beliefs and are influenced by our background, experience, and history. It is this that feeds individual psychological contract formation and inputs into the funnel (note: personal baggage is a dynamic feature which is of constant flow and may alter over a period of time, in both short and long term).

Once inside the funnel the personal baggage aligns with individual interpretations relating to their expectations and aspirations, their interpretation of the environment and their perception of the context creating an idiosyncratic view of the situation and what they believe their obligations are and (most importantly) whether the organisation is meeting its obligations to them. This will then lead to discretionary effort.
4.2 Philosophical Stance and Research Approach

In conducting this study the researcher combined the use of phenomenology and interpretivism (Saunders et al, 2009), as a route to investigating individual self-perception, of their roles in their organisation, and how they relate to the organisation, their managers and their colleagues, taking into context what motivates them to apply discretionary effort. The research follows principles found in Interpretative Phenomenological Approach (IPA) (Smith et al 2009), as it seeks to identify an understanding of the experiences of a person’s views and context in making sense of a certain phenomenon. Accordingly, this is supported by Mickecz, (2010) who notes to importance to review the lived experiences of the individuals within the context of the research. This supports the ideas of Herriott
and Pemberton (1997) who argue that the psychological contract is specific to the individual and as such needs an in-depth consideration within the investigation. In addition, Lee and Lings (2008) discuss reductionism, reflexivity and representation as key elements within interpretive projects. Reductionism relates to simplifying the situation. Interpretivists however focus on simplifying the situation, and not over-simplifying to produce a diagram or model unrelated to a context, as may be found among positivists. Reflexivity allows the role of the researcher and their interpretation to be recognised. Representation on the other hand allows the recognition of multiple representations but which are influenced by the researcher’s approach.

Further to this, Moriah (2018) emphasises the notion of multiple interpretations of the same phenomena and suggests that individuals see events through their individual lenses built from individual ‘baggage and perceptions’. Further to this, individual experience is made up of two key components. Firstly, individuals have immediate experience which is subsequently followed by reflective experience (Valle and King, 1978). As such, there may be significant difference between the two. Even where two individuals share an experience, they may not have the same immediate experience and are even less likely to have the same reflective experience. As Spinelli (1987) highlights, no two people will view (or experience) a phenomenon in the same way because their perceptual filters, their lenses – how they see the experience differ. Therefore, they interpret the experience differently. Subsequently, Foote and Bartell (2011: 46) point to the importance of “positionality that researchers bring to their work”. They highlighted how personal experience influences the research which may include how it is conducted but which also brings influence over interpretation. This notion of positionality is supported by Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013) who also suggest that the researcher may ‘select’ his or her position rather than it being conditioned. Despite this, they still identify values and beliefs as a significant influencer.

Cresswell (2014) introduces the ideas of research philosophies as the notion of world views in which he identifies four positions: post positivism; constructionism; transformative and pragmatism. He suggests that constructivism is about trying to find meaning to experiences in the world. He suggests that the research is reliant
on understanding the respondent’s view to that which is being studied, hence the respondents construct meaning to their experience or situation.

Cresswell (2014) advocates the use of open-ended questions which will allow the respondent to develop their thinking more. In developing this, respondents are likely to draw on interactions with others which leads to development of the term social constructivism. According to Cresswell (2014) researchers adopting this stance recognise their own situation and the situation of others in influencing the world around them. People are often considered social actors (Easterly-Smith et al, 2012) due to the part they play in constructing the world around them.

Researchers who attempt to make sense of the world around them usually make use of induction as they look for patterns of explanations and meaning rather than proof of causality.

As such, Crotty (1998) highlighted three assumptions regarding constructivism, which are fundamental to the importance of its use.

1. Humans construct meanings from experience
2. Previous experience and perspectives influence their interpretation
3. Fundamentally meaning and experience is generated through social interaction

Schommer (1990) suggests that epistemology is, a reflection of attitude to learning and knowledge, which provides a guide to how we interpret situations. Several authors (Hofer and Pintrich, 1997; Nussbaum and Bendixen, 2003; Nist and Holschuh, 2005) suggest that an individual’s epistemology is socially constructed and developed through a range of interactions. Thus, they remain a dynamic and ever developing construct which is constantly being reviewed and reconstructed based on experience. However, it could be further considered that this experience or at least the interpretation of the experience is determined by our cognitive processes. Thus, a circular process exists. This is supported by Whitmire (2003) who argues that the way we gather, and process information is determined by epistemological beliefs. Guercini (2014) further suggests that searching for
knowledge for knowledge sake is not worthwhile and that the importance is for useful knowledge.

The design of the study will follow a phenomenological research approach (Cresswell, 2014) in which the researcher will seek to describe (and explain) the individual’s experience of the phenomenon. Critically, Saunders et al (2009) identified a “double hurdle” for management research, that it must be academically rigorous and relevant to practice. Donaldson et al (2013) and Johnston (2014) supports this principle, while Svensson (2009) suggests a need for managerial outcomes from research. Brown (2012) is critical of research suggesting that the priority of academic rigour has come at the detriment of practical relevance. The notions of academic rigour and practical implications shall be discussed later in the chapter.

Johnston (2014) emphasises the importance of epistemological and ontological beliefs in research as it impacts on the approach taken, however it must be recognised that in a constructivist approach it is doubly important as the respondent will also have epistemological and ontological beliefs which will influence their responses. Bryman and Bell (2007) advocate the use of an inductive approach in conducting research of this nature. The past thirty years has seen an overabundance of journal outputs commentating on the psychological contract little has focussed on academics. (Johnston, 2017), This research looks to build the theoretical knowledge basis of it. (Easterby-Smith et al, 2012). The building blocks of the theory suggests a retroductive process as theory exists but in a different context (Saether, 1999). Johnston (2014) highlights the importance of theory to provide rigour as part of the research process. Critical to this are ontological and epistemological beliefs which align the approach taken.

Additionally, Bernard (2011) emphasises the need for the research philosophy to be compatible with the research questions. Further to this, Best and Kahn (2014) suggest the research philosophy guides towards the correct methodological approach and data collection model.
Consequently, the design of the research is underpinned by the philosophical assumptions throughout, believing that in conducting the research it is important to draw out the lived experiences and interpretations of the respondents to gather their views of key features which will create rich data (information) which can be used to analyse and evaluate their comments. It is however important to recognise that as individuals they will all be influenced by their own epistemological and ontological beliefs as to their interpretation of the events that they have experienced. In addition to this their perception of their role and the purpose of education, and in particular higher education, will also be influenced by their underpinning epistemological and ontological stance.

4.3 Alternative Data Collection Methods
A key aspect of the literature around the psychological contract relates to the range of methods used to collect relevant data. Tookey (2013) points to six main methods:

- Critical Incident Techniques
- Interview
- Diary methods
- Case Studies
- Scenario methodologies
- Questionnaire surveys

Conway and Briner (2006) suggests that questionnaires are the most commonly used and the Psychological Contract Inventory (PCI) is the most familiar of them all (Tookey, 2013). In support of this, Freese and Schalk (2008) highlight questionnaire surveys as the common method of data collection in research into the psychological contract. They suggest that researchers could take either a unilateral or bilateral approach, however they argue that due to the agency problem a unilateral approach is preferable. Del Campo (2007) agrees that idiosyncratic measures are more appropriate. Freese and Schalk (2008) note that “measuring the psychological contract remains a difficult methodological problem” (p283). The Psychological Contract Inventory (PCI) developed by Rousseau (2000) has become a standard measure, while Shen’s (2010) questionnaire is also
a useful tool. Tookey (2013) amended the PCI and it is intended that this tool will be adapted (following initial focus group discussion) and used in the data collection process.

Although a survey instrument appears to have been the key data collection instrument to make a judgement regarding the psychological contract and is designed to rate the relatedness / transactional scale, it does not provide a useful set of data to discuss the impact or the interpretation of what that may mean. In order to get a much ‘richer’ data set the research will make use of interviews. Giorgi (2009) states that this type of approach typically uses interviews as the main method of data collection, while Saunders and Townsend (2016) note that the use of interviews is an accepted technique within qualitative research. In addition, Blaxter et al (2003) suggest that interviews are an effective method of collecting data related to the normal context of the workplace. Saunders and Townsend (2016) however, highlight that its usefulness is dependent on the quality of the questions and the responses of the respondents. They highlight that there is a need to select an appropriate number of interviewees which will provide an appropriate “breadth, depth and saliency of data necessary for authentic analysis and reporting. (Saunders and Townsend, 2016 p836). As such it is important to achieve a saturation point in the data collection process.

Guercini (2014) identifies the numerous developments in qualitative research in the previous decades, citing changes in society and technology for the introduction of new and innovative practices and approaches. At the same time there has been an increasing acceptance of qualitative research. This growing acceptance of qualitative research which does not disassociate the researcher and the research allows the collective of rich data (information) which allows researchers to gather data from its natural setting (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

4.4 Research Design

Saunders et al (2009) point to the fact that research design which is rigorous both in terms of its theoretical and methodological underpinning can still have practical relevance and impact. The research seeks to consider the experience of academics and draws on a phenomenological approach through a qualitative
approach. In addition, each academic will complete a questionnaire to provide background information. The research focuses on three groups of HEIs. Guercini (2014 p670) promotes using a “hybrid methodology in management” which he identifies as the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. This he argues allows for an objective review. Greenbank (2015) advocates the construction of case records which combines the data collected from the questionnaire and interview for each individual. As such, however, Guercini (2014) concedes that it is not possible to separate the analysis and the researcher’s experience in qualitative research. Furthermore, the complexity of organisations has made it increasingly important to make use of qualitative research as a technique for analysing, discussing, and solving organisational issues. Thus, they argue that the nature of qualitative research which is about investigating “events in natural settings” (p663).

Research into Higher Education Institutions within the UK often categorise into chartered (University status pre 1992 Further and Higher Education Act) or statutory (University status pre 1992 Further and Higher Education Act) (Bessant and Mavin, 2014). This research divides the sector into three, as it is believed that former Colleges of HE have different characteristics than former polytechnics. Therefore, for the purposes of the research the Universities have been split into pre-1992 universities, post-1992 universities (former polytechnics) and post-1992 universities (former Colleges of Higher Education).

4.4.1 Respondent Categorisation
Three institutions were selected from each of the three categories with two academics from each. The choice of the universities and in particular the categorisation of them is intended to be symbolic and representative of the public University based Higher Education sector in the UK. It is not intended to meet all the characteristics of the HE Sector in the UK, but instead to act as an indicator of similarities and differences between the different categories. To that end it excludes private providers and College Based Higher Education on the grounds that organisation strategy and mission are likely to provide different characteristics and expectations. Chapter 3 has previously discussed the 2017 White Paper, which has ‘opened up’ the sector to further competition, however, there have been
several alternative providers for a number of years. These include College Based Higher Education where predominantly FE Colleges offer sub-degree (Foundation Degrees) provision. These institutions predominantly concentrate on delivery of vocational based higher education. These institutions tend to be teaching intensive with little if any reference to research. There are also Private Universities such as the University of Buckingham and BPP University College who are fundamentally for-profit organisations and a broader group of Private Providers who do not have degree awarding powers, usually not research active and are profit seeking.

The structure of the design will allow for the study to analyse the data from several differing lenses and as such allows the data to be cut to look for different aspects of interpretation and different levels of analysis. In particular, the researcher will be able to split the data so that we may view it from the stance of the individual; the organisation; the sub-sector category or the sector as a whole.
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<th>Individual</th>
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Table 4.1: Participant & University listing

The research followed a predominantly qualitative approach using rich data collected from the interviews but has also made use of the data collected from the questionnaire to support the interview data. This has allowed each case to be treated independently as well as allowing for the collection of some data which can also be treated to some statistical analysis.

4.4.2 Respondents
Participants within the study were academics at higher education institutions in the UK. They are not considered to be vulnerable, and as such were supplied with full
information to allow them to be able to make an informed decision regarding their agreement to participate or not.

They were not from the researcher’s own organisation or the University of Huddersfield to reduce bias. This will serve the purpose of avoiding any conflict of interest. However, it is intended to use the researcher’s own organisation for the purpose of a pilot study for the testing of questions. The individual is aware of boundaries and the possible issues that may be considered as a line manager. As such to avoid this and to remove the distinction of me as a line manager and me as researcher, it is intended to only use staff which are not line managed by myself.

Respondents were selected through combined purposive and convenience sampling (Avramenko, 2013), through emails to contacts asking them to identify willing academics. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews (Alvesson and Ashcroft, 2012) following a conventional approach. The interview scheduled was designed using broad questions followed by more focussed question designed to focus on the theme. Transcripts were subsequently created which could be interpreted and analysed. In order the ensure anonymity care was taken when transcribing the interviews to ensure no personal data regarding the interviewee or organisation. Follow up (email conversations) questions were used if clarification is required. Herriot et al (1997) advocated the use of critical incident technique as a way of measuring the psychological contract. They suggest that CIT allows the asking of questions which are around obligations and expectations and how they may respond. Alternatively, Bathmaker (1999) made use of conversational analysis as a method of data collection. Both methods have been considered and to try to link the psychological contract and discretionary effort, it is proposed to use CIT. Alongside the interviews, a questionnaire was used to collect data for background and further analysis and discussion. The questionnaire was designed to gather supporting data about the respondents. This data has been used to cut the data into different aspects to support the interviews and provide support to the findings.
4.4.3 University and Respondent Profiles

**University Number – 1**

University Category – Post 1992 University – former College of HE  
Formed – 1968 (2008 – University College; 2013 – University status)  
Mission Groups – GuildHE; Cathedrals Group  
Student Numbers 3000+

**General Overview**

This university is located in the suburbs of a large city. It's is proud of having a Catholic heritage. This University has a key feature as “a different kind of university; we’re driven by the belief that higher education should enable us to develop new ways of understanding the world and help make a positive impact within it. Our students become independent thinkers with ambition, empathy, and a lifelong love for learning.” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

**Participant – 1**

Participant 1 is a male in the 50-59 age category from the UK and is at Senior Lecturer level. He has been in his current post for and institution for 3 years, having been in academia for 6 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a master’s from the Henley Business School. He is a Fellow of the HEA.

Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 10 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. He is research active and currently doing his doctorate. He has published 2 journal articles (1 in rank 2 journal and 1 in a rank 1 journal) and presented 3 conference papers.

**Participant – 2**

Participant 2 is a male in the 60+ age category from the UK and is at Senior Lecturer level. He has been in his current post for and institution for 2 years, having been in academia for 20 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the University of Birmingham. He is a Fellow of the HEA.
Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 10 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. He is not particularly research active anymore, seeing his role as more supporting others to do research. He has however published numerous journal articles, 2 books, 5 book chapters and presented multiple conference papers.

**University Number – 2**
University Category – Post 1992 University – former Polytechnic
Mission Groups – Universities UK
Student Numbers 24000+

**General Overview**
This is generally city centre based in a large city. Key to its mission is enabling transformation and being the university for the city in which it is located. This University has as its vision to be “to be the leading university for creative and professional practice inspired by innovation and enquiry” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

**Participant – 3**
Participant 3 is a female in the 30-39 age category from the UK and is at Lecturer level. She has been in her current post for 5 years and institution for 7 years, having been in academia for 7 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a master’s from Birmingham City University. She holds membership of the CIPD and is a Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of her role, he teaches 12 hours per week on average, predominantly on Undergraduate (10) and on Postgraduate. She is research active having presented 3 conference papers.

**Participant – 4**
Participant 4 is a male in the 50-59 age category from the UK and is at Associate Professor level. He has been in his current post for 1 year and institution for 4 years, having been in academia for 13 years in total. The highest level of
qualification held is a master’s from Coventry University. He is a Senior Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 9 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. He is research active and currently studying for his Doctorate. He has published 2 papers (non-registered) and presented 2 conference papers.

**University Number - 3**
University Category – Pre1992 University
Formed - 1963
Mission Groups – Russell Group, Universities UK
Student Numbers 18000+

General Overview
This is a Collegiate University consisting of nine Colleges, based on the edge of a small city. It is a Campus based University originally occupying a single campus (primarily) but now occupies a second campus a short distance from the main campus. This University describes itself as being research intensive. As key words in its mission statement and accompanying documentation it highlights the terms “Enquiring minds, inspirational teaching, pioneering research, global ambition, local commitment and social purpose”. (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

Participant – 5
Participant 5 is a male in the 30-39 age category from the Republic of Ireland and is at Senior Lecturer level. He has been in his current post and institution for 1 year, having been in academia for 7 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from Trinity College, Dublin. He is a Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 9 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. He is research active having published 8 journal articles (2 in rank 3 journals and 6 in rank 2 journals) and 15 industry / trade journal articles, 1 book chapter and presented 13 conference papers.
Participant – 10

Participant 10 is a female in the 60+ age category from UK and is at Senior Lecturer level. She has been in his current post and institution for 1 years, having been in academia for 20 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the University of Huddersfield. She holds membership of the CMI (Chartered Manager) and is a Senior Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of her role she teaches 10 hours per week on average on Postgraduate. She is research active having recently completed her PhD and has presented 5 conference papers.

University Number – 4

University Category – Post 1992 University – former College of HE

Formed – 1966 (2009 – University College; 2012 – University status)

Mission Groups – Cathedrals Group; Association of Catholic Colleges and Universities; MillionPlus; Universities UK

Student Numbers 4000+

General Overview

This university is located in the suburbs of a large city. This University has as its vision to be “renowned for developing well-rounded and experienced graduates equipped to build fulfilling futures and as a leading university for student, staff, partner and community engagement” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

Participant – 6

Participant 6 is a male in the 60+ age category from the UK and is at Senior Lecturer level. He has been in his current post and institution for 10 years, having been in academia for 14 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a master’s from Buckinghamshire College of Higher Education. He holds membership of the CIM and is a Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 16 hours per week on average, predominantly on Undergraduate (13 hours) and on Postgraduate. He is not research active.
Participant – 7
Participant 7 is a female in the 30-39 age category from Mexico and is at Lecturer level. She has been in her current post and institution for 2 years, having been in academia for 4 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the Kings College London. She holds membership of the HEA (Fellow).

Teaching is a prominent part of her role, she teaches 9 hours per week on average, predominantly on Undergraduate (7 hours) and on Postgraduate. She is research active having published 1 journal article (rank 2 journals) and presented 3 conference papers.

University Number - 5
University Category – Pre1992 University
Formed - 1964
Mission Groups – Russell Group, Universities UK
Student Numbers 14000+

General Overview
This is a Collegiate University consisting of nine Colleges, based outside of the city on a purpose-built campus. This University has a vision as to become “globally significant” and that it is “driven by research, and stimulating learning, the globally significant university informs and changes practice and thinking worldwide” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

Participant – 8
Participant 8 is a female in the 40-49 age category from Venezuela and is at Lecturer level. She has been in her current post 2 years and institution for 7 years, having been in academia for 7 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the Lancaster University. She did not identify holding any memberships. Teaching is a prominent part of her role, she teaches 7 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. She is research active having published 4 journal articles (1 in a 4* journal, 2 in rank 3 journals and 1 in a rank 1
journal) and presented 10 conference papers. She is also involved in several Knowledge Exchange Projects.

Participant – 9
Participant 9 is a female in the 50-59 age category from the UK and is at Senior Lecturer level. She has been in her current post and institution for 2 years, having been in academia for 10 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the Leeds University. She did not identify holding any memberships. Teaching is a prominent part of her role, she teaches 8 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. She is research active having published 4 journal articles (2 in rank 3 journals and 2 in a rank 1 journal) and presented 8 conference papers.

**University Number – 6**
University Category – Post 1992 University – former College of HE
Formed – 1924 (1999 – University College; 2005 – University status)
Mission Groups – Universities UK
Student Numbers 27000+

General Overview
This is generally campus based in a large town. This University has as its vision to be “sharing knowledge, supporting creativity, and striving to make a positive difference will change the future. What motivates us is the drive to help people make the changes that will transform their lives – people like you.” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

Participant – 11
Participant 11 is a male in the 30-39 age category from Malaysia and is at Lecturer level. He has been in his current post and institution for 4 years, having been in academia for 7 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from York St John University. He holds membership of the CIPD and of the HEA (Fellow). Teaching is a prominent part of his role, she teaches 10 hours per week on average, predominantly on Undergraduate (8 hours) and on Postgraduate. He
is research active having published 3 journal articles (1 rank 3 journal and 2 rank 2 journal) 1 book chapter and presented 9 conference papers.

