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Entry 1: Positionality and Individuality

Individuality refers to the qualities that make a person or thing different from others (Cambridge Dictionary). The meaning of positionality in Oxford dictionary is two-folded. First, it means “The fact or quality of having a position in relation to other things.” Second, as interpreted in sociological field, it means “The occupation or adoption of a particular position in relation to others, usually with reference to issues of culture, ethnicity, or gender.” It is a term that deeply influenced by cultural, political, and social context, and greatly related with reflexivity, epistemology as well as bias. As Bourke (2014) indicates that reflexivity is described as the process of examining one’s positionality in research as well as the relationship between different stakeholders resulted from their positionality and individuality. In my view, both of individuality and positionality emphasis on describing one’s “self” characteristics, and involves the process of self-scrutiny, self-awareness, self-conscious, etc., but it is the reflexivity linked the “self” with the “other”. In other words, if positionality and individuality regard to who we are and what we know, then reflexivity addresses one’s positionality, identity and power in the research and asks questions about what we do with what we know and what is the relationship between the knower and what is known. And according to Patton (2002), epistemology asks questions about “how we know what we know?” Thus, epistemology influences the researcher’s positionality shape the role and power of researcher, affect the relationships relating to the study and help them to build their theory of knowledge (Corlett and Mavin, 2018; Day, 2012; Johnson and Duberley, 2000; Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). For instance, researchers with a modernist understanding will put her/his self to the positionality and reflexivity as a “truly” singular and knowable subjectivity, and evaluate her/his subjectivity influence on the research process whereas a postmodernist defender will acknowledge the challenge of self as “partial” multiple and unknowable researcher, and qualified the knowledge and process as limited (Pillow, 2003).

Reflexivity is considered as a significant part when conducting the business research, especially in qualitative research (Corlett and Mavin, 2018), the reason can be listed as two-folds. First, it challenges the privileged assumption of the researcher's entirely independent positionality and the completely objective and value-free empirical inquiry and result. However, researchers should adopt appropriate methodological tools and techniques to keep objective, Positionality and reflexivity provide the room of objectivism and subjectivism (Holmes, 2014), with a self-referential mechanism operating the process of "subject-object-subject" (Archer,2009). Second, as it provides the mirror image, making researchers self-expose their roles, examining how their positionality and individuality affecting the relationship with participants ,questioning the ways of doing in research, critically reflecting the research process and how to interpret its outcomes (Hardy et al., 2001; Hibbert et al., 2010). Specifically, self-exposing means systematically expose and reflect the researcher, the cultural social and political context of the context (Alvesson and Skoldberg,2009); questioning refers to critical thinking one's understanding of reality, truth and knowledge (Alvesson et al., 2008), the relationships with the context, participants and the data, and consideration of what is 'valid' and valuable research; interpreting pay attention to the interpretation of existing literature, behaviours of stakeholders, input data, the empirical results, etc. (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009: 9), as according to Jootun et al., (2009), "any finding is the product of the researcher's interpretation".

In summary, by practicing reflexivity, researchers, participants, data, and results could be 'interconnected and mutually related' (Haynes, 2012)

Appendix 1: References

1.Alvesson, M., Hardy, C., and Harley, B. (2008) 'Reflecting on reflexivity: Reflexive textual practices in Organization and Management Theory', *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(3): 480-501.

2. Alvesson, M. and Skoldberg, K. (2009) *Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research*. 2nd edn. London: Sage.
3. Archer, M.S. (ed) (2009) *Conversations About Reflexivity*. Abingdon: Routledge.
4. Bourke (2014). Positionality: Reflecting on the Research Process. *The Qualitative Report*. How to Article 2. Vol. 19, NO.33.
5. Carmichael (1919). Individuality in Research. *The Scientific Monthly*, American Association for the Advancement of Science. Vol. 9, No. 6. pp. 514-525
6. Corlett and Mavin (2018). Reflexivity and Researcher Positionality. In: Cassell C; Cunliffe A; Grandy G, ed. *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Business and Management Research Methods*. London: Sage, pp.377-389.
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10. Hibbert, P., Coupland, C. and MacIntosh, R. (2010) 'Reflexivity: recursion and relationality in organizational research processes', *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, 5(1): 47-62.
11. Holmes, A. G. (2014). *Researcher Positionality - A Consideration of Its Influence and Place in Research*.
12. Johnson, P. and Duberley, J. (2000) *Understanding Management Research*. London: Sage.

13.Jootun, D., McGhee, G., & Marland, G. (2009). Reflexivity: Promoting rigour in qualitative research. *Nursing Standard*, 23(23), 42-46.

14.Kivunja and Kuyini (2017). Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education* Vol. 6, No. 5.

15.Palaganas et al. (2017). Reflexivity in Qualitative Research: A Journey of Learning. *The Qualitative Report*. How to Article 5. Vol. 22, NO.2.

16.Patton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

17.Pillow, W. (2003) 'Confession, catharsis, or cure? Rethinking the uses of reflexivity as methodological power in qualitative research', *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 16(2): 175-196.

Appendix 2: Useful links and definitions

1. WHAT DOES POSITIONALITY MEAN?

<https://www.dictionary.com/e/gender-sexuality/positionality/>

2. Just Tell Me What I Need to Know: Reflexivity and Positionality Statements

<https://www.marvettelacy.com/blog/just-tell-me-what-i-need-to-know-reflexivity-and-positionality-statements>

3. Reflexivity (University of Warwick)

<https://warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/ces/research/current/socialtheory/maps/reflexivity/>

4. Writing Strategies: What's Your Positionality?

<https://weingartenlrc.wordpress.com/2017/01/09/research-writing-whats-your-positionality/>

Appendix 3: Definiens, figures.

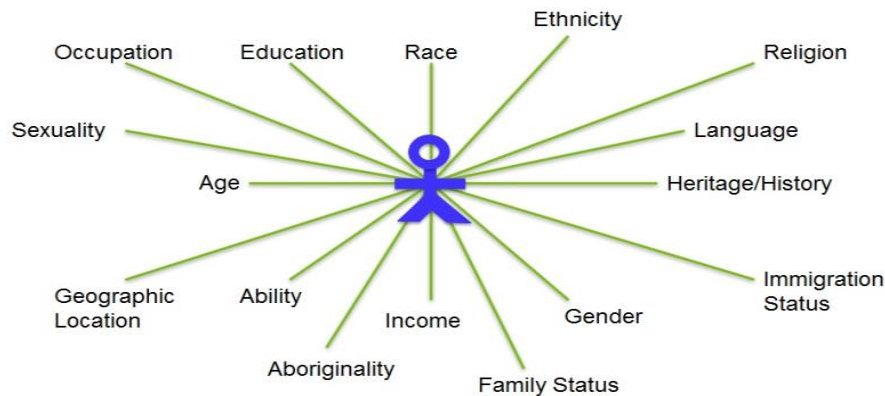
1. The definition of individuality in Cambridge Dictionary

<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/zhs/%E8%AF%8D%E5%85%B8/%E8%8B%B1%E8%AF%AD/individuality>

2. the definition of positionality in Oxford Dictionary

<https://www.lexico.com/definition/positionality>

3. The figure of “what shapes personality”.



Appendix 4: Self development activities

The following is the self-development activity of positionality and reflexivity of me, the researcher of a study: The Impact of Ethical Leadership on Employee Creativity in Fujian Province in China.