Participant – 12
Participant 12 is a female in the 30-39 age category from Bangladesh and is at Lecturer level. She has been in her current post and institution for 2 years, having been in academia for 4 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the University of Strathclyde. She holds membership of the HEA (Fellow). Teaching is a prominent part of her role, she teaches 12 hours per week on average, predominantly on Undergraduate (10 hours) and on Postgraduate. She is research active having published 2 journal article (rank 2 journal) and presented 3 conference papers.

University Number – 7
University Category – Post 1992 University – former Polytechnic
Mission Groups – University Alliance
Student Numbers 27000+

General Overview
This is generally city centre based in a large city, however, has two smaller campuses outside of the city. This University has as its vision to “create the university of the future” with 5 key themes being “creating opportunity, valuing ideas, enriching society, connecting globally and empowering people” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

Participant – 13
Participant 13 is a male in the 40-49 age category from Greece and is at Lecturer level. He has been in his current post and institution for 3 years, having been in academia for 7 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the University of Strathclyde. He holds membership of the CIPD and is a Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 10 hours per week on average, predominantly on Postgraduate (8 hours) and on
Undergraduate. He is research active having published 2 journal articles (rank 2 journals), 2 book chapters and presented 7 conference papers.

Participant – 14
Participant 14 is a male in the 30-39 age category, from Greece, and is at Principal Lecturer level. He has been in his current post for 1 year and institution for 4 years, having been in academia for 10 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the Leeds Metropolitan University. He holds membership of both the CIPD and CMI and is a Senior Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 5 hours per week on average, all on Postgraduate. He is research active having published 5 journal articles (2 in rank 3 journals and 3 in rank 1 journals), 3 books, 2 book chapters and presented 6 conference papers.

University Number - 8
University Category – Pre1992 University
Formed – 1834 (1963 as its current identity)
Mission Groups – Russell Group, Universities UK
Student Numbers 23000+

General Overview
This is a ‘red-brick’ university based and is generally city centre based in a large city. The University formed out of a split with a previous University This University has as its vision to be “advancing knowledge, providing creative solutions and solving global problems” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

Participant – 15
Participant 15 is a female in the 40-49 age category from the UK and is at Lecturer level. She has been in her current post 5 years and institution for 5 years, having been in academia for 8 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from Newcastle University. She did not identify holding any memberships but is a Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of her role, she teaches 7 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. She is research
active having published 4 journal articles (1 in a 4* journal, 2 in rank 3 journals and 1 in a rank 1 journal), 3 book chapters and presented 10 conference papers.

Participant – 16
Participant 16 is a male in the 50-59 age category from the UK and is at Senior Lecturer level. He has been in his current post for 4 years and institution for 9 years, having been in academia for 17 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the University of Manchester. He is a Senior Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 9 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. He is research active having published 8 journal articles (1 in a 4* journal, 1 in a rank 4 journal, 2 in rank 3 journals and 4 in rank 2 journals) 1 book, 1 book chapter and presented 20 conference papers.

University Number – 9
University Category – Post 1992 University – former Polytechnic
Mission Groups – University Alliance
Student Numbers 20000+

General Overview
This is generally city centre based in a mid-sized city. This University has as its vision to be “generates and applies knowledge that contributes to the economic, social and cultural success of students, partners and the communities we serve. Through education enriched by research, innovation, and engagement with business and the professions, we transform lives and economies” (citation excluded to keep identity of University)

Participant – 17
Participant 17 is a female in the 40-49 age category from the UK and is at Senior Lecturer level. She has been in her current post 5 years and institution for 8 years, having been in academia for 8 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a master's from Northumbria University. She holds membership of both the CIPD and CMI and is a Senior Fellow of the HEA.
Teaching is a prominent part of her role, she teaches 10 hours per week on average, predominantly on Undergraduate (10) and on postgraduate. She is research active currently completing her doctorate and has presented 4 conference papers.

Participant – 18
Participant 16 is a male in the 30-39 age category from the UK and is at Lecturer level. He has been in his current post for 2 years and institution for 3 years, having been in academia for 3 years in total. The highest level of qualification held is a Doctorate from the University of York. He is a Fellow of the HEA. Teaching is a prominent part of his role, he teaches 9 hours per week on average, on Undergraduate. He is research active having published journal articles (2 in rank 3 journals and 2 in rank 2 journals) and presented 6 conference papers.

4.4.4 Interview schedule design
The interview questions were developed from the initial literature review in which key themes for exploration were identified, and contributed to the conceptual framework. Subsequently, this was built into the key research question and questions associated with this were formulated to form the interview schedule. A pilot study using the interview schedule was then used to review the questions, with minor tweaks resulting.

Open ended questions were used to allow for probing, which would allow for validity checking to ensure interviewees are not merely satisfying perceived responses (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). This is supported by Platt (1981) who suggests using semi-structured when dealing with peers as it creates a greater interaction which leads to rapport which should lead to more open and honest answers and improved data. The questions were designed to allow for freedom for the interviewee to discuss what was deemed relevant. Costley and Gibbs (2006) note the increased potential for ethical issues from this type of research, and these are considered later in this chapter.

The final interview schedule resulted in thirteen potential questions. Questions 1 and 2 were intended to find out about the participant and to get a view of their
organisation, how they perceived it and most importantly how they identified important aspects of it. This may have been related to organisational culture and structure, as well as any prominent ‘identifiers’ they see. Responses to these questions were intended to contribute to thoughts around the environment the respondents worked in. Questions 3 and 4 were designed to allow the participant to suggest how they identified with the institution they were at and whether they felt they were meeting their own personal expectations and aspirations. These questions supported the data around individual expectations and aspirations. Questions 5 to 7 asked the participant to think about their current role, what is important, how much autonomy they have and what the challenges they face are. These questions drew out questions around context with data around autonomy and managerialism. Additional data supporting environment and expectations / aspirations. Question 8 asks the participant to think about their achievements and an aspect of this is intended to identify what they see as important to them and links back to ideas on expectations and spirations. Questions 9 to 12 are designed to ask the participant to think through where they put extra effort in. Again, this links to what they see as important but also looks at why they put extra effort in. This draws out the outputs (discretionary effort). The questions finish with question 13 which allows the participant to talk about things they feel the researcher needs to know, again a reflection on importance. The question schedule can be seen in appendix 3.

4.4.5 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was an adaptation of Tookey’s (2013) questionnaire, which itself was an adaption from Rousseau’s (2000) Psychological Contract Inventory instrument. Additional questions were added to provide data which supports the interview information. These included questions around professional background including qualifications and memberships, experience levels, career aspirations and to what / where they were committed from a professional viewpoint. Again, the questionnaire was used as part of the pilot study.

A questionnaire was designed to support the interview data by collecting key information related to the respondent’s background and perceptions. Part 1 of the questionnaire makes use of Tookey’s (2013) adaptation of Rousseau’s (2000)
Psychological Contract Inventory and designed to compare an individual’s perception of expectations across a series of factors and what they feel they receive from their organisation. This allows a comparison to be made as to the level of synchronisation with their expectations. Part 2 of the questionnaire sought to identify expectations of the role and experience of it, while part 3 sought to identify what they did and the emphasis they put on it. This allows for the research to classify their psychological contract with the organisation. The final part of the questionnaire gathered data around the individual’s workplace experience and personal details including qualifications, gender, and ethnicity.

This data allowed for the gathering of numerical data for the purpose of analysing and cutting different aspects of the of the qualitative data as the main source of data within the research.

4.5 Pilot Study
A pilot study was conducted in the researcher’s home institution. One reason for this was that the researcher had decided not to use his home institution for the main study, to avoid issues such as conflict of interest, disclosure, and alternative views. This also meant that the researcher could select appropriate critical friends to provide appropriate reflection on the instruments. To this end 3 colleagues were interviewed and completed the questionnaire. For the interviews, it became apparent when some questions needed further development due to the very nature of the activity. All three of the pilot study participants completed the questionnaires to differing levels of success. All three failed to complete all questions due to lack of understanding of the question and/or clarification needed. Following the pilot-study a discussion was held with all three to discuss the instruments and consequently the wording on some questions and responses within the questionnaire where changed, questions on the interview schedule were tweaked and prompts were added to some questions.

4.6 Data Analysis and Process
In total 18 interviews were audio recorded via a digital recording device and subsequently transcribed. The transcribed interviews were then analysed using open coding (Saunders et al, 2009). Data from each transcription was then
combined with the data from the complementing questionnaire to form a case record. Through, the open-coding process (making use of reading and re-reading) the researcher was able to identify key themes and words and looked for relationships between them. The process by which key themes were identified can be seen diagrammatically in appendix five. Each interview was read over shortly after transcription was completed, and key themes were identified from each interview. At the initial stage key themes were found from the first two pairs of interviews undertaken. This accounted for four respondents across two institutions and provided the coding base for the themes. Subsequent transcriptions were then reviewed, and the coding base applied. However, as these transcriptions were reviewed new themes (on a couple of occasions) were identified. Previous transcriptions were then re-reviewed to apply the new themes to identify their appearance. The process required the review and re-review of the transcriptions on numerous occasions.

Initial themes expected related to the structure of the data collection tools and anticipated the interview questions, which had been determined by the literature review and pilot study, as a guide for coding, however it became apparent that certain aspects overlapped and while there were important aspects to the discussion, which were captured in the findings section, they were reduced and focussed within the discussion section into four key elements, some of which were combined from the initial ideas. Significantly it became apparent that a crucial feature of the research centre on an individual’s interpretation of the role and how well they identified with their organisation (and individuals within it) were crucial in the factor of Discretionary Effort. Critical within this was the implementation (by the institution) and acceptance (by the individual) of managerialism.

Open coding was used as an alternative to using a computerised system such as NVivo. Although NVivo describes itself as being purpose-built for qualitative research, it does so by using a quantitative structure which in essence turns qualitative data into numerical data, which would seem to go against the purpose of qualitative methods and the search for ‘rich data’. Although it may simplify and speed up the process, the decision was made to stay true to qualitative method principles and undertake the process via manual methods (open coding). This
does not distract from the rigour of the analysis nor does it distract from the findings.

4.7 Ethics

In essence Ethics outline the rights and wrongs of research (Thomas, 2011) amongst other things. Research Ethics can be defined as “the appropriateness of the researcher’s behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of a research project or are affected by it” (Saunders and Lewis, 2012 p74). Ethical approval was granted by the University of Huddersfield Ethics Committee following University procedures.

Interviews were therefore conducted in a manner to ensure the researcher avoided any attempts to influence the participants’ answers. Interviews took place in appropriate rooms which allowed for the individuals to have the privacy that is required. The research did not seek to divulge information, which was considered personal or sensitive to the researcher, however it is possible the participant may have considered some of what they said to have been. It is therefore important for the data to be kept secure and confidential, and to only be used in an appropriate manner with anonymity maintained in the writing up process. Permission to record interviews (video or voice) was gained, through initial discussions and was confirmed at the interview stage, participants signing a permission agreement prior to the start of the interview.

Thomas (2012) identifies a key issue as consent and whether there is implied consent or whether the participant needs to opt in. That said, Saunders and Lewis (2012) warn against coercion when attempting to gain consent. As the study involves not only individual participants agreement but is also linking to the sector there will be a need to gain consent from organisations. Gray (2014) emphasises the need to get written consent from organisations as an important part of the process, which links to access issues. All participants were required to consent prior to the interview, by signing a consent form and all individuals, by completing the questionnaire were deemed to be giving consent. This was explained on the questionnaire front sheet.
Costley and Gibbs (2006 p89) highlight that

“research involving friends, work colleagues and other professionals raises issues of ethics in different ways from those where the relationship to the researcher to the researched is more transitory, informal and definable. The latter allows researchers to distance themselves from the research setting and detach themselves emotionally from the research context. Work-based researchers are unable to do that”.

It was important to consider any relationship between the researcher and the researched. As such, in preparing the study steps were taken to consider and address any key areas to ensure respondents’ data were kept private, anonymous and confidential and that it was used in an appropriate and honest way in the way in which it was portrayed and reported on. This ensure the research approach was ethical, while also reassuring the respondents. Appropriate steps were taken, and no evidence of issues arose. A critical issue that needed to be considered was around data security and storage. To start with the researcher outlined the intention to ensure appropriate use and storage and data and the keenness to avoid the misuse of the data and ensure its only use was for the purpose intended. The process was explained to the participants. Information was transcribed honestly and was checked with the participant prior to its use. The initial recording of each interview was transferred to an audio file and held on a secure and portable hard disk which was retained in a locked desk at a private residence. Th initial recording was then deleted from the digital recording device. A copy of the audio file was transferred to a portable storage device and sent to the transcriber, who transcribed the recording and returned it to the researcher. No identifying information was provided. Individual information regarding the participants was kept on a separate portable storage device and this was kept in a locked desk (in a private office) at the researcher’s workplace. This ensured no contamination of data.

Attempts to avoid conflicts of interest were taken and the researcher always sought to find ways to maintain objectivity. It is acknowledged however that the fundamental nature of qualitative research will always been subjective. The decision not to use the home or host institutions meant no obvious conflict of interest existed.
It was not expected that the subject matter was particularly sensitive to participants and the risk of harmful impact on participants was assessed as low. However, it is recognised that in some instances, participants might feel uncomfortable. As such, the research undertaken did not subject the sample population to embarrassment, harm, or other material disadvantage during the research activity. The nature of the study involves the participant talking about their job etc. It is therefore impossible to always predict how individuals will react to all questions. What may be deemed sensitive to one, may not always be deemed sensitive to another. The researcher was therefore sensitive to noticing any change in mood or body language of the participant and was prepared to take appropriate action should anything arise. This included the potential for stopping the interview (for a short period of time, or permanently) or giving the participant time to compose themselves. Fortunately, this was not required.

All participants had the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any point up to the submission of the final thesis.

4.8 Research Quality Issues
The constructs of reliability and validity are not considered as significantly as key issues in qualitative research (Thomas, 2012) as they are in quantitative research. A common criticism of qualitative research is the lack of generalisability. The criticism may be considered a result of the general “obsession with statistical generalisation” (Johnston, 2016) rather than the analytical generalisation qualitative research gives you (Yin, 2014). Tsang (2014) identifies this as theoretical generalisation. Ridder et al (2014 p374) suggest that qualitative research enables a “significant contribution to the field” thus can make a significant contribution to the wider academic community, because it allows for the development of exploration of organisational phenomena (Yin 2014). Accordingly, this credibility with the theoretical conventions that ground it (Farquhar 2012). As discussed earlier, management research has the dual hurdle of needing to be practically relevant, while also being academically rigorous. The methodological approach taken has allowed for both tests to be achieved. The research is
embedded in a plethora of literature drawn from a range of academic sources and has followed a rigorous methodological path. This has ensured that academic protocol has been followed and has allowed a high level of credibility to the findings. At the same time the psychological contract is a significant contributable element in the employment relationship and is something that impacts all organisations and the management of it, is an important feature of the manager’s toolbox. The importance is perhaps highlighted by the amount of research being undertaken in the subject area not only by academic researchers but by professional bodies such as the CIPD.

4.9 Bias
To remove bias, organisations were chosen which were independent to the research So as to avoid social desirability bias in which respondent attempt “to present themselves in the best light possible” (Lee and Lings, 2008 p174). The researcher used individuals with which they have no direct relationship to maintain as much objectivity as possible. This minimised any possible or potential interference in the process and the outcomes from the research. Failure to reduce the level of bias potentially leads to the invalidating of the research and / or findings which cannot be trusted. Obviously with all research of this nature there is the possibility that the participants may either embellish or distort the truth. This always needs to be a consideration and is a reason for using the interview and the questionnaire to produce a case as there are opportunities to triangulate the information.

4.9.1 Insider Research
Careful consideration within the study had to be taken as to myself as an academic, beyond that of traditional consideration of bias. While the previous section considered the general concept of bias, there was also the consideration of the “Insider Research” (Flemming, 2018; Ross, 2017; Wiser, 2018). Insider Research can be considered as a broad term and could be as simple as conducting research in a home-setting (Wiser, 2018) or your community (DeLyser, 2001) or more broadly can be classed as where a “researcher identifies as a member of the social group or culture that is being studied” (Ross 2017: 326). As such the researcher can be considered an insider as although they have made
great effort to avoid institutions, they have direct contact with, they do below to the broader community or group / culture. Wiser (2018) highlights the importance of maintaining a critical approach to the research to allow the research to be as impartial as possible. As DeLyser (2001) suggests there needs to be an avoidance of the blurring of the Researcher and the Research. Wiser (2018) suggests that an approach is to recognise this dual façade and to make every effort to create an ‘outsiderness’ to your approach.

To consider this, Flemming (2018) highlighted the idea of insider research being somewhat of a continuum of closeness that depicts the relationship between the researcher and the researched. In doing this, individuals interviewed had no significant relationship with the researcher and thus the ‘closeness’ was deemed to not be playing a significant part. In a similar vein, Teusner (2016) had suggested a key feature of insider research was around knowledge of the organisation. Again, this was mediated by using staff from institutions where the research had no significant connections. Thus, reducing the closeness to the furthest possible extent.

As such the research was approached in such a way as to recognise my ‘dual appearance, while maintaining a critical dialogue (Wiser, 2018), and careful care was taken in the interviews to avoid influencing (or directing) or testing responses as much as was feasible, while at the same time trying to bring out one’s own assumptions or expectations. On conclusion of the interviews and once they had been transcribed it was equally important that the responses were recorded accurately and that no false assumptions were made. This included ensuring that any premature conclusions were not brought out. This was particularly difficult where comments allowed for differing interpretations and choice for how things could be considered. On the few occasions where this had potential, clarity was sought from the respondent. The steps taken ensured an accurate account reported in the findings and then followed through into the discussion.

4.10 Limitations
As with all research, limitations are inevitable. Initial limitations of the project were

- No. of institutions (two institutions per category, totalling six)
• No of interviewees (three per institution, totalling 18)
• Generalisability (not statistically generalisable)
• Time bounded (cross sectional not longitudinal)

These are limitations found in most types of qualitative research however, Del Campo (2007) suggests that there are limits to how much research can be done on the content of the psychological contract, suggesting that the individualised nature of it creates its own limitations. This it is argued is the reason why most researchers concentrate on breach/violation or cross-cultural features. However, this in-itself creates a gap in the literature and opens opportunity to allow for research of the psychological contract in conjunction with other variables.

4.11 Conclusion
This chapter has set out the research process that has been undertaken for the collection of data. In doing so the philosophical decisions under-pinning the research have been discussed and justified, using previously used methods (adapted questionnaire) alongside qualitative approaches in the form of interviews. This has allowed the collection of rich data supported by quantitative data allowing for situations, circumstances, and responses to be considered. These may be considered as the way to understand the phenomena known as the psychological contract and most importantly people’s reactions and responses to its manifestation. This has allowed the collection of data which will be considered in the following chapters.
Chapter 5: Findings

5.1 Findings
This chapter presents the core findings of the 18 questionnaires and 18 in-depth interview described in the previous chapter. The chapter is structured around several themes that have been developed from analysis of the data. In the first section, the data analysis techniques are presented, and the emergence of themes is discussed. Thereafter, each theme is presented, considering the factors which contribute to the psychological contract and the broader employment relationship before identifying the impact on and the manifestation of the discretionary effort.

5.2 Questionnaire Output
The questionnaire data (raw data can be found in Appendix six) was used to inform key elements of the findings and provide core demographic data. It was used to support the information gained in the interviews often as background information on the respondents (some of which can be found in the University and Participant Profiles within the Methodology section) with other parts found to be informing this chapter.