Information sources (samples)



Entry 2: Reading and evaluating literature and information sources

The types of knowledge (depending on nature) can be divided into, apriori, aposteriori, explicit, tacit, propositional, non-propositional, etc. (Module PowerPoint). Reading and evaluating literature and information sources, which is a method of acquiring of apriori and explicit knowledge. No matter in daily life or in scientific research, it is an agreement that human-beings are not rational, and the works produced by them are biased (Bryman, 2016; Roberts et al. 2006).

Therefore, the cultivation of critical thinking (Cottrell, 2005) is a thing that benefits not only as a researcher but also as human-being. One of the lecturers once told us that “Americans may be good at innovation, Chinese are good at practice, but British are good at thinking.” Therefore, this is like a learning memo of introducing some methods in the seminar of DBA to help me develop the critical thinking skills. As Ennis (1987) suggest that, critical thinking promotes a "polite skeptical" attitude towards everything in a reasoned way (Ennis 1987). Therefore, the following entire reading and evaluating process will be filled with various doubts.

First, when searching literatures in the library, what databases are trustworthy? Here is some recommended database for business students, such as ABI / INFORM, Business Source Elite, PsycINFO, Web of Knowledge, ERIC, etc.

Second, which journals are credible? During quantitative analysis module, Antje recommended a link, where you can find an international journal catalog of 1-5 stars (the higher the star, the more authoritative) :
<https://charteredabs.org/academic-journal-guide-2018-view/>.

Third, how to evaluate the value of the articles? If it comes from an authoritative journal, are all its contents necessarily correct? Applying a “critical

eye” is crucial. Accuracy, authority, objectivity, currency and coverage are five important indicators (tutorial materials of David). In detail, attentions should be addressed for “Accuracy” is that whether the information is reliable, whether there are evidences that could prove its authenticity and correctness and whether it conflicts with other credible sources? “Authority” emphasis on the investigation about the author, such as the background, the identity, the positionality as well as the objectives. When it comes to the “Objectivity” principle, the validity, reliability and the bias are focused.

A very typical case used in the class is an article from Harvard Business Review, once the purpose of this article is most likely to promote the products of his company has been verified, and this article has not been peer reviewed, even if it is published in a 5-star journal, how valuable the article is questionable. For “Currency” standard, carefully thinking about whether the currency is matter in this topic. For example, for the topic of information technology, timeliness may be one of the most important indicators. Finally, regarding ‘Coverage’, critical thinking needs to be focused on whether the article provides enough depth and breadth of information for you.

There are other scholars who are very attentive and enthusiastic to help the research beginners provide various versions of standards and checklists, such as Cottrell (2017) offer a very detailed list to help us become a smart reader.

Last, just like finding pearls in the sea, after critical screening, these literatures and information are the treasures we are looking for. Researchers can use some tools to organize, compare, and archive literature information on related topics. For example, use EXCEL to conduct a systematic review. Researchers can customize the required content as various headlines of columns according to their own needs, so that they can get some key information briefly, such as author, year, main content, research method, sample, etc.

In summary, critical reading and evaluation of literature and information sources is one of the most important and basic skills for researchers. Many veteran experts and scholars spare no effort to provide us with various methods and standards, so that we can stand on the shoulders of giants (Newton, 1675) and improve efficiency and avoid detours. But these tools, if you just hang them on the wall and put them in a high cabinet, will not have any effect. Most importantly, continuously use these tools to adjust based on the specific research context, to achieve the ability to cultivate critical thinking and find the research method that suits you best.

Appendix 1: References

1. Bryman (2016). *Social research methods*. 5th ed. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.
2. Cottrell, Stella (2017). *Critical Thinking Skills: Effective Analysis, Argument and Reflection*. Third ed. Print. Palgrave Study Skills.
3. Ennis, R. H. (1987b). A Taxonomy of Critical Thinking Dispositions and Abilities. In J. B. Baron, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *Teaching Thinking Skills: Theory and Practice* (pp. 9-26). New York: Freeman.
4. Newton, Isaac. "Letter from Sir Isaac Newton to Robert Hooke". *Historical Society of Pennsylvania*.
5. Petticrew, M., & Roberts, H. (2006). *Systematic reviews in the social sciences: A practical guide*. Blackwell Publishing.
6. Roberts et al. (2006). Reliability and validity in research. *Nursing Standard*. 20,44,41-45.
7. Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

Appendix 2: Useful links

1. How I use Excel to manage my Literature Review

<https://alawuntoherself.com/2016/05/20/how-i-use-excel-to-manage-my-literature-review/>

2. Literature Review - Finding the Resources.

This guide assists you in finding the resources for your literature review

<https://libguides.library.cityu.edu.hk/litreview/evaluating-sources>

3. A guide to identifying secondary sources for conducting an analysis of the external environment as part of the strategic planning process.

<https://researchguides.library.brocku.ca/external-analysis/evaluating-sources>

Appendix 3: Definitions, figures and frameworks

1. Six level of methodological appropriateness (Shadish, Cook and Campbell, 2002; Petticrew and Roberts, 2006)

Design	Level
Systematic review or meta-analysis of randomized controlled studies	AA
Systematic review or meta-analysis of non-randomized controlled and/or before-after studies	A
Randomized controlled study	
Systematic review or meta-analysis of controlled studies without a pretest or uncontrolled study with a pretest	B
Non-randomized controlled before-after study	
Interrupted time series	
Systematic review or meta-analysis of cross-sectional studies	C
Controlled study without a pretest or uncontrolled study with a pretest	
Cross-sectional study (survey)	D
Case studies, case reports, traditional literature reviews, theoretical papers	E

2. 4 sources of evidence to formulate evidence-based questions (from David Griffiths' tutorial PowerPoint)



3. Matrix for using Excel to manage Literature Review

authors	year	title	type of study	description	leadership and competencies	conclusions
Bahrani, Aliakbari, & Aein	2014	Iranian nurses' perception of essential competences in disaster response: A qualitative study	Qualitative: Phenomenology	35 nurses from various provinces and working background interviewed from Iran; each had prior experience working in a disaster.	Five themes were identified with corresponding categories: disaster scene coordination, management of human and other resources, professional ethics in disaster, adherence to law in disaster, knowledge about duties and organization hierarchy, unity in command, physical ability, self-management, meta competence critical thinking ability, communication skills, specific knowledge and applying knowledge. Subcategories identified were determined by interviewees as competencies for nursing.	This study examined the competencies required for nurses to provide better care in disaster situations. According to the findings, technical, management, ethical and personal abilities are necessary for all nurses who are providing care. Considering the importance of these competencies in disastrous situations, it seems necessary to put these trainings in academic curriculums and in nurses' service trainings.
Blanke, & McGrady	2011	From hot ashes to a cool recovery: Reducing risk by acting on business continuity and disaster recovery lessons learned	Qualitative: Case study	Continuing operations post-fire at a Visiting Nurses Association building.	Critical leadership and clear communication across all stakeholders is important. Ongoing and regularly scheduled leadership communication is also very important. Senior leadership was onsite to immediately initiate the business continuity and disaster response plan.	To create a CEO and senior management succession plan in the event that they are not onsite or not available.
Clukey	2010	Transformative experience for Hurricanes	Qualitative: Phenomenology	8 self-selected volunteer informants	The prominent finding was that volunteering in response to these natural disasters was a	The author recommends that using federal guidelines and university-based programs

Appendix 4: Self-development activity

The following paragraph comes from my dairy that describe a naïve method of acquiring knowledge in investigation and research activities of my own.