The data from Table 5.1 highlights perceptions of the respondents’ satisfaction and expectations with the role across several factors; regarding why they joined academia and their current attitude in a work context based on job satisfaction, career expectations and their commitment (to their workplace and subject area) levels. Using a seven-point Likert scale, mean scores generally evidenced a high level of satisfaction. Scores at 5 notes agree slightly, 6 agree and 7 agree strongly, with scores at 1 disagree strongly 2 disagree and 3 disagree slightly. A score of 4 being neutral.

The results from Table 5.1 helped to inform thoughts and conclusions drawn from the findings in sections 6.4 through to 6.7.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job role</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>When I joined academia, I expected</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy in the role</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient working hours and vacations</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving knowledge of my area of research</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I joined academia because I had an</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal urge to teach and educate the next generation in my subject area</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal urge to conduct research in my area</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work I have undertaken has met my initial expectations</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work I have undertaken has met my career expectations</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work attitudes</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Job satisfaction</em></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my current role</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I frequently think of quitting (my job)</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I frequently think of quitting (the profession)</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m generally satisfied with the kind of work that I do</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Future Career Aspirations</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I optimistic about my future in academia</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My feelings about the future within my institution influence my overall attitude towards the future</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I’m progressing in my career</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I’m getting ahead in my institution</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Commitment</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m proud to tell people I work at my university</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my work I feel like I’m contributing to my subject area</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m willing to put myself out to help the department/faculty I work for</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to me that I am of good standing in my Department</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to me that I am of good standing in my Organisation</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to me that I am of good standing in my subject area / academic community</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to me that I am of good standing in my professional body / practice community</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 Satisfaction of Expectations
The data suggest that, to some degree, expectations are being met. For example, the mean score of 5.56 and 5.28 (with both modes being 6) for meeting of initial and career expectations respectively. Likewise, satisfaction in current role (mean 5.89), and satisfaction with type of work (mean 5.67) and optimism about their future in academia (mean 5.11) show that expectations are being met to a degree. The standard deviation in the case of the latter, however, suggests greater variation in responses. The data also indicate a low preference for ‘intention to leave’, either in terms of the institution (mean 2.56) or the profession (mean 2.67), although, again the high standard deviation indicates a spread of responses among respondents. These data might indicate that while individuals are progressing in their career, they are not necessarily progressing within their institution. Chapter 6 explores many of these ideas in greater detail

5.3 Themes from the Qualitative Study
Using the open coding approach discussed in the previous chapter, this section details the emergent themes from the qualitative data (respondent responses), namely:

- Background – identified through an individual’s experience, expectations, and perceptions, which may be collectively considered to be the formation of baggage
- Identification – including how they see their role and how they identify with their institution
- Manifestation – which incorporates the level of autonomy they feel they have, where they see their challenges, what they identify as achievements and where they identify their discretionary effort

To present these themes, contrasting (and verbatim) quotations have been used highlighting the characteristics of the respondents.

5.4 Personal Baggage, Perceptions and Expectations of organisational identity
Organisational orientation towards research and/or teaching was a key theme to emerge from the data and appeared to be salient to respondents. The six academics from pre1992 Universities identified their institutions as research
intensive or orientated, while two referred to the Russell group. There was frequent reference to the theme of research by all the academics with one respondent (9) suggesting that “research runs as a core throughout the whole institution, even into the student body”. Interestingly however one of the respondents (5) suggested that there had been an increasing focus on teaching more recently and that there was evidence to suggest a changing culture placed on ensuring higher levels of student satisfaction. He identified “there seems to be a much bigger discussion there around teaching than I would have expected at a Russell Group university” and went on to say “I’ve been in vastly more meetings about teaching and it does seem to be a much bigger emphasis on that now that TEF is a real thing”.

The six academics from the post1992 (ex-Polytechnic) Universities suggested their organisations were more teaching focussed however each mentioned the growing importance of research among the institutions. One respondent (3) suggested this growing emphasis on research had had an impact on recruitment and selection strategy, with a growing tendency to recruit post-doctoral students who had no industrial background. She argued that this potentially had a negative impact on teaching levels suggesting that these post-docs did not have the practical experience to be able to embed into their teaching. She argued “it is great bringing in staff with PhDs but when they come in straight from University, they usually can’t apply it, and that’s what makes it interesting for students … the real world. Students want to know how things work really and they like to learn from your experience”. This was supported by respondent (13) who suggest that their institution was perhaps neglecting the teaching side to place more emphasis on the research noting “we seem to be recruiting more PhDs who can publish regardless of teaching ability or practical knowledge”.

In addition to the usual teaching / research emphasis, each of the respondents referred to the importance of professional practice as part of their University’s ethos. “A large part of our delivery focuses on getting the students to go into practice (HR)” (13), “we see ourselves as preparing students for the workplace and so it is crucial, we emphasise professional practice” (18) and “it is important to embed practice into what we do” (4). One respondent (14) suggested that
accreditations were important to the University to help them stand out which was important in terms of marketing. He emphasised “There’s not any doubt about that. The associated accreditation with the reputation and quality, so everything is driven around the accreditations. There is not any doubt about that.” These respondents pointed to the Russell Group Universities who do not see themselves as needing accreditations as much as they see themselves as being prestigious and use this as a promotion tool. Interestingly respondent 10, who worked at a pre1992 university saw the lack of accreditations at her institution as a negative. Respondent 14 suggested that their University was trying to get rid of the ex-Poly tag and “There are even rumours that the Vice-Chancellor is trying to put … into the Russell group, which will never happen”.

The six respondents representing the former Colleges of Higher Education, all referred to their institution as being teaching focussed. Similar, to the academics in the ex-Polytechnic institutions four out of the six suggested that there had been some increase in the importance of research in recent years, with one having been responsible for starting an in-house conference “I think setting up the business group here, the research group and our own research conference in June, so that’s been a key achievement here” (2). All staff, however, commented that teaching was still the priority.

Four out of the six also commented on the importance of the ethos of the institution, which they believed had a significant impact of the institution. Respondent 2 stated “I mean the Catholic ethos and the way the Management at Newman had been set up in the past as always, could be argued anti-business almost, you know, you’ve got this Catholic ethos underpinning, but the need to have a Business Management department again comes out of the need to recruit students in order to survive. So for me the niche comes from its education base and its Catholic education base in particular, which strange enough is a, is a Marxist-atheist coming to a Catholic institution, I found it quite refreshing, strangely so”. They and their colleague (respondent 1) suggested that ethical business was a critical part of their curriculum. Respondent 1 also felt the ethos affected the approach to teaching “of our Catholic ethos and our teaching style typically in small groups “Similarly, respondent 11 emphasised the organisation’s commitment
to social change and social justice “it was about the social change that the University tries to bring into the curriculum, and their values are quite close to mine. Where they’re bringing in disadvantaged students into University and try to give them a life. I am quite passionate about creating that change to the society”. 

One respondent (7) suggested that the type of students who came to their institution were more practically orientated and were not “high flying students”, they chose their institution because they were looking for entry into the job market. They were not looking to go onto “master’s degrees or doctorates”. These students would benefit from small group teaching. Alongside this there was reference to the widening participation agenda. This included the inclusion of sub-degrees as part of their portfolio.

5.4.1 Respondent background and identity
The professional background of the respondents was mixed. Of the eighteen respondents, fifteen may be described as second career academics having had industrial experience prior to moving into academia. Only three would be described as pure career academics who had not had any significant work experience prior to their academic role. These three had generally followed a similar pathway having undertaken undergraduate studies from school following by postgraduate studies followed by a PhD. Of the fifteen with prior experience nine had less than ten years industrial experience, three had entered university as mature students and three had experience of working within a Further Education College prior to moving into their Higher Education Institution. Five of the respondents who were on their second career felt they were giving something back whereas the other ten had opted for a career in academia as a preferred career choice. Respondents 3 and 13 made reference to using their experience, while 3 and 14 focussed on management development and improving management practice “came from an industrial background and have always been interested in the development of people and particularly the way managers think and the way they lead and manage and so, having had experience particularly within the retail sector, had experience of how things can be done in a number of different ways and wanted to influence in a positive way and contribute to the way people manage effectively”. In addition, Respondents 11 ad 13 make reference to
being ‘practitioners’. Alongside this, respondent 8 refers to working with industry. Respondent 4 focused on the desire to have an impact on young people’s lives. Other rationale for the choice of having a career in academia focused on teaching and research. Seven out of the eighteen respondents made reference to teaching as a key driver while three also mentioned research.

Eight of the eighteen respondents were international by nationality representing Greece (2), Malaysia, Venezuela, Mexico, Ireland, Bangladesh, and India, while three had worked abroad in an international HEI. The eighteen academics consisted of eight females and ten males, while seven described themselves as lecturer with the other eleven identifying themselves as a higher level with seven of them identifying levels of responsibility in their role. Levels of responsibility included being Enterprise Coordinator (4), Course Leaders (1, 3, 5, 6, 17, 18), Research Leads (3) and a Deputy Head of Department (14).

5.5 Aspects of the Role
As a key element of the research, how academics perceive their role is a critical factor in understanding the psychological contract and where they place discretionary effort. A key feature of the role of academics is teaching, research and administration and all have an opinion on what they see as their priority and what the University they work for prioritises. All respondents acknowledge administration as the lowest in terms of priority per se, however several respondents distinguished between administration directly related to teaching such as mark entry and other non-teaching related administration such as writing reports and completing paperwork for HESA returns. Several of the respondents put the three factors in the teaching, research, and administration order. Respondent 3 supports this, as does 1. Data gathered from the questionnaires (table 5.3) demonstrates a level of disparity on how academics judge their time split. It would suggest the least research time spent at the ex-Colleges of Higher Education and most at the pre1992 universities.
Despite that however the modal class would suggest that the 40:40:20 split would be the most common, however not on an individual basis.

However, when questioned about workload and the three aspects respondents generally scored themselves highly on the Likert scale. Table 5.3 highlights the emphasis the respondents placed on the three aspects of the academic role, answering on a scale 1-7 (Disagree Strongly to Agree Strongly). The data presented suggests a strong commitment to each of the different aspects, however, reflects the different foci of the institutions of each of the respondents. This is particularly evident in the research category which shows relatively low mean scores (between 4.61 and 5.00) for each category with relatively high standard deviation. Teaching category scores would seem to suggest a greater level of consistency across the three types of institution.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research represents a significant part of my current work</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The research I conduct is valued by my own institution</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have excellent support from my colleagues to develop my research interests</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suitable resources exist within my institution to develop my research interests</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching represents a significant part of my current work</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teaching responsibilities I conduct are valued by my institution</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The student feedback I received on the quality of my teaching is very good</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The feedback I receive plays a valuable role in enhancing the quality of my teaching</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I conduct my teaching responsibilities to a high standard</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I value a “peer review” process to monitor the quality of my teaching</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A large part of my current work is concerned with administration</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have excellent support from my colleagues to undertake my administrative responsibilities</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3 Role Commitment

Within the interviews, several respondents suggested a parity between teaching and research. Respondent 12 suggests a 50% teaching 50% Research split, arguing that administration is embedded in teaching “and administration is something that is kind of imbedded within your teaching responsibilities nowadays”. She highlights however that from her point administration is least priority and only does what she needs to do. She acknowledged the need to do the administration related to the teaching. As such, respondent 1 acknowledged, the obvious need to do marking and admin related to teaching, such as checking
results etc but noted “administration I try to keep to an absolute minimum”. Similarly, respondent 10 created Teaching 40% Research 40% Admin 20% split. Similarly, respondent 10 created Teaching 40% Research 40% Admin 20% split. In support of this respondent 11 suggested teaching and administration were equal (balanced) with administration third. This clashes between interview and questionnaire, which may suggest that respondents find it difficult to quantify their workload and adequately split up their role and perhaps may be a time-based issue interchangeable dependent on the time of year as highlighted by respondent 5. “I think it depends on where you are erm in the year and where you are kind of in terms of any big cycle that’s happening, so for the first three months the priority has been almost 100% nearly all the time has been spend on administration and teaching and because I needed to write two modules, exams for two modules and then as soon as they were finished begin writing another module, another new module with exams so that was up until the end of December packed up with teaching … once they get to the mid-February point erm the teaching drops away a lot, the administration will drop away” Similar to this, respondent 10 pointed to Teaching 40% Research 40% Admin 20% at present but likely to change to Teaching 30% Research 50% Admin 20%. Respondent 12 suggested that “flexibility is crucial and that you need to wear different hats at different times”.

Generally, the respondents from pre1992 Universities saw research as the priority, ordering as research, teaching, admin (9, 10, 17, 18). Respondent 5 suggested that they would “prioritise research, teaching, administration”, while respondent 8 stated that “research is number one priority, significantly ahead” and followed up by saying that “teaching would come next but doesn’t take up a lot of my time” Importantly the research undertaken is used in what they teach. Significantly she suggested that the administration was equal with teaching in joint 2nd. Respondent 10 highlighted the different contracts staff were on to allow staff with a track record to focus on conducting research. “So, if some people are purely teaching then that’s okay if that is what we’re doing, so … this is very definitely a teaching scholarship one”

Staff from post 1992 institutions primarily identified teaching as the main priority, with virtually all recognising teaching as the priority. Respondent 1 identified teaching first, research 2nd, try to keep the admin to a minimum, while 3 stated
teaching top, admin bottom, research in middle. Interestingly respondent 6 (former College of HE) acknowledged that it should be teaching, research admin but “How it is, is first teaching, then administrative and then research” which was supported by 14 (former Polytechnic) who listed teaching, admin, research, which he quantified by stating he would like research to come second. “I want research to be second, but because of the complexity of how we teach and the expectations sometimes, you over-step, you just put that to the side.” He continued to comment on the fact that it depends on the time of year. Notably, he distinguishes between teaching related administration and other administration, which he describes bits as “ridiculous”. He acknowledged a” So, it’s {the role} not just about satisfying people, its, you need to make sure you follow the policy and manage the dynamics of the team and the politics as well. The admin side of that is, when do you need to comply with the policy, so you need to follow the procedures, otherwise you’ll be in trouble.”. In addition to this respondent 3 suggested that administration eats into teaching and research on a day-to-day basis. “but what in actual fact happens is the admin forms the biggest part of my day-to-day role erm and increasing amounts of Bureaucracy” This included the notion of student support, in which respondent 2 itemised teaching 60%, Research 20%, but gave nothing for administration. He suggested he would allocate the other 20% to pastoral care. Similarly, respondent 7 rates Teaching, Admin, research and suggests a lot of time is spent on student support to help the students achieve well. For Respondent 6 personally identified that his 20% allocated to research was not related to personal research but instead being a conduit for research to help others, he was no longer chasing publications for himself.

Several of the respondents tried to suggest parity. Respondent 13 suggested equal parity, noting it was impossible to rank dependent on time of year, time of week, and what is going on at that moment. In a similar way, respondent 4 supported the idea that they were evenly split but pointed out that it is "easy to let the research go”. As part of this, 13 distinguishes between administration related to teaching and general administration. In support of this 11 noted that administration related to teaching always came before other administration “we also have a lot of teaching, so it means that we also have a lot of admin work”. He suggested that teaching and research were balanced, and administration was 3rd.
Several of the respondents when talking about their priorities and gave an indication that what they were doing was not necessarily what they wanted to do. Respondent 3 suggested they would like to spend more time on teaching and research. Actually, she went on to say she would actually like to do less teaching but have more time for preparation or marking (potentially this may be considered teaching related administration by many). Following on from this she went on to say she would really like to do more specialist teaching and less on the generic 1st year modules. So even within this notion of teaching administration and research there are adaptations and interpretations within this.

Although touched on by several of the respondents, only respondent 4 consider the roles and responsibilities some people have. He stated that teaching was the “main priority” for institution but that his institution was also trying to enhance research. He claimed, “teaching is bread and butter” and that,” student satisfaction is critical”. Therefore, there is a push for the post 1992 institutions to ensure they get good ratings as it affects standing as an institution, particularly when they cannot compete on the research agenda. Therefore, there is a need to “satisfy your line manager” (5) or “management layers” (7). This creates a concern amongst many who some struggle with (and feel threatened by) the climate change.

Key concerns are the notion of “dumbing down” to make it “more interesting and entertaining” and teaching becoming “more of a popularity contest” (4). Alongside this respondent 4 concludes that If you take on responsibility the administration that comes with it follows and so it becomes “an increasingly important aspect that gains greater priority for you”. He acknowledges that this may not be intentional but a reality of the situation. He reflected on the role of others with less responsibility who seem to just “disappear off for long summers”. This creates an element of anger (or just frustration) but accepts that if he had not taken on this role, he may have adopted the same approach he may have taken a back seat. A key thought was that he did not feel these staff were doing research (which was often a criticism around not having time to do research). He did feel that it is the role of the line manager to ensure all staff are contributing and commented that he
was aware that “you don’t know what is going on in other people’s lives, so it is hard to judge”. This links with the notion of i-deals.

5.6 Identification with the Organisation
Most respondents felt that they had and an appropriate fit with their organisation. Those that were very research orientated had found their way into more research-intensive universities, while there was a broad understanding of the importance of teaching at all institutions. Respondent 10 had been brought into her role as a more teaching focussed academic to address the growing importance of teaching even within the Russell Group institutions. She suggested they had “a very inclusive culture” and felt very involved despite not having the research profile many of her colleagues had. She suggested that the institution seemed to value staff, they had a “focus on people and respect for what they do”.

Similarly, respondents 12 and 13 recognised the mixture that teaching, and research have within their organisations. Respondent 12 noted that they knew what they were “getting into” when they joined their organisation (a former College of HE) so they did not feel there was any conflict, they appreciated that the “focus of the institution was on teaching and as such they would have to do a lot of juggling between teaching and research. Similarly, respondent 13 (former polytechnic) recognised the need to “put in their own time especially on the research side”. Both however would like to see more focus on research and more support for it, within their organisations.

Although, they feel they fit with their institution, respondent 4 recognises that there will always be a “mis-match between an organisation and an individual”. He recognises the notion of Person - Organisation fit without really mentioning it. As such, he acknowledges the people side of this as the people you report to such as Managers (Deans) as a crucial aspect as to whether you feel it is “the institution for you”. He also suggests that you get more “relaxed” about it as you “progress through your career” arguing “that quite often I’ve seen it before”. He likes to “play the long game”. Respondent 12 noted that they came from a very research-intensive university. Everyone at the University (in her department at least) “were immersed in research and spoke a research language”, which was not evident at
her current institution. She suggested that Universities should be research focussed. This would lead to “recruiting better quality students”. This was a massive influencer on her thinking. Similarly, respondent 6 noted that their background is from “bigger universities” with “research cultures”. She suggested that this may influence her own expectations and views on the way it should be.

Similarly, one of the respondents (2) working at one of the former Colleges of HE, suggested he had a good fit but “was surprised”. He described himself as a “Marxist- atheist but recognises the Catholic ethos of the institution”. He suggested that he did not expect to fit. Alternatively, his colleague (1) suggested that the Catholic institution was one of the reasons for applying for the job. He was brought up a catholic and the research he did prior to applying around the ethos of the organisation was a crucial feature in this. In line with this (2) suggested that the ethos of the institution provides the “freedom to do the job they want to”, while 1 recognises the “interdisciplinary nature of the organisation due to its small nature”. Despite the clear focus on teaching both recognise the growing importance of research. In particular (2) was brought in to start up research degrees and had already run a research conference for the Business department. Meanwhile, respondent 1 highlighted that several the academics across the University had started doing research degrees (EdD) through a partner institution. This was “part of the attempt to increase research capacity and start to create a research profile and ethos across the institution”.