"When I was interested in a phenomenon and have some conflicts between the doubts and beliefs, I will try to mobilize all the reserved knowledge and resources in my head to interpret and solve this problem, such as knowledge informed from traditional, authoritative sources, or come from some senior sages, or derive from practices from daily life, etc. But when insufficient knowledge cannot answer the doubts, or more understanding is required, a small survey, an interview with related staff, some observation in physical site, some archives data, literature review, etc. are needed. And my favorite search strategy of literature is snowball method, which is *Snowballing backward* to older publications by finding out which publications were used by the author (see bibliography of book or article). And *Snowballing forward* to more recent publications by finding out how often that book or article has been cited by other authors. And I keep practice of using Thesaurus OR Title OR Abstract as well as some synonyms.

Entry 3: The Contribution of Research to Knowledge and Organisational Development

Academic or applied knowledge?

As one of the criteria of high-standard research is the contribution to knowledge (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). But comments like “there is a large research-user gap”, “the findings of research into what is an effective intervention are not being translated into actual practice” and “the relevance, quality and applicability of research is questionable” etc. become increasingly common criticisms in business field even though they are originally quoted from medicine discipline (Sackett et al., 2000). According to Easterby-Smith, (2008) business and management research is a systematic investigation aimed to help the practitioners tackle problems with trans-disciplinary knowledge. It is the fact that Managers are usually well-educated, and they need high quality information produced by credible research method to help them make decisions. Therefore, it is researchers’ mission to generate academic or applied knowledge, even both, in business and management domain. Compared to a PhD degree, A DBA degree is more focus on a contribution to the profession and practice.

Fundamental elements that affect the research contribution

As suggested by Schwandt (2001), research philosophy or research paradigm is a shared worldview that represents the beliefs and assumptions to guide how problems are solved.” And it is the lens (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017) through which, the researchers have impact on every aspect in the process of study (Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner, 2012). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), there are four essential elements of a paradigm namely, epistemology, ontology, methodology, and axiology. Ontology concerned with the nature of being, existence and reality (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017; Lincoln, 1994; Scotland, 2012). Epistemology asks questions about what is the relationship between the

knower and the would-be known (Guba, 1990)? Axiology deals with the ethical issues and human values involved in the study (Finnis, 1980). And as suggested by Patton (2002) and Crotty (1998), methodology answers the question of how we should study the world with certain “strategy or plan of action”. All these questions are important because they influence all aspects of research, the entire process, every decision-making, including research problem setting, data collection, the applied research methods and interpretation of the results, and all of them could make significant contributions to help the researcher discover the new academic or applied knowledge, even both.

Types of Contribution

As mentioned in the last paragraph, different research paradigm will produce different results that yields different contributions. For instance, positivism aims to test the existing theory and generalizing the theory to other different contexts; but interpretivism prefer to generate a deeper and richer understanding of the phenomenon and behaviour; feminist focus on reciprocity in research, while critical paradigm emphasis on imbalanced power, inequality, and social change (Calhoun et al. 2007; Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

Obviously, the contributions and outcomes of research are different towards different communities, such as the researcher, the organisation and the society. Lastly, the contribution of research towards every human-being should not be neglected, as it cultivates individuals to apply a critical eye, sharpens their brains and empowers them with knowledge and gives them a broaden vision to live.

Appendix 1: References

1.Bourke (2014). Positionality: Reflecting on the Research Process. The Qualitative Report. How to Article 2. Vol. 19, NO.33.

2.Calhoun, C., Gerteis, J., Moody, J., Pfaff, S., & Virk, I. (Eds.). (2007).

Classical sociological theory (2nd ed.). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

3. Corlett and Mavin (2018). Reflexivity and Researcher Positionality. In: Cassell C; Cunliffe A; Grandy G, ed. The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Business and Management Research Methods. London: Sage, pp.377-389.

4. Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., Jackson, P.R. (2008) Management Research (3rd edition). London: Sage. Chapter 1 explains what is management research.

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6. Palaganas et al. (2017). Reflexivity in Qualitative Research: A Journey of Learning. The Qualitative Report. How to Article 5. Vol. 22, NO.2.

7. Sackett, D. L., Straus, S. E., Richardson, W. S., Rosenberg, W. M. C., & Haynes, R. B. (2000). *Evidence-based medicine: How to practice and teach EBM* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Churchill Livingstone.

8. Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner (2012). Chapter 3: Selecting a research approach: Paradigm, methodology and methods. Doing social research: A global context, 51-61.

Appendix 2: Useful websites and links

1. Functions of research in management

https://ceopedia.org/index.php/Functions_of_research

2. Why is research important to our daily life?

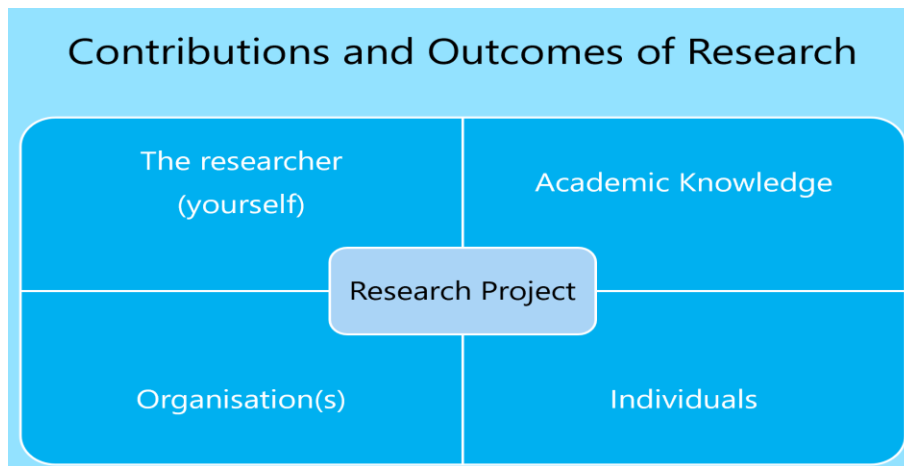
<https://www.quora.com/Why-is-research-important-to-our-daily-life>

3. Types of the Contributions in a Research Paper

<https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/types-contributions-research-paper-ali-asgari>

Appendix 3: Tables

1. Contributions and outcomes of Research



2. Types of research problems that influences the research contribution

Practical research problems

If you are doing practical research, you can identify a problem by reading reports, following up on previous research, and talking to people who work in the relevant field or organization. You might look for:

- ✓ Issues with performance or efficiency in an organization
- ✓ Processes that could be improved in an institution
- ✓ Areas of concern among practitioners in a field
- ✓ Difficulties faced by specific groups of people in society

If your research is connected to a job or internship, you will need to find a research problem that has practical relevance for the organization.

Theoretical research problems

Theoretical research focuses on expanding knowledge and understanding rather than directly contributing to change. You can identify a research problem by reading recent research, theory and debates on your topic to find a gap in what is currently known about it. You might look for:

- ✓ A phenomenon or context that has not been closely studied
- ✓ A contradiction between two or more perspectives
- ✓ A situation or relationship that is not well understood
- ✓ A troubling question that has yet to be resolved

Theoretical problems often have practical consequences, but they are not focused on solving an immediate issue in a specific place (though you might take a [case study](#) approach to the research).

3. Different contributions between PhD and DBA

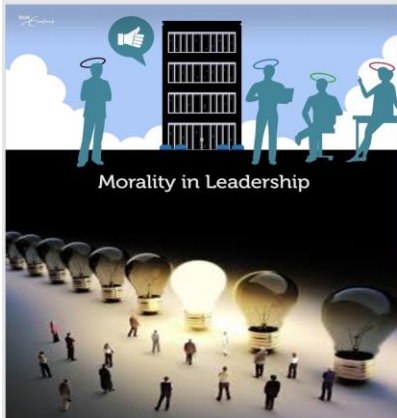
Phd/dba the same but different

A PhD is an academic research degree where the focus is a **contribution to scholastic knowledge**. A PhD has traditionally been the de facto qualification for those wishing to move into academia and become a professional researcher.

A DBA is a professional research degree where the focus is a **contribution to the profession or practice** overall. The DBA is designed to support professionals who wish to develop the skills needed to deliver unique solutions, based on an accurate, unbiased analysis of the situation.

Appendix 4: Self-development activity

Possible contributions of my research questions: The Impact of Ethical Leadership on Employee Creativity in Fujian Province in China.



Morality in Leadership

Contributions

- Gap: Earlier researches on creativity are major based on western context , examine Ethical leadership in Chinese organizations with cultural and political influences
- Academic knowledge: Theory-testing generalizing the existing knowledge to in different context(quantitative)
- Qualitatively investigate how and why and obtain deeper and richer understanding of the phenomena
- Provide practical solutions for pioneers in organizations

Entry 4: Defining the research question

What is research question and Why it is important?

According to Mattick (2018), a research question is “a question that a research project sets out to answer”. Or “what we *want to know* or *find out* about the *problem*” (Bryman and Bell, 2015). It probes the doubts and concerns to the phenomenon. A Good research question does not necessarily generate a good research, but fatally, poor research questions will bring about serious problems that influence all stages of the study (Agee, 2009). As Howie suggested, “To find the right question requires that we understand what we are asking about and know to keep the question simple enough to be answerable but challenging enough to be interesting.” If a research project is like building, the research question serves the foundation and base of the building, where everything is built on. A solid base rather than something shifty, is a decisive step as it allows the researchers focus on the subsequent work and making contributions. Besides, research questions will have an effect on both the study design and literature review and data analyses, etc. thus a problematic designed research question could result in wasting the researches or hampering the possibility of finding significance contribution (Farrugia et al., 2009).

It is commonly accepted that quantitative and qualitative approaches often have different goals, and different research designs (Frankel and Devers, 2000). Therefore, it is wisely to examine and evaluate the different functions and generating processes of research question in quantitative and qualitative approaches.

As Farrugia et al. (2009) and Haynes (2006) suggested, not only interest but also the familiarity and accumulated perceived knowledge with the topic promote developing a good research question. Critically reading for the relevant information and literature, pilot study, interviews or focus groups could be effective way to increase researcher's knowledge about what has been

previously gathered and studied about the issue. Accumulated knowledge may help you generate several specific concerns that questionable but could possibly be managed, which forms the research problems.

In quantitative research, research questions often specify the target population, the objective as well as other elements. In order to developing a good research question, literature suggest several criteria, such as the FINER criteria (Hulley et al. 2007) and PICOT approach (Haynes 2006). The FINER criteria emphasis the interest to the key stakeholders and suggest it should be compliant with the ethical principles and the topic should be relevant but also novel and interesting to investigate. As for PICOT, it is much focused on quantitative approach, the population (P), intervention (I), comparison group (C), outcome of interest (O) and timing (T) are the key elements to form a research question. And in quantitative study, a formal statement of the research question is often called the hypothesis (Farrugia et al.,2009) and it is developed from the research question. Hypotheses are made to test the "True" or "False" with experiments or questionnaires (FAARC,2004).

While when conducting a qualitative approach, the logic is often inductive, and the research design and process are usually flexible, dynamic and non-linear (Frankel and Devers,2000). Compared to quantitative research, the research design in qualitative study is greatly depend on the research domain. For example, when existing theory and literature cannot provide the adequately abundant context for the topic, the outset of research question in this kind of study may be relatively unstraightforward, the researcher may begin with an exploratory question and moving toward more structured as knowledge increases (Sofaer, 1999). And similarly, well-conducted literature review, precisely positioned research audience as well as well-considered required resources are also important steps to defining a research question in qualitative study (Frankel and Devers,2000).

Appendix 1: References

1. Brian Haynes R (2006). Forming research questions. *J Clin Epidemiol*, 59:881-6.
2. Charles G Durbin Jr MD FAARC (2004). How to Come Up with a Good Research Question: Framing the Hypothesis. *RESPIRATORY CARE*, VOL 49, NO. 10.
3. Farrugia et al. (2009). Practical tips for surgical research: research questions, hypotheses and objectives. *Continuing Medical Education Formation*. Vol. 53, No 4.
4. Frankel and Devers (2000). Study Design in Qualitative Research—1: Developing Questions and Assessing Resource Needs. *Education for Health*, Vol. 13, No. 2, 251–261.
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7. Jane Agee (2009) Developing qualitative research questions: a reflective process, *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 22:4, 431-447.
8. Mattick, Karen; Johnston, Jenny; de la Croix, Anne (2018). "How to...write a good research question". *The Clinical Teacher*. 15 (2): 104–108.

Appendix 2: Useful links

1. Teaching video: Writing Research Questions: Purpose & Examples
<https://study.com/academy/lesson/writing-research-questions-purpose-examples.html>

2. How to define your research problem

<https://www.scribbr.com/research-process/research-problem/>

Appendix 3: Tables

1. FINER criteria in the development of a good research question. (Hulley S, Cummings S, Browner W, et al. 2007)

Box 1. FINER criteria for a good research question

F	Feasible	• Adequate number of subjects • Adequate technical expertise • Affordable in time and money • Manageable in scope
I	Interesting	• Getting the answer intrigues investigator, peers and community
N	Novel	• Confirms, refutes or extends previous findings
E	Ethical	• Amenable to a study that institutional review board will approve
R	Relevant	• To scientific knowledge • To clinical and health policy • To future research

Adapted with permission from Wolters Kluwer Health.²

2. Forming research questions: PICOT criteria. (Brian Haynes R, 2006)

Box 2. PICOT criteria¹

P	Population (patients)	• What specific patient population are you interested in?
I	Intervention (for intervention studies only)	• What is your investigational intervention?
C	Comparison group	• What is the main alternative to compare with the intervention?
O	Outcome of interest	• What do you intend to accomplish, measure, improve or affect?
T	Time	• What is the appropriate follow-up time to assess outcome

3. Practical tips for surgical research: research questions, hypotheses and objectives. (Farrugia et al., 2009).

Box 3. Tips for developing research questions, hypotheses and objectives for research studies

1. Perform a systematic literature review (if one has not been done) to increase knowledge and familiarity with the topic and to assist with research development.
2. Learn about current trends and technological advances on the topic.
3. Seek careful input from experts, mentors, colleagues and collaborators to refine your research question as this will aid in developing the research question and guide the research study.
4. Use the FINER criteria in the development of the research question.
5. Ensure that the research question follows PICOT format.
6. Develop a research hypothesis from the research question.
7. Develop clear and well-defined primary and secondary (if needed) objectives.
8. Ensure that the research question and objectives are answerable, feasible and clinically relevant.