However, not all staff identify with their institution. Respondent 3 feels at a bit of a crossroads and they question their fit with the organisation. This was felt to be connected to her view of herself as a ‘practitioner’ and not fully an ‘academic’. She felt that she needed to undertake a doctorate to provide herself with some credibility as an academic, “we’re saying everybody needs to have a Doctorate”. She had previously been doing a doctorate but had had to withdraw due to work pressures. She had since applied for funding to restart her doctorate but had been rejected on two occasions. This has caused her to feel neglected and will probably lead to a career move outside of HE. Alongside this she feels that there has been a shift in the university (former polytechnic) and more drive on research. This she suggests is being driven by the new Vice Chancellor and has trickled
down into the new management teams. She feels this approach has resulted into
the recruitment of academics with PhDs and not practical experience. She feels
the university is no longer working to the “different strengths in different teams”.
Similarly, respondent 9 felt a clash at present. They come from a very teaching
orientated background however they are now at a research-intensive University.
They had not yet fully adapted to this new organisation, but they acknowledged
she was “happy as it is what she wanted”. She recognised the existence of very
strong and identifiable research hubs and groups. She felt that this was
“frightening as she had not yet found her place”. She pointed at lots of support for
research but also the high level of intensity and expectation that went with it. Her
colleagues (respondent 8) do not identify much with the University or with her
Department. Instead, she associated more with her Research Group.

In a similar way, others identified with different aspects of the University and
Academic life. Respondent 4 suggested that they identified with the School but
not the subject area. They were “undertaking an enterprise development role
within the subject area” (accounting and finance) while accounting and finance
was not their area. Alternatively, respondent 2 suggested their alignment was
closer with their department than it was with the University, although they did feel
they fitted with the University. Interestingly, respondent 1 suggested they identify
as part of the Business Department and then the University but not so much the
school (School of Human Sciences). A key element in this was the structure and
size of the university and that in the three former colleges of higher education, only
one had an identifiable Business School, while the other two were departments in
a much broader school.

Alternatively, respondent 5 did not identify with their University as he “feels out of
it”. At present due to building work and re-development they are in prefab building
not in main part of the School. As part of this they and the other staff in the school
located in here do not see a lot of staff about, partly because there are “2
professors on floor below who are never in”. Alongside this there is a lot of
confusion about “teaching identity” and programme content. That said they have
been involved in meetings and activities so seem to start to be able to identify at
department level. This suggests a contrast with respondent 10 who is at the same institution and feels “well suited”.

Similarly, respondent 7 also does not identify with their organisation. They feel that this is too much management control and too many requests to do non-teaching activities, or roles that he feels should be done by non-teaching staff. As such he does not “respond to requests and rejects the opportunities to contribute”. He does however work well with his colleagues and is happy to support them. They know they “can get hold of me easily enough by email and I will help”. However, he does not come in if he does not have to. He feels “the institution has changed and is not as much about teaching and professional practice”, so does not feel he fits anymore. In a similar way respondent 1 highlighted how their University had also changed noting they were predominantly known as “the teacher training place” and many outside the institution did not recognise them “as a broader institution”.

While most of the discussion around identifying with the organisation reflected on the University, there is some recognition that the individual’s focus also changes. Respondent 6 identified feeling it was a very good fit when first arrived. They suggested that this was because “they really liked teaching but now they would like more support to do research”. They recognised the need for a research profile to gain promotion which may have included moving to another institution. They suggested that while the University (former College of HE) made reference to research “support was not forthcoming”. She recognised the concept of conflict between teaching and research both at an individual level and at the institutional level. Similarly, respondents 12 and 13 also wanted to do more research, with 12 recognising the need to have a reduced teaching load, while 13 suggested that the University was not proactive enough. In the same way respondent 11 felt support was available but the ability to access it was difficult due to the lack of time and because there was such a focus on research.

A key feature of identifying with the organisation was very much around how they saw themselves within their roles and their institutions. Although all staff saw themselves as academics, they also self-selected themselves into being pure
academics (i.e. research orientated) or practitioner academics. As such respondent 2 described themselves as a professional academic leaning more to the academic side and used the phrase “progressive academic”. Important to several the respondents was to emphasise the importance of staff having a business background (1). Significant in some Pre1992 Universities was the concept of being inter-disciplinary (8 and 10) as key aspects of the work they are doing.

Also important was whether academics felt they understood and supported the direction the institution (or School / Department) was going in and whether they felt they were in support of it and “were making a contribution” (14).

5.7 Types of Psychological Contract & the Individual
5.7.1 Contract Expectations
A key element of this could be considered through the lens of whether individuals were having their expectations and aspirations met within their role. Respondents tended to focus on their career identifying opportunities and barriers (blockages). Key themes emerging from the findings were around freedom, workload and time, and the balance between research and teaching.

A key workload issue was for those staff who were doing doctorates alongside their full-time roles (4). This placed a greater emphasis on the individual alongside their day-to-day activities, as time was not necessarily provided beyond the norm. There was an expectation that much of this would involve their own time. Respondent 4 however acknowledged his doctorate as a “nice to have” rather than a desire. This he recognised as perhaps a view to the “stage of his career” and the rationale for doing his doctorate was not as career motivated as many of his colleagues. He recognised that he was coming towards the end of his career and much of his having the doctorate was status related. Although workload was an issue, he recognised that he needed to “be more selfish with his time and perhaps needed to commit more to it rather than prioritising other work-related activities which at this stage he considered more fun”. Similar to this respondent 3 suggested that doing the doctorate was ”a personal journey” but identified “a glass
ceiling” in not having one. Respondent 4 identified key barriers within his previous institution as being related to internal politics and bureaucracy and recognised his current employer was more open. His previous institution had been a former College of HE, while is current employer was a former polytechnic. That said he also recognised that there were still constraints at his current employer.

A perhaps obvious, but nonetheless significant area of expectations and aspirations was around teaching and research, not just related to time and workload but also to include the broader dimension. Several of the respondents talked about support being provided (8, 9), and about space also being provided, although it was less clear whether space was physical or time related, “there is so much support for it, because there’s an understanding that, a, you have to make your mark, you have to find the place that you own and then be able to develop it” (9). Respondent 8 recognised that financial support had been provided to pay the cost of travelling to conduct their research, while respondent 11 recognised that he had been bought out of teaching to get his PhD completed acknowledging “plus teaching has been covered and in terms of my PhD, when I was writing up at the final stage, I was given two – three months with no work kind of space”. He also recognised that he had been allowed to attend conferences to present papers. This had aided him in completing his PhD and had allowed him to develop a network of contacts. Benefits to this would be seen long term by both himself and the institution as he had published a couple of papers with some of his network and was also now involved in contributing to a chapter in a book. Respondent 5 also recognised this notion of space provided but also commented on having been able to recruit PhD students to support his research activity noting “I’ve already picked up one PhD student and I have two more applying”. He suggests the general culture and comradery of his organisation (pre1992 University) was an important feature of this.

Although, most of the respondents felt supported (at least to the extent they expected support), some did not necessarily support the concept fully. Respondent 4 felt supported by his line manager, highlighting “so I need to make that happen and sign that time off, the Line Manager says, both my Line Managers, from previous one and my current one is say yes you’ve got to make
that happen as such and then if things are going to fall off you just flag it up to them, don’t you?” while respondent 6 suggested “I think that at the department level I have a lot of support, but not at the university level.”. They suggested that the expectations and aspirations of the University have changed and therefore individual or departmental expectations may not be supported. Respondent 4 described this as a “mis-match”. They argued that the department does what it can but that the University does not provide resources. The University therefore needs to be realistic as to what can be achieved. They suggest that the ‘Business School’ do not necessarily fit the model in the same way other schools may.

A key and growing aspect of the non pre1992 institutions is research, and while many staff are happy to follow this there is a question as to the lip service nature of it. Respondent 13 suggested that their institution is not proactive enough to meet the expectation that they set, and this is often due to a lack of resources and the lack of allocation of time. He argues “Now seeing as we have started to shift our focus, to become more of a research-focussed University as well, what’s wrong, and I have highlighted that personally through the process that we need to follow is that we don’t think proactively”. Respondent 12 supports this and recognises the amount of personal time they put in to achieve their research profile, commenting “have to use a lot of my personal time to do research”. They comment on where they are with their research and that they need to catch up with a paper they are working on and the need to prepare a conference presentation for the following week. They suggest they would like less teaching to better manage this. While respondent 14 agrees with this he does highlight that a key aspect is also “the University’s lack of speed to achieve this”. Respondent 1 provided similar reflection by commenting “that teaching load had reduced over the last couple of years as the staff base had grown”. Initially teaching had taken up everything and meant it became more about process without the time to develop materials. Now there is more time to develop materials and he can “use his research to inform his teaching”. Coupled with this was that the team were now able to conduct research. This was due to the University seeking to get RDAP (Research Degree Awarding Powers) and that this shift was very much behind it. This was supported by his colleague (respondent 2) who felt he had very much “been recruited to create a research culture” and drive part of this
process. He wanted to be part of creating a Business School that was different and identifiable that was in line with the ethos of the University. He acknowledged that he had “no real personal ambition” due to the stage of their career, and suggested he already had a profile he was happy with.

Respondent 7 bemoaned the shift in culture of his university. He suggested that there were “far too many barriers being put in front of him to help achieve his expectations and aspirations”. His primary and perhaps only focus was centred on teaching and the students’ employability “it was always erm a place where vocational courses were taught”.

Respondent 10 also felt that expectations and aspirations were being or could be met, however felt they were suffering from some form of imposter syndrome noting “sometimes I think somebody might tap on my shoulder and say, ‘You’re an imposter, get out’.”. This she suggested was linked to the lack of research profile many of her colleagues had. She highlighted however that the institution was somewhere she had always wanted to work, and actually this notion of imposter syndrome had always been in existence since she came into teaching “feel a bit of an imposter that you don’t really know what you’re doing and therefore you’ve got to work really hard to prove that you do know that you do know what you’re doing and that, you know, your worthy to stand up there in front of students and other staff, with a level of subject knowledge that you’re happy with”.

5.8 Autonomy
Respondents generally felt that within their roles they had substantial autonomy on a day-to-day basis. Probably, except for timetabled classes (1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10), on the whole it was felt that as semi-autonomous professionals they were left to do their job. Respondent 4 also noted the academic calendar which also dictated when things needed to happen. This he suggested was controlled centrally (by administration functions). He emphasised this as a negative pointing out that “because I think I’ve seen more and more and I’ve seen that in the last institution as well where it’s the administrative area that tells you how, what to do, when to do it and how to do it, there’s more of a voice there when particularly they don’t really understand the implications of that”.

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Respondent 3 also noted that teaching allowed the highest form of autonomy. “It is your classroom you do what you like”. You have freedom to teach and innovate as much as you can so long as you cover the syllabus. This was supported by respondent 1 who also included student support as part of this. He suggested that “you were left to get on with it and organise yourself”. Respondent 3 however suggested that there was a reduction in autonomy and noted that at her institution managers had started “coming round to see who was in”. This was different however to the institution of respondent 2 who felt that managerialism had not yet set in for them. Respondent 4 also recognised the increase “in micro-management and managerialism” which he suggests results in “less academic freedom”, which in turn “reduces innovation and creativity”. He suggests that “there is an increase in being told what to do, when and how”. Following on from this respondent 12 felt there was “not much autonomy” She suggested that the role “was now driven by a performance management system” which she described as being “online and mechanical”. Put simply she suggested that you were set performance objectives which you have to do. There was a suggestion that there was little negotiation on what these were, however that there is some autonomy on how you do things. Alternatively, Respondent 9 noted the increased rigour in the PDR process and that “objectives were becoming increasingly challenging”. It was noted however that “although the objectives were more challenging support to achieve them was available” and you were “left to your own devices in how you go about achieving them”. In essence, you were expected to achieve your objectives. Respondent 10 also talked about support and encouragement and included the receptive nature to ideas. “You are encouraged to come up with new ideas, innovative perhaps, and allowed to run with them, within reason of course”.

Alternatively, respondent 14 suggested that there was not much autonomy “in influencing the decision-making process”. He suggested he “was allowed to give opinion but felt it not always listened to”. Respondent 13 noted they were involved in University committees, such as the School Academic Regulatory Committee, so they have a committee and policies but do not always adhere to them specifically due to other issues.
Respondent 6 highlighted “financial constraints which often sometimes dictated what you can and can’t do”. They noted the conflicting priorities that the University faces, which they struggle to resource properly. They note decisions must be made which may place constraints on what you want to do. She felt that “new researchers were not supported as much as they could be”. Alongside this, respondent 11 recognised the rules and procedures within the organisation and certain aspects you need to follow. He suggested that “there remained some choice in the process” however. He provided the example of being asked to go to teach in Dubai, on two occasions but due to completing his doctorate, at the time, he felt he was not able to commit and declined the opportunity. He suggested there had been no repercussions to this, however, did comment that he felt he would have to go next time if asked. This is supported by respondent 13 who suggests that there is a degree of freedom but “obviously procedures and guidelines exist”. She did suggest that in general “you were left to get on with it and do the work associated with your role”.

5.9 Challenges
In discussing challenges many of the respondents discussed the notion of the competitive nature of higher education (marketisation) and the issues it brings with it. Respondent 13 argues that education has become too commercialised. She highlights “I’d probably suggest that here in Britain, education is commercialised. Something that is not happening back home. But this commercialisation of education comes with many negatives as well”. A key issue raised related to student satisfaction, notably NSS, but others look at it from the general perspective of the student voice, popularity contests and edutainment.

Respondent 4 raised the issue of maintaining academic standards versus getting good student feedback. He very much suggested that “a key element of getting good student feedback is the pressure of giving students good grades”. However, most staff are conscious that standards need to be maintained therefore you can only give “the grade the work deserves. Obviously, you put in as much support as possible, but students don’t necessarily access the support but still expect to do well, without putting the work in”. He suggested that there was “managerial pressure to play the game”. Others also identify a key pressure as student
satisfaction and point to one of the “key pressures is module evaluations” (3). Alongside this there is “the desire for you to have an ‘Open Door’ policy” (4), this “creates a notion among the students of being ‘on demand’ and a culture of 24/7”. This includes emails needing to be responded to on a speedy basis (within 48 hours). However, students “don’t necessarily respect the notion of the weekend and the 48 days relating to two working days. They also don’t really consider whether staff are on fractional contracts or part time hourly paid.” This is supported by respondent 12. Respondent 5 took this slightly further and suggested the “on-demand student culture has been created from an increased student sense of entitlement, which wasn’t there before. This comes as a result of fees and marketisation”. He suggests you “often get emails from students wanting to meet within the hour. No sense of what you are doing or where you are”.

Similarly, there are other managerial pressures, such as marking and the short time turnaround for that and moderation. “Making sure feedback is back to students quickly” (4). Alongside this respondent 3 highlights the pressure “to be seen to be in. There seems to be a managerial view that if you are not in the office or the classroom, you are not working. Very managerial. Management need to recognise that much of the job can be done away from the University site and many activities are better because it gives you time to concentrate”. Respondent 4 also raised the issue surrounding student satisfaction as a “popularity competition. This could be down to whether they like you, or think you are entertaining” etc not necessarily associated with "learning, teaching and assessment". Respondent 6 suggests “Entertainment is key”. Alongside this respondent 6 considered herself and her colleagues “to be powerless against the students”. She suggests a “constant fear of upsetting the students and getting complaints”. This creates worry about the student voice and the insecurity around who gets the blame if students fail. She had a feeling of being powerless and suggested that the “university sides with the student”. At her University she very much felt that students were regarded as, and treated as, customers and there was “a ‘customer is always right’ ethos”. This was “emotionally draining”. This is supported by respondent 12 who suggested the quality of students “saps energy and drains you” because “you end up having to provide such things as assessment support above and beyond”. Included within this, is the clash
between the expectation v actual experience of students paying £9000. What do students (parents and government) expect as value for money. “We talk about enriching the experience but have limited resources to do so and don’t know what students really expect” (12). In line with this respondent 14 questioned whether institutions over promise, pointing out “but sometimes, you have to be realistic enough to see how you can support those students. If you don’t know what your capacity is, you wouldn’t be able to deliver what you want. I also think the University, they over promise”.

A further key aspect of current market pressure is around competition and student recruitment (4). “Under current open market conditions Universities are keen to attract greater numbers and hence secure greater financial security”. In many ways this coupled with widening participation also “creates a potential issue for retention and higher-grade attainment and obviously links back into student satisfaction”. Respondent 3 highlights the issue around entry requirements and that perhaps Universities “are letting in students who are not ready for University or not up to it”. She highlights “students with lower qualifications” but also points to “International students with poor standards of English”. Respondent 1 suggests internationalisation as a big issue. He notes, his institution where planning on “bringing in lot of international students in the forthcoming year and could see this bringing a number of potential issues”. Respondent 3 suggests the key issue in terms of speaking and listening which results in “performing to the lowest common denominator because of it. Perhaps dumbing down the use of technical language or slowing down the pace of a lesson. This results in some students being bored and either not getting to a higher level or being challenged enough to feel they are learning at a proper level”. This is supported by respondent 7 who consider recruitment to be a major issue. In particular, he notes his University are “taking higher numbers, and often taking weaker students but still expected to turn them out with a 1st or 2:1”. He raises the need to add value. That said however, respondent 12 suggested “more focus by universities on research would allow them to recruit better quality students”. This further links with a challenge “to gain higher student engagement and to build effective working relationships with students” (1). “Developing good relationships usually leads to better student engagement and in turn the quality performance by students”. Often, he suggests,
“poor engagement leads to non-attendance, poor use of moodle, and ultimately the failing of modules”.

A further challenge associated with students centred around employability. A key feature centres around making students work ready and obviously filters into DLHE and TEF data. Respondent 4 notes that “this is critical but are we doing it right”. He questions whether we are “too molly-coddling”. Partly this is always seeing them when they want is not how the workplace necessarily is. “Your manager is not always there so you need more resilience and willing to think for yourself or find things out”. Respondent 3 also sees making students employable as a challenge while respondent 7 furthers this as the challenge being “getting them into good jobs with careers especially with the limited resources that are available”.

Not all challenges were student related. Respondent 4 also reflected on the work undertaken by academics and academics themselves. He reflected “on meeting the diverse needs of staff. Different academics want different things and often see their role differently. Time is a current and constant issue. Much of the role seems to be more for less. Doing more with limited resources and often the key resource is time”. Respondent 7 also noted pressure on time and in particular “the need to support each other”. In addition, respondent 6 noted the “administrative burden”, while respondent 11 considered a big aspect of this to be “irrelevant”. A critical issue was often the “timing of demands” and the “sudden work that appears with short deadlines “(11). Often this is administration related. Respondent 4 also highlights “the short notice for things needing to be done, sometimes less than 24 hours’ notice” and a concern centred around Emails, notably the volume. Respondent 4 suggested “people needed to speak to people more, rather than the emailing backwards and forwards taking up time and energy”. Respondent 5 suggests that “emails are often to the detriment of personal face to face communication”. He points to “the constant emails backwards and forwards rather than meetings to crunch the issue”. He stated “weekly meetings used to be a pain but at least could sort through the issues and everyone could contribute. It beats the never-ending email traffic”. In addition, respondent 12 noted student emails as
Research and issues related to research were recurring themes amongst the respondents. Respondent 1 noted he was trying to develop a research profile and support the department developing a research culture at his institution, which was supported by his colleague, (respondent 2). Similarly, respondent 10 needed to consider prioritising research, while respondents 8 and 13 noted “the massive push to publish”. “Not just to publish but also to publish in more high-ranking journals” (13). Four out of the six respondents representing pre1992 Universities noted that REF had been putting greater pressure on them for the status of their research. “The need to publish work that was deemed high quality” (16). “The intensity had increased over the last few years” (8). Although they felt they were coping with it, they mentioned colleagues were feeling under excessive pressure. Meanwhile respondent 5 said he “needed to do ‘proper’ research”. Respondent 7 noted that the issue around time related to this particularly in their institution (form College of HE) where they were “trying to push the research agenda but not necessarily providing time and space”. A further research orientated challenge was “the need and intention to engage the business community in research” (1) who focussed on applied research, but also noted “support from the Business community helped to prove impact". It was also noted that there was also pressure to bring in research funding (5, 17, 18). “We are being asked not only about what research we are doing but also about bids and co-funding support” (16).