FINER = feasible, interesting, novel, ethical, relevant; PICOT = population (patients), intervention (for intervention studies only), comparison group, outcome of interest, time.

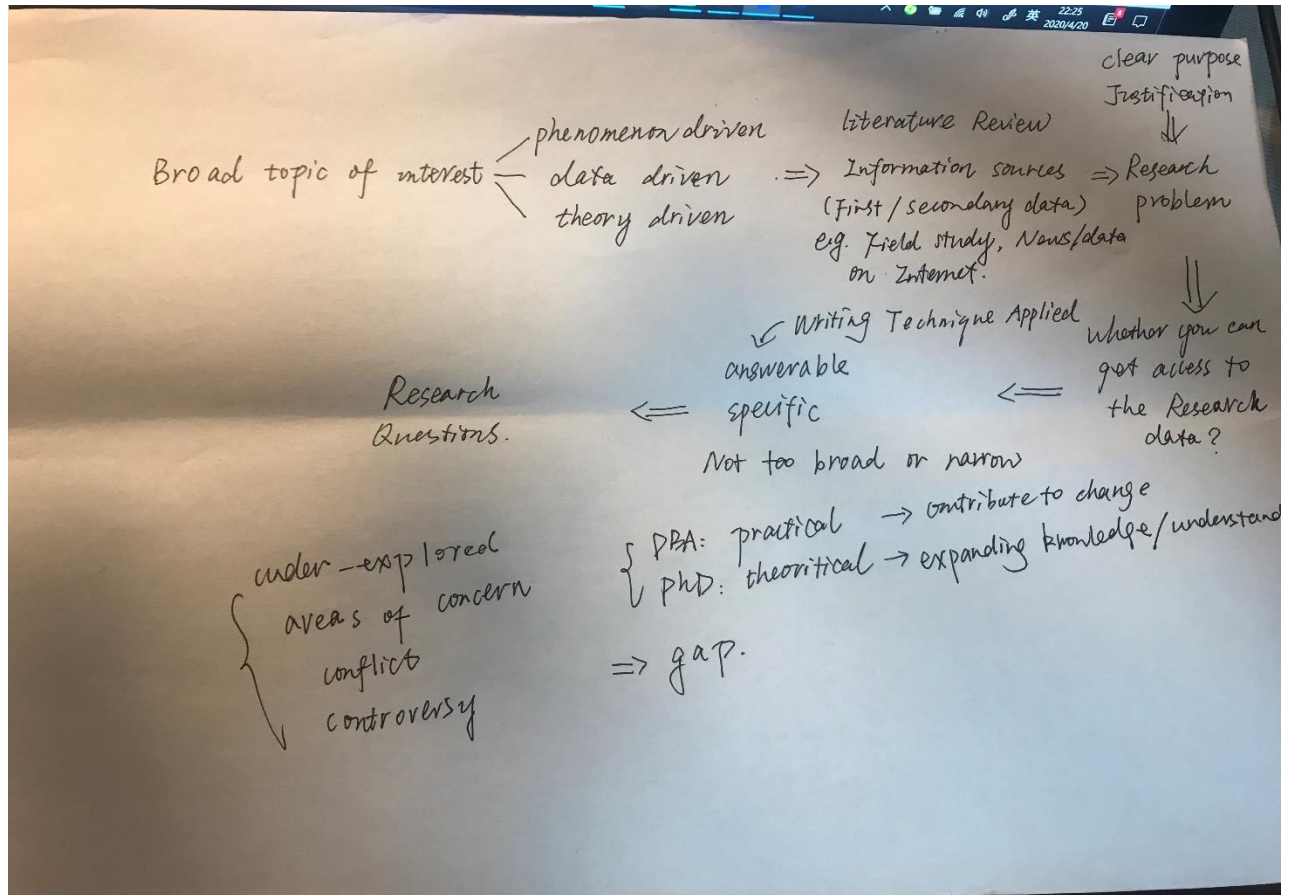
4. Howie JGR (1991). Refining questions and hypotheses.

A good research question:

The question is important and relevant.
It is interesting to the researchers and others
It is simple
It is feasible, *i.e.* answerable within a set timeframe
It is clear and succinct
It is original, setting out to discover something new
The answer will be of benefit and has implication to clinical practice or advancement in science

Appendix 4: Self-development activity

This is a mind map of mine when I was developing the research questions for DBA research project.



Entry 5: Philosophical frameworks for research

Definition of research philosophy and its importance

Literatures have provided some definitions that help the research beginners obtain deeper understanding of philosophical frameworks for research. Thomas Kuhn (1962) first used the term paradigm to present the philosophical way “commitments, beliefs, values, methods, outlooks, etc.” shared in different research discipline. And Lather (1986) explains the word as the belief that s/he has and how s/he acts in. Similarly, Guba and Lincoln (1994) defined a paradigm as a paramount system of beliefs about the nature of the world and the relationships to that world and its parts. Mackenzie & Knie (2006) used the term to describe the researcher’s “worldview”. And as suggested by Schwandt (2001), research philosophy or research paradigm is “A paradigm is a shared world view that represents the beliefs and values in a discipline and that guides how problems are solved.”

When conducting a study, researchers need to consider how to investigate the problem and get the information of the reality and knowledge. paradigm offers the lens (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017) that guides the beliefs and assumptions as well as how to conduct the study, such that the results could be credible to yourself and the community. Therefore, research philosophy is of great importance as they guide the researchers’ beliefs and worldviews and have impact on every aspect in the process of study, including the methodology and methods (Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner, 2012).

Essential elements of a research paradigm

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), there are four essential elements of a paradigm namely, epistemology, ontology, methodology, and axiology.

Epistemology is the theory of knowledge (Guba, 1990), which deals with everything about knowledge. Such as what counts knowledge in the world, and what is the nature of knowledge (Cooksey and McDonald, 2011), how it could be obtained, how to interpret it, how to transfer the knowledge between human

beings, what is the relationship between the knower and the would-be known (Guba, 1990)? These questions are of importance as one of the most vital indicators of the quality of a research is judged by its contributions to the existing knowledge and thus, epistemology influences the researcher's positionality and helps them to build their theory of knowledge and discover something unknown and brand-new (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

Ontology concerned with the nature of being, existence and reality (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017; Lincoln, 1994; Scotland, 2012). It examines the belief system of the categories of existing things and their relationships, is it in one's mind or outside one's mind? In other words, is it subjective or objective? These assumptions help to orientate the researcher's mind toward the meaning and logic of research problems, research design, method of collecting data and the solutions.

Axiology deals with the ethical issues and human values involved in the study (Finnis, 1980). For instance, it refers to evaluating the morally right and wrong behaviour and the value that shall be generated to the stakeholders relating to the study (ARC, 2015).

As suggested by Patton (2002) and Crotty (1998), methodology answers the question of how we should study the world with certain "strategy or plan of action". And Troudi (2010) defined the methodology as the "the particular technique or instrument employed in the process of data collection."

[Prevalent and frequently used frameworks of assumptions](#)

There are five prevalent and frequently used frameworks of philosophies in business discipline, namely, positivism, interpretivism, critical realism, post-modernism, and pragmatism. Most importantly, there are no universal rules to determine that which paradigm is "better". The worldview, the specific topic and context, along with the existing literature are the guides to help you make your choice.

Appendix 1: References

- 1.ARC. (2015). National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007 (Updated May 2015). Canberra: Australian Research Council.
- 2.Crotty, M. (1998). The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process. London: Sage.
- 3.Elshafie (2013). Research Paradigms: The Novice Researcher's Nightmare. Arab World English Journal. Vol.4 NO.2.
- 4.Finnis, J. (1980). Natural Law and Natural Rights. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- 5.Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. Handbook of qualitative research, 3rd Edn. (pp. 105 – 117). California: Sage.
- 6.Jörg Strübing (2007). Research as Pragmatic Problem solving: The Pragmatist Roots of Empirically grounded Theorizing. The SAGE Handbook of Grounded Theory.
- 7.Kivunja and Kuyini (2017). Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts. International Journal of Higher Education Vol. 6, No. 5.
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- 10.Mackenzie, N. & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: paradigms, methods and methodology. Issues in Educational Research, 16, 1-15.
- 11.Patton, M.Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- 12.Schwandt, T.A. (2001). Dictionary of qualitative inquiry (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

13.Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9), pp. 9–16.

14.Troudi, S. (2010). Paradigmatic nature and theoretical framework in educational research. In Al- Hamly M, Coombe C, Davidson P, Shehada (Eds.), *English in Learning: Learning in English*. Dubai: TESOL Arabia Publications, 315-323.

15.Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner (2012). Chapter 3: Selecting a research approach: Paradigm, methodology and methods. *Doing social research: A global context*, 51-61.

Appendix 2: Useful links

1. Western Philosophy of Social Science

<http://www-personal.umd.umich.edu/~delittle/Lectures/wpss%20lecture%204.pdf>

2. Research Philosophy in RM

<https://research-methodology.net/research-philosophy/>

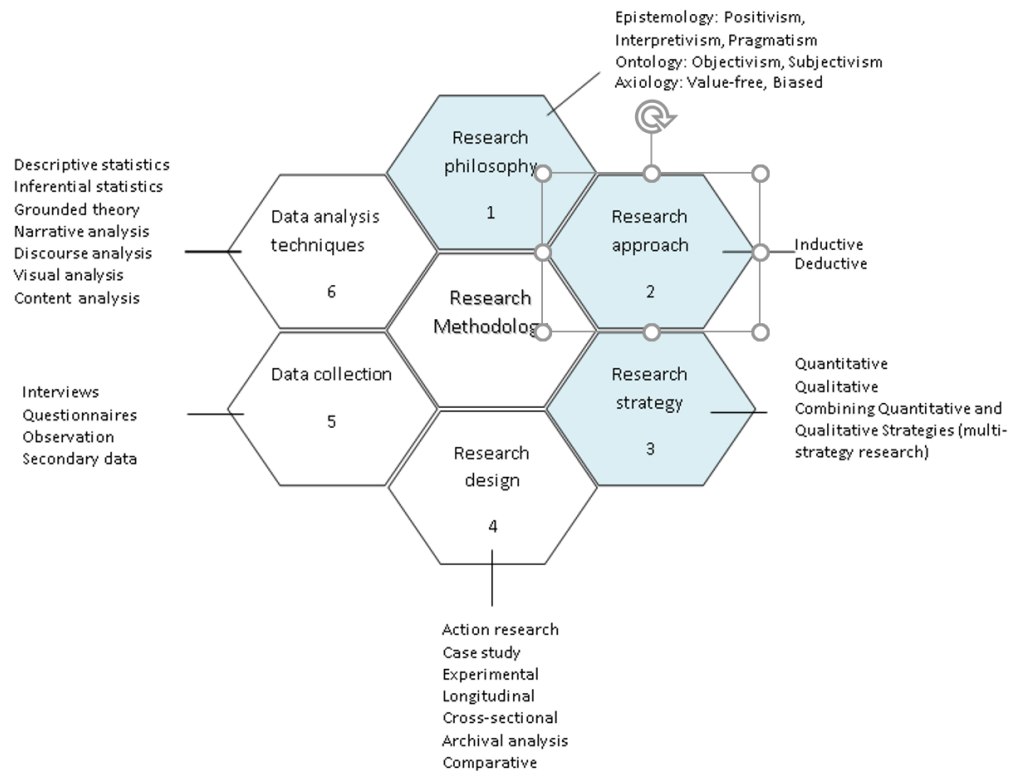
3. What is a Research Paradigm? - Reading Craze

<https://readingcraze.com/index.php/what-is-a-research-paradigm/>

Appendix 3: Frameworks, figures, and tables

1. The Honeycomb of Research Methodology (Wilson, 2013)

FIGURE 1.1 The Honeycomb of Research Methodology (©2013 Jonathan Wilson)