Several respondents discussed the challenge of creating a balance. Respondents 8 and 13 commented on balancing work and life. In particular “the role can absorb your private life and down-time which means it can quite easily have a negative effect on your well-being” (8). Alternatively, respondent 12 and 14 focussed on striking a balance between the demands of the role. Between teaching and research. This they suggested was as much “a University issue as it was an individual issue” (14). It was suggested that Universities were “trying to be everything and as such they had contrasting strategies which they couldn’t necessarily fulfil” (11). Alongside this respondent 14 also noted that there were
“too much politics going on. This caused distractions and often added to the issues and could easily get you involved”. He reflected on how he had “let himself get involved in a previous institution which dragged him away from the work he was trying to do and left him unfocussed”.

A small number of the respondents had what could be considered projects which were a challenge for them. Respondent 2 had noted they were “embroiled in trying to set-up as a Business School” (rather than a department). This was an interesting challenge as “achieving the Business School was needed to be done in the face of the Catholic ethos” which he described as being anti-capitalist. He reflected that there had been “significant opposition” to the set-up of the first business degree and this had in the end been a BA (Hons) in Ethical Business, which had not recruited well. Business was now “a lot more established however many still needed convincing”. In an alternative project, respondent 9 was “involved in getting things up and running in China. There was a number of challenges involved in this in terms of staff communication, language, common understanding, time zones, and building relationships with and between people at Lancaster, when in China so much”. Respondent 5 was also involved in a project to set up a proper finance degree. He felt there was “a misunderstanding about what finance was and his role was to help fellow academics understand it wasn’t accounting. This was proving particularly difficult with the accounting staff who had a fixed opinion on what Finance was and what they had always delivered”. Respondents 7 and 11 reflected on technology in the process. In particular respondent 11 was concerned about how Universities “will change in the future” e.g. technology etc, while respondent 7 had said their university had had “a big push originally for blended learning but that had then diminished”. He was disappointed because he was really into it.

Respondent 8 suggested that the gender equality was a challenge. She mentioned the gender pay gap as an issue but more notably her issue was that “the institution where not taking into account women with children and husbands”. She challenged as to why they have late meetings and the pressures that they need to publish and go to conferences which can be difficult depending on your personal circumstances.
Throughout the challenges the overarching and recurring theme kept coming back to metrics, judgements, and data (although no one mentioned these words). Key aspects around the challenges were about making the university stand out and be attractive to students and other bodies and stakeholders. Notions around employability data (DELHI), student satisfaction (NSS) and league tables were a constant factor in peoples thinking about what was driving the institution and therefore what was causing much of the pressure. Cumulative sets of data which were making judgements for REF and TEF as institutional quality marks.

5.10 Achievement
A key judgement for University life is around achievement. To achieve success in academia involves achievement, self-achievement, team achievement and notably student achievement. Respondent 4 pointed to his own personal journey, having had a previous career (in the army) and was now in his position, while respondent 1 pointed to achieving the PgCert (in teaching and learning) with a distinction having been out of education for so long. In addition, respondent 14 had noted that he felt proud of the way his career had progressed and that it was an achievement that he did not think he would do when he was younger, “being able over the last five years to progress and learn and hold the position, the management position that I didn’t even think about it as one of my achievements”.

Getting promoted was also a crucial aspect of achievement for respondent 5 having been a part time hourly paid member of staff, getting his first full time lecturing post, moving to be a senior lecturer and then a head of programme, “while working full time and erm simultaneously getting promoted so not just muddling through with a low level lecture basis but getting to Senior Lecturer then Head of Programme and all the while I did manage to publish from the PhD and again at a pretty good standard”. Alongside this respondent 3 had reflected on the fact that it had not been easy. She was proud of the fact that she had survived and the resilience she had shown over the years to get where she was. She noted that to achieve this she had had to develop support systems outside of the organisation, “survival and resilience are two of them, the fact that I’m still here and the fact that I will keep pushing to get back on to that Doctoral route and to get the highest achievement educationally that I can and to erm I think build the
networks; I think building a support structure to enable that to happen I consider a key achievement”. Several of the respondents (5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 17, 18) referred to the achievement of their PhD as a critical form of achievement. Respondents 5, 10 and 11 emphasised that a particularly satisfying aspect was that they had achieved this while working full time., with respondent 10 highlighting that she had been in a particularly intensive role. Respondent 5 made reference to “balancing the role” as an achievement. Alongside this respondent 11 had recognised the self-development and “the journey” they had been on to achieve. Alongside this research appeared amongst several of the respondents in their ideas around achievement. This was most prevalent in the pre1992 universities but did occur among some staff in the post 1992 institutions. A number talked about getting published (5, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18) with particularly reference by respondent 17 and 18 to highly ranked journals. Interestingly respondent 5 was proud that he had been able to get published in both academic and trade journals noting “so I wrote the journal articles but I also wrote non-technical versions and I published them in trade journals so they were seen beyond the academic community” explaining “they are more likely to be read”. The idea that someone was going to read what you had written was particularly satisfying. Respondents 17 and 18 touched on the notion of being cited by other academics as an achievement thinking “you’ve made it” (17) and “it’s quite a feeling when you think someone has read your stuff and used it”.

Further thoughts on achievements in research included reflections on “moving into a research-intensive university” (9) and “retaining a research active approach” (12) despite being at a more teaching orientated institution (former College of HE). Respondent 8 was proud of the fact that she had brought in “massive funding” for research into her area (and institution). This meant that she had started to supervise Research Assistants as part of the project.

A significantly important aspect of achievement related to students and teaching, with several the respondents noting students’ success as things they saw as achievements. It was not always related to degree success, as noted by respondent 11 who identified “Student success, both qualifications and career. It is particularly satisfying when they are the ones you know you have supported”,

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while respondent 7 discussed “getting student into a good career (Asda House) and them getting good degrees”. In comparison respondent 1 discussed a student he had helped sort a placement for. This student had done well and was offered a job with the company on completion of his degree. He was now working for them in Germany. He had recently received an email from the student thanking him. This sort of stuff makes you feel “really proud”.

Respondent 4 merely talked about “seeing students flourish” as the main thing. In line with this respondent 1 suggested that it was not “just about the endpoint, it was an ongoing process of seeing the students develop. You get a good feeling seeing students worked with on a 1:1 basis, achieve well and produce some really good work e.g. dissertation students. It is really good seeing students engage in the subject and do extra reading etc and then contribute these ideas in class. It makes you feel that you are having an impact”. Respondent 10 had been particularly “proud of working with international students and helping them develop”. She suggested seeing “their achievement was more satisfying in many ways than the UK students who had not had to deal with culture shock and other demands”. This follows through when you get positive feedback regarding your teaching (5, 12, 13) from students and even more so when you get “personally thanked by them and they recognise you for your efforts” (14). Most academics are committed to the teaching aspect of their role and therefore key for some is being acknowledged for “excellent and innovative teaching and for the creation of resources” (6) of resources by students and colleagues. As a particular point of reference respondent 4 identified “having helped a student get a piece of research published” (their dissertation) as an achievement. Perhaps signifying that research is at the core even when teaching prioritises what you do.

There were other aspects of achievement identified by the respondents which did not necessarily fit into the research or teaching categories and may be considered as administration of most notably service. Respondent 10 discussed having “worked with colleagues to develop a more critical pedagogy for delivery of master’s level provision”, while respondent 2 talked about having “set up the Master’s dissertation as distinctive from what was being delivered at undergraduate level”. In fact, respondent 2 was involved in a lot of service activity
and recently had been involved in “setting up the new programmes and establishing the new ‘business’ team” at his institution. There was a “significant change in staffing and the current team was only really 18 months old”. He was really the senior (length of time in academia) member of the team and felt he was mentoring many of them. He was also “trying to develop and embed a research culture within the Business department and had been responsible for setting up a research group and the research conference”. This is what he believes he was primarily recruited for. Previously he had set up a collaborative DBA between the University of Birmingham and University College Birmingham (UCB). He had got 40% of UCB staff working towards a DBA. He had also delivered a college conference based on research at UCB for 6 years running. Respondent 4 was also proud of having designed programmes and modules. Some of these had been developed directly for employers, which he suggested were more difficult to satisfy and more challenging in terms of expectations. He noted one programme was cited in House of Commons for good Employer Engagement.

5.11 Discretionary Effort
Discretionary effort was not necessarily a term that was directly recognised by all the respondents, with many reflecting it as part of the role (2). Respondent 3 identifies that the University and the Business School “relies on the extra effort that is put in, and that realistically the ‘place’ wouldn’t function without it”. Respondent 10 suggests it is difficult to recognise the concept of discretionary effort as “you have a passion for what you do”, while respondent 11 just sees it as “part of academic role”, noting that “the hours that you are allocated are not a perfect match”. They are often, notional and you just want to “do the best you can” (10) which “often means doing additional hours” (14) notably “evenings and weekends” (4). Respondent 3 commented on answering emails in the middle of the night as “during the daytime so much is going on”. Respondent 3 also mentioned “the tight marking turnaround deadlines which meant that often marking needed to be done outside of the normal working hours”.

Respondent 12 recognises the need to put in this discretionary effort daily. According to respondent 4 this is caused by “intensity of the work, such as the volume of emails which takes you away from what you want to do but you still
need to do it. So, you end up having to catch up with activities such as teaching preparation or aspects of administration at the weekend”. He suggests that this happens “because you want to do your best and worry about failing, not because of a culture of fear but a feeling of deficit. That you are not coping, or you are failing due to the volume of work and wanting to do your best for students”. A key aspect of where staff believed discretionary effort was evident was related to supporting the students. Most respondents commented on discretionary effort, when pushed, in things they did related to students. Several the respondents (3, 11) mentioned being available for students, while others (1, 5, 13) talked about working with and supporting students, and respondent 12 referred to accommodating students. Respondent 11 talked about “helping students even when he had been given time away from teaching to concentrate writing up his PhD”. Respondent 1 explained that academics do this because “they think that it is important for the students to help them achieve their best”, while respondent 7 said he could have “listed lots of examples of going the extra mile for students”. Respondent 13 noted that “you may have office hours and do workshops, but you end up providing support outside of these times for the benefit of students”.

Respondent 5 recognises this in the context of “needing to help students and the need to get support systems in place”. As particular examples, respondent 9 talked about the additional activities she had been doing in China. She noted “setting up clubs and groups to give students a high-quality experience”. She hadn’t really considered it as discretionary effort but rather attempting to “do the job to the best of her ability and for the good of the students. If that means doing extra, that’s the job”. Similar to this, respondent 1 talked about taking students on an international trip to enhance the experience of the programme and also to build effective relationships. A key aspect that respondent 2 noted was getting professional bodies and speakers involved to enhance the teaching. Also, the inclusion of extra-curricular activities but noted “it’s all part of the job”.

Several respondents’ comments related to research suggesting that although doing research was part of the role there was not “enough time to do research during normal working hours and as such you end up doing it in your own time” (13). This was particularly relevant for “staff who were undertaking their doctorate” (4). It was also noted that much of the broader aspects of being research active
such as “reviewing for journals and conferences” (16). Respondent 2 also
discussed “helping a colleague with statistics” for their Doctoral studies. They did
not really deem this as discretionary more just helping a colleague. There were
many examples of this helping a colleague or colleagues. Respondent 6 talked
about “helping colleagues with events” and also helping out with “additional
marking” to help with colleagues’ workloads. She emphasised that they were a
small team, and “they all muck in”. Respondent 11 also noted that in their
institution they were also “willing to share the load”. A key similarity between 6
and 11 was both work at but different former Colleges of HE. Respondent 7
(similarly former College of HE) was also happy to help colleagues in the team and
the odd person across the institution but recognised that there was a difference
between “inside and outside the department”. Similarly, respondent 6 shared this
view. Respondent 11 highlighted they helped a colleague “prepare for a
colleague who had never done one before”, while respondent 1 also talked about
mentoring and supporting new staff. There was also an attitude within that
suggested his colleagues would do the same for me. Respondent 5 suggested
that “a large element of writing” for publication involves discretionary effort. He
notes research is a significant part of the role however “much personal time is
spent writing articles and trying to get papers published”. While arguably writing
for academic journals is expected, he noted that he was writing for several non-
technical (trade) journals which do not necessarily have the same standing within
his organisation. He makes the point though that these could be of significance
when it comes to REF and impact.

A key element where some aspect of discretionary effort was visible was in
support for recruiting students. With open days and applicant days (often at
weekends) where respondent 2 noted “we all take our share, no rota just
voluntary”, while respondent 7 noted he was “happy to do interviews, open days,
inductions etc”.

Respondent 2 discussed the work involved in trying to develop the research
culture in his former institution (UCB) which had very much a FE Culture. He is
now trying to do the same, at his current institution but there are not the same
barriers. He is therefore not fighting the system, so things are a lot more straight
forward. He notes the extra work but that it does not feel like it. He does not see it as extra work and not seen as discretionary effort more a case of just the job.

Respondent 10 suggests there is a need to “demark between personal and professional”. This balance needs to consider what your primary role is. Respondent 8 pointed that they were willing to move around to conduct their research. They went from the UK to China and back to Europe etc and then back. During this time, they hardly saw their son. Respondent 10 asks the question around who is it for? Alternatively, respondent 12 talked about going abroad to teach at very short notice, which caused some disruption to her personal life. Of all the respondents only respondent 3 suggested that “her approach to discretionary effort had declined”. She discussed that due to workload etc while on secondment she had had to withdraw from her PhD as she was working virtually 24 hours per day every day including Saturdays and Sundays to get the course off the ground. She stated, “It was ridiculous, the number of hours worked” and “something had to give”. At the same time, she saw others taking a “that’s not my job” approach. This “wasn’t” her style. She has been trying to restart her PhD but keeps (twice) getting turned down for funding. She is probably doing less now and taking a more sceptical approach to what she does and what she chooses to get involved in. She is far more cautious. In a similar vein respondent 7 says he resists (uses the word refuses) to get involved in any committees.

The majority of the respondents (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13) claimed to have undertaken this discretionary effort for the benefit of the students, with respondent 11 noting that this had been “influenced by their background and the support they had received”. Comparable to being for the benefit of students many of the respondents (1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14) also recognised supporting colleagues as another reason for putting in the extra effort, although respondent 1 recognised that “supporting colleagues was often for the good of the students”. In particular “being collegial” (11) was seen as being “a big part of the role of being an academic, supporting each other and the team” (12). Respondent 14 suggested that “90% of the time, discretionary effort is for others”. Interestingly respondent 4 suggested that he “avoided doing things at the weekend that he would class as discretionary for others”. Several respondents identified self as a
key reason for the discretionary effort. Both respondents 4 and 10 referred to “professionalism”, while respondent 5 identified “self-promotion” as a key factor. He suggested it is “key to getting on and much of what you do is to benefit your career”, or as respondent 12 put it … “CV enhancement”. Respondent 14 however is critical of some who “career chase” noting that you need to “be careful seeking promotion if you don’t have the experience”, he had learned this personally. Respondent 10 identifies that being “an academic and having passion” for what you do, helps you to “feel good” or feel somehow “you are contributing for the good of the world”. “Being an academic is what you are so you like doing academic work”. Interestingly, respondent 14 states that “teaching and administration is for someone else and you don’t see the benefits, therefore you are less likely to put discretionary effort in”, while respondent 13 suggests that putting in discretionary effort “for students to get better satisfaction scores is for yourself”. Only respondents 4 and 5 recognised that some discretionary effort is undertaken for the benefit of the institution, with respondent 5 recognising the importance of REF.

5.12 Chapter Conclusion
To summarise the chapter, academics or at least academic institutions are a collection of individuals with a sense of collegiality and on the whole common goals. For much of that the common goal is the student. Despite working at three different types of institution this was not a particularly distinctive factor and there was a range of commonality among academics, although there were elements of different interpretations which could be considered, in terms of their own expectations and the expectations of them. What was evident is the individual nature of academics both in terms of background and the baggage they brought with them (which did have some impact), perception of the role and their view of their career and what they wanted. Respondents were generally satisfied with their workplace and felt they fitted with it, although they did feel some changes would make it more in line with what they wanted, while some perhaps saw their institution as a stepping-stone to another. Some did feel that the changes taking place made less of a fit for them.
A key theme that ran through the interviews centred around students. Student experience, student achievement success, student support were recurring comments throughout the interviews usually associated with positive comments. At the same time student expectations, student recruitment and student demands were perhaps negatively aligned comments. It would be safe however to say that most of the staff were ‘in it’ for the students. Overall they saw teaching, learning and assessment and student support as a key aspect of their job. There was a suggestion by some that although teaching was a key element of what they do, perhaps they would like to do a little less to enable themselves to be better prepared, whether that be to make their teaching more research informed or to consider pedagogical improvements.

A second key theme centred on research, which again continually recurred in comments. Similar to teaching, all recognised the importance of research in their role with staff at the pre1992 institutions feeling the most pressure from it. The academics at these institutions were positive about the research culture at their institutions but suggested that the REF had added a layer of pressure to achieve high level outputs. There was recognition by academics at the post 1992 institutions that there had been a shift and research was now a significant agenda at their institutions, with some hoping to challenge their more illustrious competitors. A key aspect of this was support systems and time with suggestions that while the post 1992 institutions wanted to develop a research culture but did not have the resources or the capacity to do it. This was particularly evident in the former Colleges of Higher Education where perhaps financial constraints were tighter still. There was some feeling that attempting to attract more research-orientated staff was perhaps to the detriment of teaching ability (and the desire to teach) which long term would have a negative effect on teaching quality and the student experience. It was particularly noted that ‘career’ academics were not able to bring practical experience into the classroom in the same way as ‘2nd career’ academics can.

The institution and institutional factors also featured regularly. Academics were able to identify with the focus of their institution in the context of research or teaching, although many recognised the contradictions and conflict within them,
however very few were able to recognise other distinguishing features such as membership of particular groups. The pre1992 were most able to describe their institutions in the Russell Group category while others from the post1992 institutions did not seemingly recognise the terms. They did however generally discuss size of the institution and it was evident that the former colleges of HE where significantly smaller in size than the pre1992 and former polytechnics. Identity and status seemed to be an issue for the post1992 institution. In a homogenous sector there was concern about how they were trying to stand out from the crowd. Whereas the Russell Group’s ‘Top Universities’ status sold them, it was difficult to see how the post1992 could create this identity. Interestingly, the ethos of the institution played a big part for staff describing the former Colleges of HE and in particular made reference to its teacher training and religious background. Certainly, the Catholic background of two of the former colleges was having a significant influence on the approach taken by the institution.

Alongside, institutional factors there was some consideration of the nature of managerialism. Although managerialism is used in a generic manner to consider the attempts to impose greater control, reduce academic freedom and autonomy and provide greater consistency, which some considered not to be required. There was general feeling that there remained a high level of autonomy particularly concerning teaching and research activity, and even in the way administration was done. There is however an increase in expectations (perceived as related to quality) of level of quality both in terms of teaching (student satisfaction, grades etc) and research (volume and quality of outputs). There also seems to be an increasing monitoring of activity in some institutions and certainly a more rigorous and challenging approach to PDRs. There is perhaps some evidence (apart from research outputs) to say this is more prevalent in post 1992 institutions.

Discretionary effort is an interesting concept within the world of academia, with very few initially recognising this notion. All academics were able to provide examples of putting in extra effort when pushed but initial thoughts centred around just doing what was needed to be done. There was a feeling that in terms of expectation of the role academics were expecting to be doing all sorts of additional
work in their spare time to get the job done. They particularly associated discretionary effort with teaching preparation, student support and research and with working evenings and weekends. Supporting students to achieve well, enjoy the subject and develop the necessary skills were deemed the most common activities, while administration related activities were mostly avoided where possible. In general, however the terms of the role were generally accepted. More experienced (those that had been in academia longer) were often more resistant to the extra hours needed to be put in. They also seemed to be more aware of the increase in managerialism.
Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Discussion

The debate remains as to whether the psychological contract is idiosyncratic (Rousseau, 1990) or mutual (Guest, 2004). The findings would seem to suggest that in general, for the academic world at least, it is largely idiosyncratic. Responses across the eighteen respondents would suggest that they all have nuances in how they see their role, their employer (the University) and what they expect. There are of course some and perhaps significant similarities between them and the importance they place on aspects of the role and what is important, however within these there is no definitive response that they may be collectively aligned. The findings support the notion of the psychological contract providing a mental model (Coyne and Gavin 2013) for employees of how they see their relationship with their employers, and how they respond to work activities (Kasekende et al, 2015).