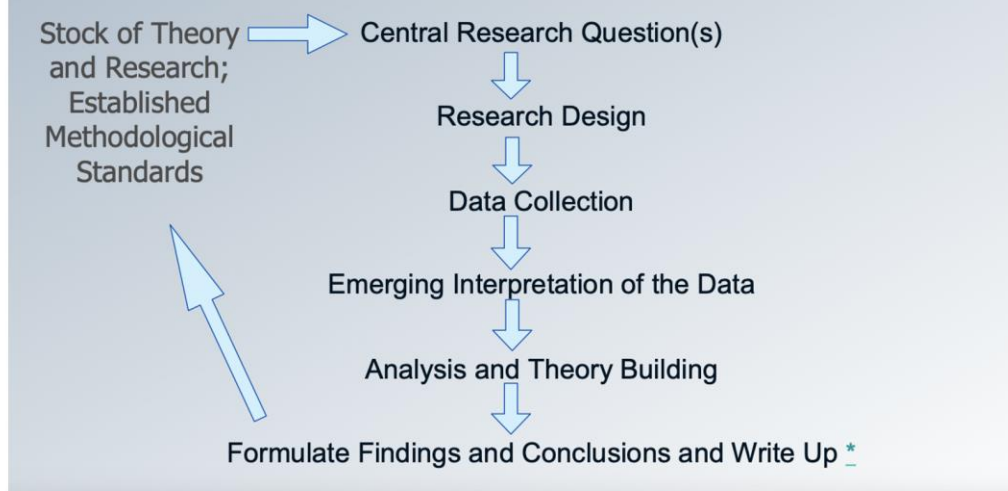


2. Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches to research

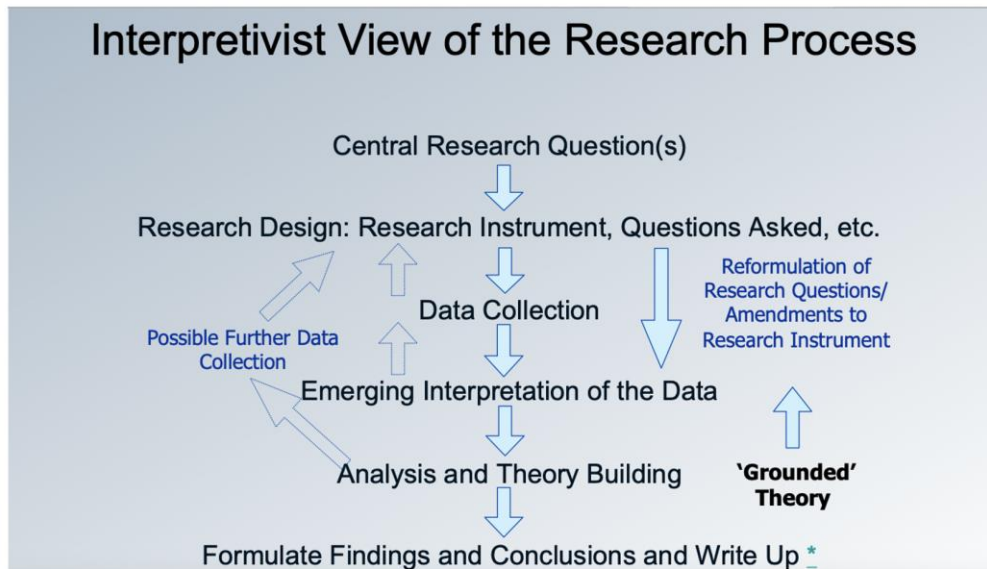
<i>Deduction emphasises</i>	<i>Induction emphasises</i>
- Scientific principles - Moving from theory to data - The need to explain causal relationships between variables - The collection of quantitative data - The application of controls to ensure validity of data - The operationalization of concepts to ensure clarity of definition - A highly structured approach - Researcher independence of what is being researched - The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions	- Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events - A close understanding of the research context - The collection of qualitative data - A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses - A realisation that the research is part of the research process - Less concern with the need to generalise

3. Positivist and Interpretivist View of The Research Process

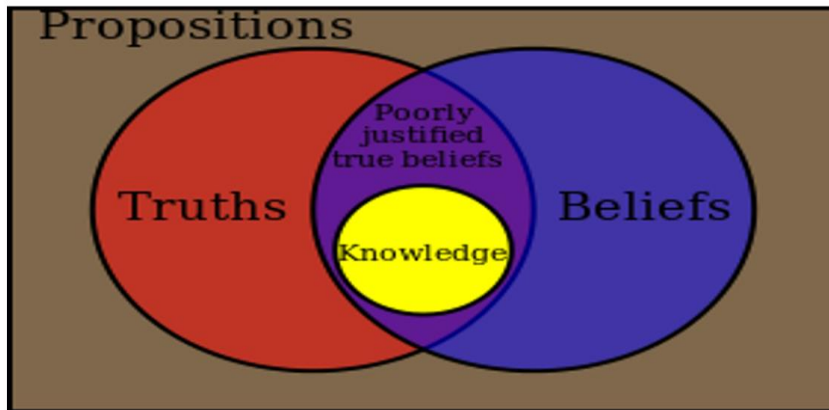
Positivist View of The Research Process



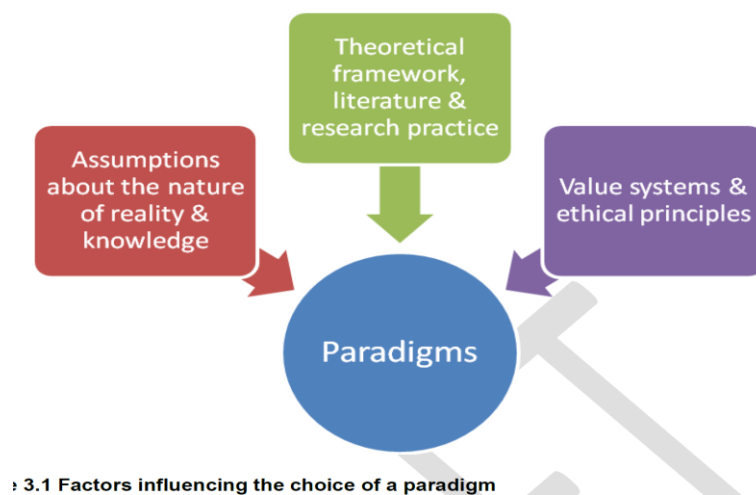
Interpretivist View of the Research Process



4. The relationship between truth, knowledge, and belief (Plato defined knowledge as “Well-adjusted true belief”).



5. Facts Influencing the Choice of Paradigms



Appendix 4: Self development activities

1. "Please fill in the gaps". This is a development activity during the class that help me to differentiate different types of research paradigms.

	<i>Research approach</i>	<i>Ontology</i>	<i>Axiology</i>	<i>Research strategy</i>
<i>Positivism</i>	Deductive	Objective	Value-free	Quantitative
<i>Interpretivism</i>	Inductive	Subjective	Biased	Qualitative
<i>Pragmatism</i>	Deductive/ Inductive	Objective and Subjective	Value-free/ Biased	Qualitative and/or Quantitative

Positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism epistemologies

2. as I leave my hard copy of the document in the accommodation in the UK, therefore, I can only give the miniature of development activity relating research paradigm.

Practical – Research Paradigm

Whether we are aware of it or not, we all operate on a belief system. Sometimes we are able to articulate this, but most of the time it is hidden to us. Often we operate on a hidden belief system, we are not aware of our prejudices. As researchers, it is vital that we know where we stand before we embark on our research. Being aware of our belief system (paradigm) is part of our education and the gold standard. Doxey of Philosophy, is an illustration of this.

Understanding our own belief systems also empowers us as we begin to see the underlying beliefs and possible prejudices in others' work. We can challenge the views of our own subject groups, who might be operating in a manner imposed on them by others through time. Being aware of our belief system makes an conscious being and enables us to confidently challenge the standard positions of our discipline.

ACTIVITY: What's the paradigm for your research?

Question 1: Describe your own research topic or one you might choose to research and explain how you might go about researching it. Once you have done that, see if you can identify the paradigm you use. What methodologies could you use?

Your research topic:

Your paradigm:

Your epistemology:

Your ontology:

Your choice of methodologies:

Question 2

If you put your research into a different paradigm, how might you then carry out your research?

Whenever paradigms are working within, our approach will be systematic. This requires heightened learning from research. We will collect data in many guises (text, figures, experimental findings, opinions, anecdotes etc) and then interpret this in relation to current body of knowledge and/or our own opinion in order to contribute to that knowledge community.

In order to clarify this it may be worth looking at the knowledge hierarchy, sometimes referred to as the DIKW Cycle (Data, Information, Knowledge, Wisdom). There is some debate as to the origins of DIKW, but if you want to follow this up, consult an article by NABH Sharma (2005). There are claims the DIKW was derived from the T.S. Eliot poem 'The Waste Land' (1922) where this hierarchy was first mentioned.