Initial thoughts suggest that there may be considered three types of behaviours related to how academics perceive their workload and additional work (Table 6.1). There is acceptance of what is seen as ‘within role’ and it is easier to identify where academics see ‘extra-role’ activities, however several activities exist within a grey area. Much of the issues relate not necessarily to what the activity is, but when it takes place, with evening and weekend working mentioned regularly. Often, perception of the work being ‘extra’ or involving ‘discretionary effort’ is a matter of an individual’s perception and there are no clearly defined aspects.

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<th>Within Role</th>
<th>Grey Area</th>
<th>Extra-role</th>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>‘Service’ related administration</td>
<td>Outreach – weekend work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching preparation</td>
<td>Outreach – during work time</td>
<td>Student Recruitment – weekend work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Student Recruitment (during working time)</td>
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<td>Writing for Publication</td>
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<td>Teaching-related</td>
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6.2 Aspects of the Role

One element in this agreement is the importance that academic staff place on students, who they see as the key stakeholder within the University. In particular, they recognise in general the importance of teaching, student support and student outcomes within theirs and the universities expectations. However, the level of importance and rationale behind this may differ somewhat. Academics were very much influenced by the desire to do their best for the students identifying with the notion that the students’ success was also their success, which they interpreted as both academic achievement and employability. Notably there was more emphasis on employability as a measure of success amongst the post 1992 academics rather than the pre 1992 academics although this was not a significant issue that would carry any weight. While this notion of student success may be considered mutual i.e. what the university would also want/expect, it is the level and nature of it that differs. For the academics it was a very individual experience about helping
students, whereas there seemed to be an undercurrent belief that for the University it was about numbers. How many were in graduate level jobs, how many got good degrees (1st and 2:1), how many were satisfied (providing good NSS feedback). It was all about gaining good university status, not about the individual. This it may be suggested is coupled with increasing student numbers, broadening, and widening participation and intake and bringing in more challenging students. This some suggested was also aligned with setting students’ expectations too high and perhaps making promises that cannot or could not be kept, to bring more and more students in. There was then an attempt to increase the awareness and impact of the student voice which was often supported by unrealistic expectations which the University wanted and expected staff to comply with. It was apparent from several of the discussions that the academics felt that putting in extra effort and the hours (discretionary effort) to support students was an acceptable feature of the role, however there was a feeling that this could impinge on evenings and weekends. In a sense a feature of this, may have resulted in the need to do non-student facing work and emails in evenings and weekends.

A further aspect whereby there could also be contrast between idiosyncratic or mutual centres around the notion of research. Again, it may be argued that at University level research is about funding, outputs, and the REF, for academics it is about subject interest, prestige and promotion or career advancement. It may be argued that many would see these as happy bedfellows and perhaps suggest coherence, and there is much to suggest that these do go hand in hand, there is an underpinning issue behind why academics are doing research and whether they feel the expectations of them is correct. The evidence suggests most academics feel they undertake their research in their own time, although, there is greater acknowledgement of ‘having time’ among the pre 1992 universities. That said there is an acceptance that research is considered a ‘labour of love’ and ‘what academics are about’. While there would be considered a high level of discretionary effort, there is acceptance that this is part of the role, however, there remains a feeling that research time is being squeezed and as such being pushed more into ‘personal’ and ‘choice’ time rather than the time being available in the working day.
Having considered the idiosyncratic nature of the psychological contract, there needs to be consideration of how it fits with various models of the psychological contract. The psychological contract for academics remains as being relational, however that relational nature may have declined or at least be dissipated across the university. All respondents generally felt a commitment to their team (school or department) however some did not always feel the same level of commitment to the broader University, while some suggested that they felt commitment to some aspects or individuals within the broader university but not with others. Again, perhaps linking back to this individualised nature of the psychological contract.

A term that was implied several times was “pracademic” (practical academic), which a number of the respondents saw themselves as. Bringing their experience into the academic world and offering opportunities to support student development. This becomes a fundamental aspect to the formation of their psychological contract (Conway and Briner, 2005; Rousseau and Parks, 1993; Sherman and Morley, 2015). This concept comes from an individual’s belief and perception of the role and what they are bringing to the institution and why they had come into academia. Perception of the role is a crucial aspect within psychological contract development. In line with Gammie’s (2006) three job perceptions there is evidence to suggest that there is an element of this in all the academics interviewed. Least obvious however was the calling orientation and although several of the respondents talked about the notion of giving something back there was no real reflection on that within the context of it being socially useful work. Instead, there was significant reference to what may be considered as job orientation and career orientation. An aspect to consider here however is this contradiction of reward and advancement which is what separates the two perceptions. Within academia the notion of reward and advance may be inextricably linked, and both potentially link to research. Of course, research (publication) is not the only form of reward there is the case of remuneration and the salary that comes with career progression., however publications and associated research activities link to both reward and advancement.

Research was a significant recurring theme within all the interviews, with all respondents commenting on research within their institutions whether this was
from a positive or negative perception. In one sense, a common feeling of negativity around research come from within the shifting sands of university life and was to be found solely in the post 1992 universities. This common feeling can be summed up in the amalgamation of two words – “time and support”. Post 1992 universities to a greater or lesser extent are placing a greater emphasis on research. Research potentially brings status, finance, and higher rankings. Significantly within Business Schools it also brings Business Engagement and potentially impact. Arguably it can also bring opportunities for students (and staff) and hence support teaching and learning. However, most post 1992 universities rely on teaching for their primary source of income, therefore to be efficient and to provide students with the experience they promote. They need to spend most of their income on teaching and learning, which means they cannot invest in time and support to the extent to which they would perhaps like. This means that while they are growing to expect research outputs, they are not able to provide the time (reduction in teaching and reduction in administration) that would benefit staff nor the support systems that perhaps are apparent in pre 1992 institutions who usually have a significant proportion of their income come from research. In many ways this becomes a vicious circle and results in a conflict within university circles.

Alongside this to attempt to facilitate this change in culture and potentially bring in greater research post 1992 institutions have changed their recruitment strategies to target candidates with doctoral qualifications. Usually these would often be considered as “early career researchers” and perhaps may be seen as a “grow your own” strategy following the ideas of Miles and Snow (1980). While this potentially would be seen as a good approach to the long-term strategy it is potentially open to two pitfalls. Firstly, there is some criticism and perhaps resentment which is evident amongst some of the respondents who are critical of the lack of business experience of some of these new colleagues. They suggest that this lack of “real” experience is to the detriment of the student and leads to poorer quality teaching and learning. The suggestion is that as Business is an applied subject, academic staff should be able to pass on their experience. Supporters of this suggest that not only does this allow the students to learn in a more practical way, but it also leads to them being more engaged and perhaps
more employable in the future. Although there is no evidence to support this, it leads to a level of discontentment amongst established staff.

The second pitfall that potentially arises comes out of the lack of ability of the university to fulfil the expectations (psychological contract) of these new employees who see themselves as early career researchers and are expecting to have a “balanced” workload that will be able to undertake research and progress in their career. In doing this they are potentially setting false expectations which could lead to discontent at an early stage of the employment relationship. This perhaps gives credence to the reflection on academics wanting to do less teaching and more research as it fits with their expectation and comes with what they were employed to do and perhaps reflects a prospective career trajectory. In considering these notions of career trajectory it is worth reflecting on the background of the academics who had undertaken their doctorate at pre 1992 universities were more likely to have been research driven believing that they should be undertaking research to a greater respect and that it was perhaps a failing of their university. Perhaps this conditioning of individuals plays a more significant part in how they see their role as compared to those who undertook their doctoral studies in a post 1992 institution who perhaps have a greater assimilation with the teaching expectations of the type of university, they were in. This is not to suggest that academics with doctorates from pre 1992 institutions were not either content or in alignment with their universities but that if there is no movement on either side it could lead to perhaps a breach of the psychological contract (Jonsson and Thorgen, 2017), which results in them moving to an alternative university where they feel their expectations can be readily met. This contrasts with Tipples and Krivokapic-Skoko (1997, cited in O’Neill et al, 2010) who suggested the work environment as being a crucial factor, and perhaps rejects the notion of the academic psychological contract as identifying differently with differing institutions. Two of the respondents from pre 1992 institutions had commented how they had aspired to working at these (pre1992) institutions, perhaps suggesting that there is a desire to work at more prestigious institutions. However, is this any different to any other sector or any other professionals who may wish to work at a more prestigious organisation within their sector (lawyers, accountants etc).
This is not to suggest that post 1992 institutions are not attempting to provide support for changing and developing a research culture. There was significant evidence that at one of the colleges of H.E. there seemed to be a serious attempt at investing. One of the respondents clearly identified that he believed he had been brought in to develop this culture and provide a shift. He had designed a Research Conference for Business which had been successful. This conference had not only involved papers from his own colleagues but had brought in papers from industry (practitioners) and from other local universities. A crucial aspect that he saw within his role was not to publish himself (he had a track record but was now in the twilight of his career) but rather support and mentor colleagues to allow them to become more research active. At the same institution, his colleague talked about how the university had built a relationship with another university to develop a doctoral programme to support several staff undertaking their doctorate, which he suggests was particularly useful due to the inter-disciplinary nature of what was being done. This does not negate the whole issue of time and support however it does suggest that universities are perhaps aware of the contradictions within their long-term goals and perhaps are trying to provide support and time where budgets allow. This investment in staff suggests a move by many of the post 1992 to adopt a ‘make’ strategy (Miles and Snow, 1980) and building people (Rousseau and Schalk, 2000).

6.3 Identification with the organisation
Alongside this all staff seemed to identify well with their institution, recognising the type of institution they were at and certainly suggesting what they were doing and how they approached it were congruent. This perhaps relates to Graham’s (2016) suggestion that organisations provide a vehicle for the academics to do what they want to do, which on an individual basis will often relate to either teaching or research (or a combination of the two). There was perhaps a degree of higher expectation of what they should be doing which often was most evident in the post 1992 universities and linked to research. This perhaps was an overflow of how academics saw their role and what their expectations were, but perhaps contrasts with Baruch and Hall (2004) who suggested clear differentiation between those who work at pre 1992 and post 1992 institutions. Virtually all identified with the three fundamental aspects of the role, notably research, teaching and
administration as and there was some acknowledgement of the notion of a 40:40:20 split. There remain nuances between the different types of universities and how they are supported with some suggests only “lip-service” may be paid to research and there is too much administration (not related to teaching). There was also a feel by some that they would like to see less teaching to allow them to better concentrate more on research or to allow them to better concentrate on a smaller amount of teaching and improve it. The role of teaching, research, and administration shall be considered in more detail later in the chapter.

Although there is little focus on breach and violation within the context of this research, the concepts did naturally occur within the interviews. Two respondents (3 and 7) referred to discontent without referring to the terms directly but as such showed signs of a reduction in their commitment levels and perhaps therefore a shift in their relational contract. Not that it had ever moved to being transactional but certainly that their approach was more considered. Respondent 3 felt that the university had a desire for academic staff to have a doctorate but had been turned down for funding. There was probably acceptance that this may have been because she had previously withdrawn from doctoral studies, however, she argued that this had been due to the workload she had taken on for the university and her commitment that she had shown to the job. There was a feeling that she was not being supported and this was having a negative impact on her relationship, to the point that she was not only considering leaving the university but the sector completely. This suggested that breach (Tookey, 2013) of the psychological contract had occurred and even to the extent that it may be considered violation (Tookey, 2013). Although, breach and violation may have occurred with both respondents and there may have been a reduction in motivation (Rodwell et al, 2015) this was not a general reduction, but a reduction in commitment / motivation for certain aspects of the role. This may be a critical point in the dynamics of the academic role and the commitment to certain aspects of what they see as the important and most relevant aspects of the job. Generally, as seen, academics see teaching and research (in different balances) as the primary roles and are what they enter the academy for. The removal or reduction often manifests with what is perceived as non-academic work. As such they are less likely to engage in discretionary effort (Salicru and Chelliah, 2014). So
instead of perhaps recognising a breach and violation situation in which it may be expected that the employee (the academic) may withdraw their labour (and in particular the discretionary level) the complexity of the academic role merely provides a ‘denting’ of the psychological contract rather than a break. This mirrors Bathmaker’s (1989) notion of academics being ‘Janus-faced’ and their link to research and teaching. As such academics continue to undertake the role but may be more choosy on the extra effort aspect.

Respondent 7 while different to respondent 3 has a no less important change in his relationship with the university. He had come into the University to teach, and to make use of his professional knowledge and expertise in the classroom. He was now observing a shift in the emphasis of the university and a change in the culture with an increasing reference to research (which is not high on his agenda) and an increase in the administration that he is expected to do. This he suggests is not what he came in to do. Positively to this extent he has managed to show some resistance to this and maintain his focus on teaching. Both respondents 3 and 7 may feel their psychological contract has been breached in that the organisation has failed to meet their obligations as they see them and violated as it has affected them in an emotional and effective manner. This certainly fits with Tookey’s (2013) viewpoint. However, both continue to fulfil their role as they see it, putting in high levels of effort for what they see as important and doing extra work as they see fit, so perhaps the psychological contract is more dented. Respondent 3, however, does discuss leaving the organisation (and the role), so perhaps more damage has been done but she remains committed to the teaching and her students which may create some contradiction.

The academic staff interviewed all seemed to have a traditional (Guest and Conway, 2004) psychological contract, although perhaps there was also some attachment to an independent contract. There certainly did not appear to be evidence of disengagement. There was evidence to suggest that academics are fully committed to the role and work long hours, and although there is some suggestion that some academics aspire to certain types of university and perhaps use their current university or have used previous institutions as stepping-stones, there is an underpinning suggestion of long tenure, whatever long tenure in the
modern era may mean. Perhaps this is where there is some overlap with the independent contract. Significantly, this associates with well qualified people which academics notably are, short tenure and high rewards. While Guest and Conway (2004) perhaps were suggesting high rewards in terms of remuneration, often the high rewards that most academics pursue relate to status and time (usually to do research) and are not necessarily chasing personal financial reward, although accepting pulling in grant funding is a particularly attractive deal, as highlighted by respondent 8.

A significant theme in the findings related to how the psychological contract was formed based on how they came into academia, where they were from (career-wise) and how they saw academia. In general, it would be possible to split the respondents into two categories. O’Donohue et al (2017) suggests that many academics are influenced by personal ideology and social conscience which determines individual’s consideration of their role and the role of education. Career academics and second-career academics. This may be a particular and fundamental aspect of Business Schools and may not be as apparent in other discipline areas. Career academics can be categorised for the purpose of this as academics who have followed an academic career trajectory with little (if any) true engagement with the outside business environment. This is not to say that they have not worked in the business environment but that they have not done so significantly (perhaps time or role). These academics will have generally left school/college, gone to university (undergraduate studies) and progressed onto doctoral level studies (sometimes via a Masters’ degree) and then into a lecturing position. Second-career academics on the other hand will have had a career (usually in business) before entering academia. Normally they will have worked for a significant period in this previous career before choosing for a variety of reasons to move into academia. There was perhaps some evidence to suggest that second-career academics were more teaching and employability focussed than the career academics who were more on academic success from students (teaching) and research. This was not necessarily a direct rule of thumb, however only two out of the six respondents from the pre 1992 universities would be deemed in the second-career academic category, whereas ten of the twelve post
1992 academics would, and this notably fitted with the relationship between employability and academic success.

A further key aspect that may have had some influence was academic background, where they had undertaken their highest level of study, most notably amongst those with doctorates. Respondents who had undertaken doctorates at pre 1992 were likely to be more research orientated than those who had undertaken doctorates at post 1992 institutions. This was not necessarily in relation to how they saw the role at that time but was certainly evident in their perception of “the way it should be” and their expectation perhaps for the future. These views did not necessarily concur with the institution they were working at and perhaps brought some contradictions with them. This included the suggestion from one respondent who suggested that being more research focussed would bring with it, better quality students, suggesting research profile and student recruitment were linked.

A further aspect which was evident was the differences in cultural background. Several the respondents were from outside the UK. This it was suggested also impacted on how they saw the role, and particularly the status of the role, and as such how they committed to it. Significantly the academics who were born outside the UK predominantly seemed to be more research orientated than those from the UK, however that said they were all predominantly teaching focussed. A recurring comment however was “I would like more time to do research”. Within this of the three academics who referred to international students (all were born in the UK) two made negative comments about the quality of the students, while one was particularly proud of the work, she had done with them.

A key fitting with this however was how respondents were taking on positions of responsibility within their schools and departments. Six of the respondents were describing themselves as course leaders, while one had the role of Enterprise Coordinator, one Research Lead and one was currently a Deputy Head. Alongside this two of the respondents who did not specifically identify with a current position of responsibility, had had significant responsibilities at previous institutions. Perhaps justifying and supporting Gammie’s (2006) findings. Again, however there
is little to suggest that this was either job or career orientated. To further this, it
may be worth considering why these people had taken on these responsibilities
and within this we need to consider the two potential routes related to career
progression which may be described as the managerial route. This may be further
considered in the context of the type of institution and how they may reflect on
academic leadership as a role within the institution. It seems that the pre 1992
institutions have managed to avoid managerialist procedures to a greater extent
than their post 1992 counterparts.

It may be argued that different universities have different goals and/or missions
and as such there would-be distinctions between the staff recruited at these
institutions and as such would have different perceptions of what they should be
doing. Contrary to this, there was no clear distinction between the academics
based on where they worked, as suggested by Tallman (2008). There was a clear
appreciation of the significance of teaching within their role regardless of where
they worked. There was some reflection that they perhaps felt they would benefit
from a reduction in their teaching load; however this was predominantly put
forward by those working in a former polytechnic rather than academics working in
a pre- 1992 university. Couple with this there was similar comment from two of the
six former College of H.E. academics. It would seem therefore that perhaps
excessive teaching loads are more prevalent in the post 1992 universities, as
there was little if any comment by pre 1992 academics. This may be because they
are either doing less teaching already, and to a level they are happy with or as
was pointed out by two of the pre 1992 lecturers the academic year is structured in
such a way that they tend to have a heavier and a lighter semester split so in the
lighter one there is more time for other activities such as research.

An alternative reason for this may be the introduction of different types of contracts
that have come into existence in the pre- 1992 university sector. Certainly, at two
of the pre 1992 universities there was evidence of what Gammie (2006) described
as “Teaching Only” contracts. While there was no evidence of teaching only
contracts there was evidence of roles which were more teaching orientated
described as Lecturer (Teaching and Scholarship) as opposed to Lecturer
(Teaching and Research) which distinguishes between the primary roles and
expectations. In essence however in both roles, academics are expected to teach and research, but it is the extent of this which may be the difference. This would fit for the same consideration of the formation of the psychological contract formation (Rousseau, 2018) and the expectations of the role. This amended title creates a greater clarity of the expectations, and perhaps draws a closer relationship to the concept of mutuality identified by Del Campo (2007), perhaps considering an element of reciprocity. Within the teaching and scholarship strand, it would seem that teaching would be a higher workload and the demands to conduct research and churn out publications would be less excessive. For a teaching and research contract there would be less expectation for the teaching load, but a more extreme expectation to publish, and to publish in higher ranking journals. This would couple with higher expectations for the REF which potentially does not necessarily equate with journal rankings, which creates a further level of angst. This contrasts with the ideas of Macfarlane (2011) and dismisses the notion of the ‘para-academic’ which suggests a binary role (teaching or research), which does not seem to be the case among lecturing staff in the broader context of research as scholarship.

6.4 The rise of managerialism

Throughout the interviews, responses suggested that there had been a significant increase in managerialism over the years, which had been identified by several the commentators (Bathmaker, 1989; Gammie, 2006; Vardi, 2009). Even among staff who were perhaps newer to the profession there was suggestion that they felt the pressures of control from centralised systems and management/administrative functions, which sought to regulate activity. Overall, there was a feeling that autonomy still existed, particularly when it came to teaching and what was taught, perhaps recognition of academic expertise. With, Pesqueux (2012) suggesting this was fundamental to the academic mindset. However, even within this basic function of the role there were pressures to ensure good grades, student satisfaction and even pressure to provide an on-demand support service regardless of student prior engagement. While no respondents were necessarily resistant to any of these, they all wanted students to succeed and enjoy the module/course, and on the whole provide the necessary support there was an under-current of feeling that there was adverse pressure of removing the responsibility for this from students and transferring it to being the academics
responsibility. It did not matter how much effort or work the student put in you would be expected to achieve the necessary results. At the same time there was a suggestion that the student voice was becoming an increasing tool of fear. Although staff welcomed student feedback there was a feeling that universities were adopting a “the student (customer) is always right” and that academics must jump to meet their every whim for fear of poor feedback, complaints and most fundamental of all, poor NSS scores. For some academics this was creating a feeling of being powerless. It seemed that there was a feeling that students had a growing feeling of entitlement perhaps as paying customers which was contradictory to previous generations of students. This some suggested was commensurate with the growing marketisation (Bryson, 2004; Mercer, 2009) of Higher Education and Universities making promises and setting expectations which is difficult if not impossible to keep, particularly under the current financial constraints they operate in.

The classroom, or rather the teaching environment was not the only place where academics were feeling managerialist approaches were encroaching on them. Several the respondents reflected on the PDR process, the rise in administrative tasks, in particular email traffic and increased use of micro-engagement all contributed to this feeling of imposed control. It was felt that across several institutions the PDR process was increasingly rigorous with higher objectives which were more challenging and which you were held more accountable for achieving. While there was no necessary issue with this there was some feeling that perhaps the objectives were a little out of your control or there was a need for support to achieve them, which may not be available. Similarly, there was awareness of an increasing administrative burden that staff were being asked to undertake that was not necessarily related to teaching. Often these related to external reporting or external pressures which detracted from academic work. Coupled with this was the notion of micro-management with examples of managers checking who was in (sat at their desk) and who was not, with no recognition of the fact that academic work is not solely constrained to the desk and the classroom. Academics may be involved in being out in the field (visiting businesses or doing research) or may be meeting with student, groups or on trips (increasing the student experience) or they may be simply in the library.
Underpinning this was perhaps the notion that if you are working from home, you are not, thus suggesting a distrust between managers and staff. This certainly underpins a feeling of a lack of academic freedom and links to the suggestion in the reduction in trust of academics as autonomous professionals.

The research also raised that increased managerialism and was most evident in the pre-1992 institutions. Although elements of pressure related to research occasionally reared in post 1992 this appeared to be ad hoc and sporadic. Pressure existed but not in abundance. In pre 1992 Universities, however there seemed to be a growing level of pressure and managerialism related to research in the face of research outputs predominantly measured by publications and research funding. At the centre of this appears to be the REF which for many is seen as being used as a stick, with stories of staff being put under pressure to publish certain amounts of work in the more prestigious higher ranked journals. Sometimes this linked to job threats or at least contract changes. Previously staff felt there was more freedom of where and how to publish and what to publish. There seemed a choice and often academics reflected on audience as a source of publication. This created added pressures due to timelines in publication but also the skewed ranking system which seemed to favour quantitative research journals and also did not necessarily cover some subject disciplines in the high-ranking categories. A seemingly contradiction with this was also that the Journal Ranking and the REF ranking may not necessarily be related. A secondary aspect of this REF pressure is also related to impact. So, it may have been published, and it may have been published in a high ranking, and therefore deemed more prestigious journal but can you demonstrate impact. This adds a new dimension to the pressure.

Some would argue that an outcome of this pressure has been for universities to offer “teaching only contracts” as discussed earlier, however a more visual representation of this may be the increased use of fixed term contracts designed to expire on or before REF submission or REF results. This means that universities can make staffing decisions more easily based on whether they achieve the required outputs initially or more importantly the school/university hits the results. This casualisation of labour suggests a differing approach to staffing
which supported by this approach may be considered a more efficient and business-like approach to running the organisation. This alteration in the commitment by the organisation may transpire to a more transactional psychological contract by the individual academic (Shen, 2010). This can develop over time and may change over time from relational to transactional and back again. In essence, the psychological contract remains a dynamic process (Rousseau et al, 2018) with individuals operating along a continuum in a lived experience (Morrison, 2010). This more business-like approach is evident more in the post 1992 institutions and most prevalent in the smaller former Colleges of HE which tend to be smaller and more cost conscious than their larger counterparts, where staffing costs account for a significant portion of income and have a major impact on the institution's financial stability.

6.5 Discretionary Effort
A crucial aspect and main feature of the research was around discretionary effort, which was evident in all the interviews, but which was not particularly recognised as such. It was evident that all the respondents in the sample did things that would be considered beyond the basic duties and put in the extra hours that may be considered beyond the normal working hours (see table 6.1). According to Kasekende (2017) this approach to work is the manifestation of the psychological contract. Kasekende (2017) proposed model suggests the link with employee engagement as a mediator variable between the psychological contract (exogenous variable) and discretionary effort (endogenous variable). In essence this suggests that the academics need to be engaged for discretionary effort to take place, however it assumes engagement with the organisation whereas perhaps academics show more of an engagement with the role rather than the organisation.

Most of the academics identified research as a key area where discretionary effort (Kasekende, 2017) was applied. Most academics emphasised that their institution was encouraging them to undertake research but were not forthcoming with time. This was not as much of an issue in the pre1992 universities, where more time was provided for research, however respondents recognised additional pressures which meant that there was still a need to put in extra during your own time. Most
identified research being pushed into their own time as the increasing demands around student support and administration ‘ate’ into their working hours. Interestingly an anecdote from a former colleague was “being an academic is not what you do, it is what you are”. As such doing research in your own time is a natural activity as it surrounds your life as an academic. So, although it was evident that all academics who were research active were undertaking research in their own time, it can be perceived as it being more of a natural and willing occurrence. However, those who were not necessarily research active in the pure definition of research as perhaps defined by the REF, were research active in supporting teaching preparation often referred to as scholarship or scholarly activity, felt more aggrieved by the situation. Perhaps linkage is found with Ramdhony and Francis (2014) identification of induced discretionary effort and that ultimately in academia this concept of discretionary effort is actually and has become an expected part of performance (Stone-Romero et al, 2009). As a professional, academics are expected to put in the hours and do the work that they need to do, recognised by most standard contracts. Shen (2010) suggests that this is the norm, and there is no real clarity on the concept of the normal workload, however as Houston et al (2006) suggest that the environment is complex and has become increasingly demanding. This may be seen, as open to interpretation, and with interpretation can come misuse and abuse.

Teaching preparation was something that the academics across the institutions felt they attempted to put extra effort into, however alongside this was the sense of student support. This included such activities of providing additional tutorial support on a small group or 1:1 basis but also supporting them to develop employability skills and opportunities. There was a general acceptance that they were willing to put extra effort in to support students as they saw this as a fundamental aspect of their role, although there was perhaps some resentment to the need to do this for students who were not contributing as much as they should. There was also some resentment to the type and level of students that the university were recruiting. This was more evident in the post 1992 Universities. Recruiting students was also deemed as an activity that academics were happy to do. Often these recruitment activities included weekends, evening and were even perhaps offsite (recruitment fairs and school visits).
The area where there is some resistance and resentment to the additional work centres around what may be considered as non-academic activities, notably administration. Many of the respondents identify the extra hours put in responding to emails and completing administrative tasks. This was often undertaken through a worry or feeling of not coping. A feeling of deficit as identified by respondent 4. This may be associated with the sense of feeling that all academics have, having obviously achieved and progressed at academic levels and for many, professional levels too. The notion of discretionary effort was linked to success and achievement. Either one’s own personal success and achievement or that of their students. Although the success and achievement of the university is not a primary focus of their activities, the academics recognise that there is also an outcome of their own personal or student success and achievement. Personal success and achievement usually come in the form of research and publication, which can lead to recognition and promotion. This will ultimately lead to higher recognition for the university, research grants, and higher REF scores. Similarly, academics recognise success and achievement through the students. This is through achievement of ‘good’ degrees and achieving employment at the end of their course. This again benefits the university in terms of rankings. Alongside this, academics feel a sense of achievement through student satisfaction. This feeling that students are appreciative of staff efforts is a sense of achievement for staff and value feedback and satisfaction scores. This leads to NSS scores which again support university rankings.

This additional work and effort put in by academics leads to questions and issues related to the work-life balance, which was raised by several of the academics. However, as a concept work-life balance becomes vague when reflecting on what it is that is creating the imbalance, and many would suggest that ‘peaks and troughs’ within the academic year are hard to distinguish. The balance of work may be considered self-directed and it is perhaps more aligned to priorities and desires that create the imbalance.
Chapter 7: Conclusion and Recommendation

7.1 Conclusion
At the onset of the research, it was intended to consider the relationship between the psychological contract of academics and discretionary effort. As such it was hoped to try to explain how academics viewed their role and where they placed their key efforts. More importantly where they placed extra (discretionary) effort, above and beyond the minimum. As evidenced through the literature and through personal experience and the interviews, there is universal agreement that the academic role can be divided into three: teaching; research; administration (also considered as service). The research set out to answer three research questions

1. What are the characteristics and manifestations of the psychological contract of academic staff in a UK University setting?

2. What are the contributory factors (experience and expectations, person-organisation fit and motivation / work ethic) in influencing the formation and development of the psychological contract of academic staff?

3. Is discretionary effort a visible representation of the psychological contract?

In doing so, the following research objectives were set.

1. Critically review the literature on the psychological contract, its formation, contribution, and impact on academics and the exercising of their duties.

2. Describe and interpret the characteristics and manifestations of the psychological contract for Business School academic staff.

3. Consider the contributory factors on the psychological contract affecting work attitude and performance.
4. Consider the relationship between work behaviour, the psychological and the manifestation of discretionary effort.

5. Contribute to the literature by advancing the concept of the psychological contract as a fundamental feature of the employment relationship within the context of academia.

6. Draw conclusions and make recommendations which will help line managers and Human Resource departments (and functions) within Universities to more effectively manage and lead, academic staff and academic teams.

Key aspects and themes were identified through a literature review (chapter 4). Significantly the literature suggests a clash of perception regarding the status of the psychological contract with the existence of two schools of thought. That of Rousseau, who considers the psychological contract to be idiosyncratic and in the mind of the individual, thus negating the need for a mutual relationship. In essence the psychological contract sits squarely in the predominance of a one-way relationship. That does not suggest that the employment relationship is one way, or that the “employer” does not warrant an important part of the psychological contract, merely that any obligation is purely the individual’s perception. Alternatively, the second school of thought follows Guest’s more mutual approach. He identifies a two-way relationship in which there are obligations on both sides and hence mutuality. The psychological contract remains critical in the employment relationship and as with any relationship the importance of maintaining a good relationship as opposed to a breakage (breach and violation).

Considering the employment relationship, Rousseau designed a model based on the status of the relationship (initially designed along a continuum and later within quadrants). Initially there were two extremes. Relational and Transactional which can be identified in most individuals. Despite some evidence to suggest that over the past 20 years the relationship has become more transactional, the academic psychological contract remains predominantly relational. Although this may be the case the issue remains that the individual’s relationship with the organisation is
complex. It is difficult to confirm with who the individual identifies with as the employer. Notably the concept of multiplicity suggests that as individuals, academics relate to different aspects of the organisation, or at least who they identify as the organisation. Subsequently the concept of Agency is a significant aspect of the relationship. Further complicating this is with whom academics prioritise their relationship. Academics can identify with their organisation, their discipline or professional body. In terms of the organisation academics could potentially identify with the wider organisation or the school/department within which they work. It is this identification which plays a significant role in the formation of the psychological contract and the continued manifestation of it.

A key feature of the changing relationship has been the changing pressures on institutions and the cultures within them. The growth in managerialism placed on academics and the process for growth in control measures that have become a key feature of UK HEIs over the past 20 years, have changed the face of most organisations. This tends to be more prominent in post 1992 institutions where changes have been most evident. In pre 1992 there remains a greater level of academic freedom that is retained from the past. Alongside this remains an increased marketisation of Higher Education which most academics remain resistant to. The drive to commercialise higher education is a feature that also most academics resist even though there is an acceptance to need to grow student numbers.

The literature would suggest that the type of institution would have a significant impact on the psychological contract. A relational psychological contract is a crucial feature of person-organisation fit, suggesting that academics are more likely to have a relational psychological contract if they have an effective fit with their organisation. The research however found that person-organisation fit was not a significant feature in individuals. The relationship was not a key feature for the individuals that were involved in the study. More significant in the study was background of the individuals, and Where they undertook their doctorate. This was a key feature of the findings, in particular influencing what they saw as the important aspects of the role. Although all recognised the importance of teaching and most recognised research as a significant aspect, the placement and the
emphasis bore a relationship to doctoral studies. Significantly those who had undertook their doctoral studies in a pre-1992 and research-intensive university were more research orientated with a view that research needed to be more dominant. Those who had undertaken their doctoral studies at post 1992 institutions or who did not have a doctorate tended to be less research orientated in their direction. That said however, all recognised the importance of administration and most recognised the split between teaching orientated administration, that is student facing administration e.g. marketing etc., was more palatable than university orientated administration linked to reports and process.

The research bore out interesting findings which centred around the aspects of the role, identification with the organisation, the rise of managerialism and decline in autonomy and of course discretionary effort.

Interestingly the research did not identify any critical issues with the role. There was an acceptance that the role of the academic is what it is, and ultimately what they all signed up to. Obviously, there was some evidence that some of the respondents felt they were not being given enough time to conduct research, or the teaching hours were too high, or there was too much administration. This can be condensed into personal preferences as there was no uniform similarity between individual institutions or the categories to which they belong, rather the suggestion was very much aligned to personal background which had been forged through experience and how they placed themselves. Interestingly those who came through a practitioner route were more likely to be teaching orientated than those who came through a more traditional academic pathway. This however is tempered by where the pathway led, and those whose pathway took them through a research-intensive university perceive greater importance to research. Of course, much of this can be aligned to aspirations, which can be couple into positional/status aspirations and organisational/place aspirations.

Research generally provides the base for individual promotion, and for many the career pathway is laid out as Lecturer to Senior to Associate Professor to Professor, and historically this is aligned to research and publications. As the same time there is a drive (perhaps subliminally in most cases) to work at the
more prestigious universities. This was commented on by two of the respondents who stated their drive to work in their respective “prestigious” institutions. Significantly however both respondents had come through a professional route gaining their doctorates at a later stage of life and from post 1992 universities. Although most of the respondents did not mention this aspiration there was evidence to suggest that key drivers for academic staff centres around prestige and status. (see article by Johnston, 2016).

Despite these drivers relating to prestige and status there were no issues relating to identification of the organisation, which the literature suggested may be an issue. This may be related to the fact that academics do not readily identify with the organisation as a whole but with the school there are in. There may also be issues regarding individual perceptions of the current situation aligned to aspirations of the future and perhaps recognition that they may not have the profile yet for a position in a more “prestigious” institution. They perhaps see their current institution as a stepping-stone up the ladder. This suggests why some of the respondents want more time to do research. The institutions where there was deemed most “conflict” were within the post 1992 former Colleges of H.E., with one standing out, although all having contradictions. The key issue seemed to have been centred around the university’s aspirations to have a research profile and its ability to resource it. The desire to have staff engaging in research and publishing, while also teaching heavy workloads, creates a situation that perhaps is not achievable, given that the former Colleges of H.E. tend to be smaller and therefore have more limited finances to spread around. There is also some negativity towards this move by staff who are predominantly teaching focused who suggest the move towards a research culture is not to the benefit of students. They suggest the recruitment of staff who are more research orientated often reduces the quality of teaching. This was as evident in the feedback from some respondents employed in the former polytechnics.

The rise of managerialism and with it the reduction in aspects of autonomy remained critical features within discussions. There was a feel that autonomy related to teaching had not changed and academics continued to have the freedom to deliver as and what they saw fit. There was a feeling that increases in
managerialism was changing the culture and pressure on academics perhaps suggesting that it was eating into time that could be used more proactively for teaching and research. Most notable is the move towards a twenty-four seven, on demand culture which organisations are pushing in terms of student support. This coupled with increased pressures to support students to get them through despite poor engagement (and usually) attendance means staff are working extra to provide additionally for students. At the same time universities are pushing agendas such as higher pass rates and employability rates, TEF, REF and KEF in a target driven approach geared towards league tables. The most prevalent of which is NSS which can be distorted based on popularity rather than standards. Discretionary effort is the hidden and under-represented feature of academic life. Most respondents did not recognise it as a feature of what they did, although all were able to provide examples and evidence of what they did and how they did it. On the whole discretionary effort can be categorised into two aspects. They are student focussed and research aligned. There was evidence to suggest that many academics want to see students achieve and achieve well, and as such put in extra effort to try and ensure lessons are well prepared and interesting, students are supported, opportunities are provided and that they have a great experience. At the same time academics are undertaking research in their own time, some linked to teaching, some to personal preference. Alongside this, there was also evidence to suggest that academics are also trying to do wider things for the broader benefit. Setting up projects, including some abroad, developing ideas and working with others to the benefit of the organisation is a recurring theme in the research.

On reflection individuals considered the purpose of discretionary effort and for whose benefit it was conducted. Although an obvious suggestion that teaching related discretionary effort is for the beneficial to the student body and often research is for the benefit of self, it would also be an accurate reflection of discretionary effort being of benefit to the organisation. Increased student satisfaction, degree classifications and employability statistics are key components of the league tables. Couple this with research, the REF and raising of the profile of the university will also impact league tables and finances.
The process of discretionary effort would suggest that the academic psychological contract is relational however does not exist in the singular. The complexity of Universities as organisations coupled with the complexity of the academic role suggests that there are multiple dimensions to the psychological contract. This overall would be positive as even in cases where academics are ‘in dispute’ with their organisation, the nature of the job ensures benefits for the organisation. That said however by nature the psychological contract is very idiosyncratic and although there may exist common ground, each academic sees the world around them through a different lens.

One aspect however that may not be transparent is the hidden nature of discretionary effort and whether this is because discretionary effort is a manifestation of managerialism. Perhaps academics have become accustomed to the pressures of the job and the need to put in the extra hours and the extra effort to do the basic job, in which they take pride. This perhaps is the result of managerial approaches to efficiency, targets, and work overload. As one of the respondents suggested a result of a feeling of deficit.

The outcome of the research will suggest that for academics the psychological contract will always be relational and discretionary effort will always be evident, if not identifiable. This is because academics are committed to being academics. It is what they do. Therefore, removing effort from teaching and supporting students is not a ‘break’ with the institution, nor is not conducting research, it is instead a break with self. While individuals may be reluctant to do additional tasks, they will on the whole not withdraw from what is deemed the role they are committed to.

7.2 Contribution to Theory
This research has considered several features of the psychological contract of academics and the relationship with discretionary effort. In doing so, it has notably contributed to the theoretical base of knowledge available and provided a bedrock of ideas.

- *Employment relationship* – the psychological contract of the academic is generally relational however it is a complex dynamic in which the individual academic does not necessarily associate with the University but with a ‘part’
or ‘aspect’ of the university which allows them to fulfil their role. As such the university may be judged as a conduit for them achieving their aspirations, whether that be related to teaching or research. As such academics do not necessarily have commitment to the Organisation but do have commitment to the academic body, their colleagues, and the student body.

- **Employment relationship** – the complexity of the academic role may make breach and violation a more challenging concept which may not finite as in other sectors. The diversity of their role and the freedom and expectations they have is more likely to cause ‘denting’ rather than full breach or violation within the boundaries of the concept. Denting can be defined as “the intrusion on one aspect of the psychological contract, which has a recoverable but detrimental impact on the employment relationship” If denting occurs too often, then this may result in ‘intention to leave’ activities or actual staff turnover.

- **Employment Relationship** – the academic mindset, suggests that Universities are a vehicle to fulfil the ‘desires’ of the academic, whether that be related to research or teaching, which they see as academic work. As such the employment relationship and hence the psychological contract is damaged by having to undertake non-academic work. Many academics therefore aspire to work in organisations where they perceive the work to be more academic focussed (usually interpreted by research status)

- **Multiplicity & Clarity** – relationships are critical to organisational performance particularly within Universities who are reliant on people. It is significant to recognise the multiplicity within the context of the relationship between the University and academics. The complexity of a University in the division between the ‘academic’ side of the organisation and the ‘business’ which may not necessarily be viewed through the same lens. For academics it is important for clarity around the ‘business processes’ and how they link to the demands of the role, particularly where
contradictions may be viewed or perceived.

- **Managerialism** – managerialist approaches tend to be resisted and challenged by academics if they are viewed as mere control measure or do not add value to the staff or student experience. Overly managerial approaches will have negative consequences on the psychological contract and may reduce active participation (and contribution) to the non-academic aspects of the role. This lack of participation may determine a drop in performance of the non-academic tasks, a reluctance, and may ultimately lead to staff turnover or at least intention to leave. Managerialism is perhaps the major contributor to ‘denting’.

- **Discretionary Effort** – academics do not have clear perception of the notion of discretionary effort with the view that it is part of the role. Academics are committed to the students (and the student experience) and to research and therefore the extra hours or the extra effort put in are considered part of the ‘contract’. This lack of perception suggests a relational psychological contract however, this may not be with the organisation (the University) but suggests the commitment to students and colleagues. The concept of induced discretionary effort is a fundamental aspect of ‘life’ for many academics and Universities ‘make use’ of this.

**7.3 Contribution to Practice**

Similarly, alongside contributing to a theoretical base, the research also makes a notable contribution to practice, for institutions as a whole, HR departments and School Management Groups. Alongside this there is notable contribution for individuals including both managers of academics and the individual academics themselves.

- **Multiplicity & Clarity** – Senior managers, HR managers and line-managers need to recognise the multiplicity of the relationship between differing facets of the University and the academics. Academics recognise differently with different facets and as such do not necessarily respond to ‘workload’ driven
by that which they consider not related to teaching (student) / research. As such these are likely to be areas of discontent and challenge which may result in ‘denting’.

- **Recruitment and selection** – getting the right staff through the door to achieve person-organisation fit is critical in most organisations but is even more so in the University. Ensuring the new staff can buy in to the ethos and culture of the environment should ensure greater continuity. Significantly it is important to understand the individual academic’s purpose in choosing the university which may be a stepping-stone from a career progression point of view. It is important to be transparent and explicit at this stage and be conscious of not making any promises that cannot be fulfilled. As part of this it is important to be diligent in appreciating an individual’s background in their perception of the role. Particularly prevalent in this would be considering how recruitment and selection relates to career academics as opposed to those on their second career.

- **Induction / socialisation** – once recruited it is important to properly embed the ethos of the ‘institution into academics induction programme, to help them to settle into their new environment, understand expectations and the approach that is expected. This is a key aspect of the psychological contract formation. It is important to draw lines and set expectations (and obligations) that are negotiable and most importantly that are non-negotiable. This will help to set out a basis for forming the psychological contract.

- **Research** – it is important for Universities to be clear about research and expectations regarding publications. This may relate to aspects such as annual number of publications, level of journal published in and / or impact of research (business involvement). Research seems to be the most divisive topic in Universities and much of this may appear to come from the institution’s lack of clarity of what they expect and how they expect it. The pre1992 Universities provide the most clarity on this. The pre1992
Universities need to consider how they will achieve their research ambitions and how they will resource it and subsequently how they expect academics to perform within those constraints.

7.4 Recommendations

- **Clarity of Institutional Expectations** – institutions should be clear (and honest) in their expectations of the academic role. Some institutions have moved to change job titles to be more focussed (Lecturer (Teaching and Scholarship) or Lecturer (Teaching and Research)) while others adopt a more pragmatic Teaching Fellow adaptation. However there remains a set of differing expectations of what a Lecturer does and how much he / she does. This is particularly relevant in the different types of institutions. Institutions should therefore be more open of what the role at that institution is. **Target group – Institutions and HR Departments**

- **Preparation for the role** – individuals do not necessarily understand the expectations of the roles within organisation. It may be common as part of Doctoral programmes that many candidates are provided with training for teaching (it is a given that they are being trained for research) and many are able to gain HEA accreditation along the way. The HEA accreditation is designed to support the teaching role and is also heavily linked with how students are supported, however there perhaps is a gap in that there is no understanding of the sector (and its diversity) that they are involved in. This results in individuals having different expectations as they enter employment. This seems most obvious, when doctorates have been taken in a pre1992 institution (referring to themselves as Research Intensive) and employment gained in post1992 institutions. It is therefore a recommendation that as part of the training provided be linked to understanding the HE Sector. **Target group – institutions and doctoral supervisors**
• *Career Aspirations and Research* – many doctoral candidates seek a career in academia however it is important that (just as the institutions have a responsibility to make clear their expectations) they understand the different types of organisations in the sector. This will allow them to better prepare for a career and understand the expectations within differing institutions. Of course, many candidates use ‘lower ranked’ institutions as a stepping-stone (a chance to build a research profile) to a more prestigious institution, however, do not realise the different pressures and priorities of these ‘lower ranked’ institutions, where research is perhaps not the highest priority and as such need to undertake the majority of their research work outside of the normal working hours. Therefore, the onus is on job applicants to ensure they understand the needs and roles and priorities of the organisations they are applying to, beyond the literature of the advert.

**Target group – job applicants and doctoral students**

• *Induction and Socialisation* – helping new staff settle into an organisation is critical. Therefore induction programmes should be developed to ensure that academics fully understand the role and what to expect, this providing clarity of the psychological contract in a single voice that can be referred to.

**Target group – HR Departments**

• *Portfolio Employment* – the career path of many academics is focussed on prestige and as such many drive towards a desire to work in a more prestigious institution. While this may not be welcomed by many institutions, it should be, and measures should be taken to facilitate progression within and out of institutions. This will enable academics to fully engage in a relational psychological contract apply high levels of discretionary effort, helping themselves and the institution to perform well. It may result in staff turnover however during the period of tenure performance will be high. As such individuals’ talent should be identified and made use of. Institutions should develop measure to identify this through Performance Reviews and support processes. This may include the development of i-deals.

**Target group – HR Departments and Line**
Managers.

- *Administrative Burden* – academics are most affected by what they see as an administrative burden which is not related to teaching. HEIs and managers should seek to reduce the administrative burden that removes academics from undertaking academic work. This will allow them to raise teaching performance, student support and research output.

- *Further Research* – this research has been conducted on staff holding permanent contracts, often known as tenure. It would be a useful expansion of this study to investigate the psychological contract of academics who are not on substantive contracts, or those on fixed term contracts. In addition, the research is focussed on Business School (or equivalent) academics and could be expanded to academics in other disciplines. **Target group – fellow academics**
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Appendix One:

Types of Psychological Contract

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Short-term</th>
<th>Specified performance contingencies</th>
<th>Unspecified performance contingencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transactional (new deal)</strong></td>
<td>Espoused deal: ‘If you perform at a high level for as long as we need you, we will provide you with exciting work and opportunities to develop your human capital and employability’</td>
<td><strong>Transitional</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rewards based on short-term role performance, especially task behaviour and results</td>
<td>Espoused deal: ‘If you work harder than before, we may be able to keep you on, but you may have to be prepared to take a pay freeze or pay cut’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Emphasis on individual performance and rewards</td>
<td>• Rewards not linked to performance or membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rewards matched to external markets</td>
<td>• Work intensification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: Sales, executive and senior management roles</td>
<td>• Reward levels in decline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: during restructuring or downsizing</td>
<td>• Incentives to quit or accept redundancy deals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Long-term</strong></td>
<td><strong>Balanced</strong></td>
<td><strong>Relational (old deal)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Espoused deal: ‘If you contribute consistently as a team player and organisational citizen, we will offer you a reward mix that balances your needs and ours’</td>
<td>Espoused deal: ‘If you are loyal and work hard and as directed we will provide you with a secure job, steady pay increases and internal training and promotion opportunities.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rewards based on contribution, broadly defined including competencies, membership, task or results, and citizenship</td>
<td>• Rewards based on individual membership, length of service or seniority, loyalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Flexible balance between collective and individual performance, intrinsic rewards, short and long term incentives, flexible benefits and work-life balance.</td>
<td>• Rewards emphasise internal equity, incremental adjustment and fixed benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: high involvement work teams</td>
<td>Example: traditional business</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix Two:

The Content of the Psychological Contract

According to employees – what employees can expect from their organization

1. Safe and congenial environment (15.0%)
2. Fair and equitable pay with respect to market and across the company (11.9)
3. Fairness in selection, appraisal, promotion, redundancy (10.8)
4. Providing adequate training (9.6)
5. Providing job security as much as is possible (9.6)

According to employees – what organizations can expect from their employees

1. To work contracted hours (32.1)
2. To do a good job in terms of quantity and quality (19.4)
3. To be honest (15.2)
4. Self-presentation – dressing and behaving correctly (10.5)
5. Flexibility – willing to go beyond job description when required (10.1)

According to managers – what employees can expect from their organization

1. Fairness and consistency of benefits (16.4)
2. Humanity, acting in a responsible and supportive manner (14.3)
3. Fairness in selection, appraisal, promotion, redundancy (12.9)
4. Recognition for special contributions (10.8)
5. Safe and congenial environment (8.7)

According to managers – what organizations can expect from their employees

1. To work contracted hours (28.1)
2. To do a good job in terms of quantity and quality (22.3)
3. To be honest (16.9)
4. Loyalty – staying with the organization and putting its interests first
5. Flexibility – willing to go beyond job description when required (11.6)

Source: Adapted from Conway and Briner (2005): 41, drawing on survey by Herriot, Manning and Kidd (1997)
Appendix Three:

Interview Schedule
Interview Questions

An Investigation of the relationship between Discretionary Effort and an Academic’s Psychological Contract.

Preamble

Thank you for agreeing to the interview.

My name is Alan Johnston and I am undertaking the research as part of my doctoral studies. The purpose of the research is to investigate the relationship between your job and the effort you apply to the different parts of the role.

The research is being carried out for my DBA Thesis, although at a later point I may use the data for the purpose of publications. Within the research I am using both a questionnaire, which I believe you have already completed, to gather quantitative data, and these interviews to gather qualitative data.

In essence the questions in the interview are designed to help me understand how you feel in your job, whether your expectations are met by the organisation or role, the key pressures that you identify, and the responsibilities you have. The purpose of the interview is to discuss how an individual perceives their role and priorities, and where they put the extra effort in.

The contents of the interview shall remain confidential, and when data is used no identifying information will be revealed.

By taking part in the interview you are providing consent for the use of the data, however should you wish to withdraw your consent you may do so up until the submission of my final thesis. You can do this by emailing me at a.johnston@yorksj.ac.uk

I should be happy to provide further information about the study should you require it.

The interview should take no more than one hour, and hopefully less.

To reiterate, what is said in this room, shall remain confidential, and when data is used no identifying information will be revealed.

You may decline to answer any question.

I shall record the interview if that is OK with you. The recording shall be kept in a secure place away from any identifying information.

You will be able to verify the transcript at a later date if you wish.
1. Could you please tell me a little bit about yourself, your experience, your role and how you came to be in the position you are now?

Supporting prompts if needed
- Educational Background
- Work Background
- Progression into academia
- The role
- How they came into the role (if they have a specific role)
- Cultural background (if deemed relevant)

2. In higher education we can often describe our institution in a number of ways. This may be size, structure, by its history (ie ex Poly), by its focus (eg research intensive, teaching focussed) or even by its membership of Mission Groups (eg Russell Group, or Million+). How would you describe your institution.

3. How well do you feel you identify with your organisation?

Consider the response given above.
Develop into consideration of faculty / department etc

4. i) Does this allow you to fulfil your expectations and aspirations?

ii) if so how...

5. How would you rank the following in terms of your priority:

Administration ___
Research ___
Teaching. ___

6. To what extent do you feel you have the autonomy to determine and fulfil your own priorities?

Delve into what they see as their priorities

7. What are the key challenges in your role?

Take opportunity to delve into the challenges as they see them
8. What are your key achievements?

   Take opportunity to delve into the achievements and why they see them as achievements

9. a) Can you give me an example of an occasion when you have provided effort above and beyond what was expected of you?

   b) Why did you do this?

10. a) Do you do this sort of thing on a regular basis

   b) Why?

11. Do you have any further examples of this?

   (may follow up to ask for examples from a different part of the job if all are similar)

12. Do you believe you do things that you do not have to do for the benefits of others (staff, students, communities)

13. Is there anything else you would like to tell be about the role you do?

END OF QUESTIONS

Thank you taking the time to answer the questions.

I shall produce a transcript of your responses and let you have a copy as soon as possible
Appendix Four:

Questionnaire

Adapted from Rousseau (2000) and Tookey (2013)
Questionnaire

An Investigation of the relationship between Discretionary Effort and an Academic’s Psychological Contract.

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire

My name is Alan Johnston and I am undertaking this research as part of my doctoral studies. The purpose of the research is to investigate the relationship between your job and the effort you apply to the different parts of the role.

The research is being carried out for my DBA Thesis being conducted at the University of Huddersfield, although at a later point I may use the data for the purpose of publications. Within the research I am using both this questionnaire to gather quantitative data, and interviews to gather qualitative data.

This questionnaire is designed to help me understand how you feel in your job, whether your expectations are met by the organisation or role, the key pressures that you identify, and the responsibilities you have. There are also questions which will look to identify your satisfaction with your role and employer.

The contents of the questionnaire shall remain confidential, and when data is used no identifying information will be revealed.

By completing the questionnaire you are providing consent for the use of the data, however should you wish to withdraw your consent you may do so up until the submission of my final thesis. You can do this by emailing me at a.johnston@yorks.j.ac.uk

I should be happy to provide further information about the study should you require it.

Questionnaire Identifier: U__

(the purpose of this number is to allow the data from this questionnaire to be linked with your interview)
1. Work-related expectations

The table below is designed on a simple scale that measures what you expect from your employer and compares this to what you receive. Could you please provide a rating for each of these categories (1 being the lowest, 7 being the highest).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your Expectations</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Extent to which you feel you receive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An indication of what best practices means within my organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good learning opportunities exist within my organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A feeling of satisfaction in my work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Values, attitudes and motives are influenced by my employer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being managed well in my present work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing others in my present work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loyalty towards my future career</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your Expectations</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Extent to which you feel you receive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An ability to express emotions (e.g., frustration, anger, happiness) openly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receiving emotional support from my colleagues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The emotional support I get is valued</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional issues do not affect the quality of my work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The existence of support groups to address personal problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A feeling of self-motivation within my work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can handle “conflict” (disagreements / contrasting demands of role) situations that may arise within my work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I value a feeling of trust within my work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your Expectations</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Extent to which you feel you receive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual ability</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To manage my own self-development effectively (this may include having availability of choices)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To provide me with a range of skills that lie beyond the scope of my formal working contract</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To tolerate change and ambiguity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To provide me with skills that are highly marketable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To make me aware of competencies associated with work that I am engaged with</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To adopt a flexible attitude towards the work undertaken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To value a working knowledge of my field of expertise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questions 2 to 4 contain a number of statements associated with contracts, educational background, work attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction, future career perceptions, commitment) and academic responsibilities, (i.e. research, teaching and administration) that apply to your work. Please specify the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements. Indicate your answer by writing in a number between 1-7, according to the scale below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree strongly</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree slightly</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Role

When I joined academia, I expected:

- Autonomy in the role 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- Convenient working hours and vacations 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- Improving knowledge of my area of research 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I joined academia because I had an

- Internal urge to teach and educate the next generation in my subject area 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- Internal urge to conduct research in my area 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

“The work I have undertaken in academia has met (or exceeded) with my initial expectations of the role”

How far do you agree with this statement 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

“The work I have undertaken in academia has met (or exceeded) with your career expectations”

How far do you agree with this statement 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Work attitudes

a) Job satisfaction

- I am satisfied with my current role 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- I frequently think of quitting (my job) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- I frequently think of quitting (the profession) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- I’m generally satisfied with the kind of work that I do 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

b) Future career expectations

- I optimistic about my future in academia 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- My feelings about the future within my institution influence my overall attitude towards the future 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- I feel that I’m progressing in my career 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- I feel that I’m getting ahead in my institution 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

c) Commitment
I’m proud to tell people I work at my university 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
In my work I feel like I’m contributing to my subject area 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I’m willing to put myself out to help the department/faculty I work for 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
It is important to me that I am of good standing in my Department 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
It is important to me that I am of good standing in my Organisation 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
It is important to me that I am of good standing in my subject area / academic community 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
It is important to me that I am of good standing in my professional body / practice community 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In which order of importance (to yourself) would you put the following (Rank 1-4 where 1 is the highest)

Department ___
Organisation ___
Subject Area ___
Profession ___

4. Academic responsibilities

Please could you indicate the proportion of your time you typically spend in teaching, research and administration? Please express these as a percentage of each of the items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research</th>
<th>100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Research

In the last five years that I have published (please state number):

__________ refereed journals

Ranking:
4* __ ___
4 __ ___
3 __ ___
2 __ ___
1 __ ___

__________ books

__________ book chapters

__________ conference papers

__________ other outputs

______________________________ (if other please state)

Research represents a significant part of my current work 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The research I conduct is valued by my own institution 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I have excellent support from my colleagues to develop my research interests 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Suitable resources exist within my institution to develop my research interests 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(b) Teaching

On average I teach __________ hours per week.

This is split between

__________hours at undergraduate level

__________hours at postgraduate level

Teaching represents a significant part of my current work 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The teaching responsibilities I conduct are valued by my institution 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The student feedback I received on the quality of my teaching is very good 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The feedback I receive plays a valuable role in enhancing the quality of my teaching 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I feel that I conduct my teaching responsibilities to a high standard 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I value a “peer review” process to monitor the quality of my teaching 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(c) Administration

At present I have the following responsibilities (tick all that apply)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Award / Programme Leader</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year Head</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module Leader</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line Management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please identify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A large part of my current work is concerned with administration 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I have excellent support from my colleagues to undertake my administrative responsibilities 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
### Professional Background – please tick the appropriate box

Are you a member (or have you previously been a member) of any of the following bodies?

**Professional Bodies (e.g. CIPD, CMI, CIMA)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Level of Membership</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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**Academic Societies (e.g. BAM, EGOS, AoM)**

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**Higher Education Academy (HEA)**

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**Other**

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6. Educational background

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How many years’ experience do you have in your area?

Teaching _____

Research _____

What is your current academic post? ___________________________________________

How long have you been in this post? __________(to the nearest year)

How long have you worked at your current institution? __________(to the nearest year)

What was your previous academic post? _________________________________________

How long have you worked in academia? __________(to the nearest year)

How many other Universities have you worked in? _____

Assuming that you will develop yourself according to your plans, what do you think will be the final position that you will reach? ___________________________________________

Ethnic origin-[please tick the appropriate box]
What is your nationality?  

- White  
- Black  
- Asian  
- Hispanic  
- Other  

- [ ]  
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Data Analysis flow process

1. Initial formulation of themes from reading and pilot study
2. Coding applied to transcribed interviews
3. Coding applied to subsequently transcribed interviews
4. Additional themes identified from transcribed interviews
5. Findings Developed
6. Key findings worked into Discussion
7. Conclusions and Recommendations drawn up
Appendix Six – Raw Data
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