Source: Gane Balliger (2004) Systems Thinking, Knowledge Management – Emerging Perspectives

D = Data is the facts you will work with and they are without context.

I = Information comprises these facts with some context and perspective allowing you to see the relations between data.

K = Knowledge comprises information and where you start to see patterns in these relations and begin to understand those patterns. Patterns give you predictability and repeatability (validity and reliability).

W = Wisdom comprises knowledge and occurs when you understand why those patterns are occurring (when the pattern is understood at this level you have high predictive and reliability powers. At this point you can determine the bounding principles for the pattern).

Your work therefore needs to move through to at least the 'knowledge' level of this model. Can you see how to do that? Look at the following 'walk through' of the knowledge hierarchy (DIKW).

- Your hypothesis or research question will enable you to devise a research paradigm which identifies the data you need and how to collect it (data).
- Through the work of others and your own findings you can contextualise your data through analysis and start to make sense of it by identifying relations within the data in a given context (information).
- From your analysis you may start to see patterns of recurring behaviour which you now begin to understand. You may be able to answer what is happening in a given context. Here you need to apply some critical analysis that enables you to contextualise and interpret your findings. As a Master student you may only carry your research to this point (knowledge).
- From the knowledge gained and possibly some follow up studies in addition to the work of others, you may be able to understand why those patterns of behaviour are occurring and develop/reproduce a functional model as an explanation (wisdom).

ACTIVITY: Identify the paradigm for the DIKW model

Identify the paradigm behind the approach taken by DIKW. Does it fit with your research? Could you modify it to align with your paradigm?

Your answer:

Entry 6: Types of research and research design

The definition of research design

As Saunders et al., (2016) suggested, a research design is a plan for answering research questions, which involves the research objectives, the methodology and research strategy, the population and sample, and time and ethical issue related to the project. And Barbara (2006) and Creswell (2014) considered the research design is an overall strategy and procedure to coherently and logically integrate different parts of the study, and it consists of the whole process of collecting, measuring and analysing data.

Types of research

There are various versions of dividing the researches into different categories. For instance, Kerlinger (1973) and Trochim (2000) suggested researches can be inductive or deductive, which aimed at building the theory from observation—pattern—tentative hypothesis (bottom up method), and testing the existing theory to hypothesis—observation—confirmation (top-down method), respectively.

While Saunders et al., (2016) hold the view that there are three kinds of research designs, namely exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory study. In detail, exploratory studies focus on discovering something new and understanding or assessing the phenomena. Descriptive studies refer to obtain thorough and exhaustive profiles of the subjects and contexts. And Explanatory studies works for determining causal relationships between variables. It is common for combining the two or three kinds of studies in one research, to provide a more detailed explanation for the discovering or correlation.

Another classification made by Nils (2009) is to address the importance of the distinction between basic and applied research. In his view, basic research (or pure or fundamental research) is an investigation to create ideas, principles, and theories to improve understanding of phenomena. By providing a new and

deep insight into the problems, the basic researches may not be immediately applied to solve the practical problems but it the newly advanced knowledge will greatly improve the way of practitioners solving a problem in the future. Adversely, applied research uses scientific processes and knowledge to deal with practical problems. It is the practical application of science, like engineering and medicine, technology, etc. As it has a problem or data driven orientation, most of the experiments, case studies and cross-disciplinary research are applied research.

Some literatures further divided the researches into quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method research, but others just considered them as research strategies (Saunders et al., 2016). As indicated, quantitative research refers to those researches use numerical data, large scale samples and aim to generalizing the theory to different contexts. While in qualitative research, in-depth, open-ended, and flexible research methods and data are used to generate holistic picture. And mixed method is usually adopted by pragmatic and Realists researchers by involving using of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

There are some other types of researches, such as archival research, action research, longitudinal research, cross-sectional research, policy-oriented research, classification research, etc. However, a research should be able to make justification of why s/he chooses a certain type of research design, which should consistent with the research objectives as well as the research philosophy.

Appendix 1: References

1. Context of Design. Performance Studies Methods Course syllabus. New York University, Spring 2006; Trochim, William M.K. Research Methods Knowledge Base.

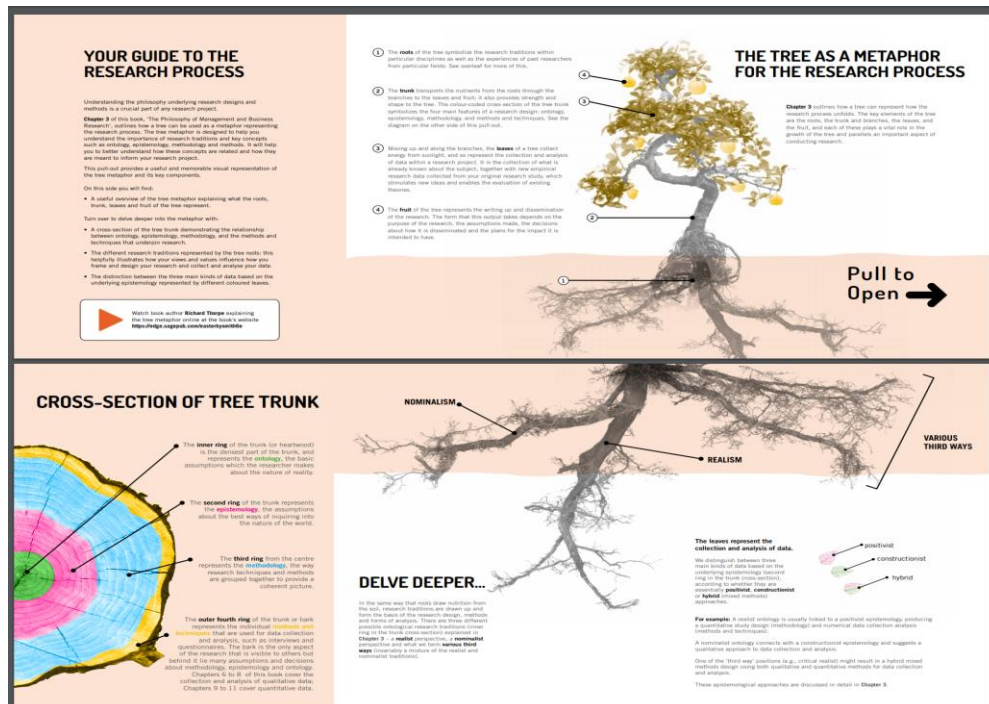
2. Creswell, John W. (2014). Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
3. Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, Barbara (2006). Part 1, What Is Research Design? The Context of Design. Performance Studies Methods Course syllabus. New York University.
4. Muaz, Jalil Mohammad (2013), Practical Guidelines for conducting research. Summarizing good research practice in line with the DCED Standard.
5. Nils (2009). Why the distinction between basic (theoretical) and applied (practical) research is important in the politics of science (Report). The London School of Economics and Political Science.
6. Robson, C. (1993). Real-world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers. Malden: Blackwell Publishing.
7. Trochim, W. (2000). The Research Methods Knowledge Base, 2nd Edition. Atomic Dog Publishing, Cincinnati, OH.
8. "What is basic research?". National Science Foundation. Retrieved 2014-05-31: https://www.nsf.gov/pubs/1953/annualreports/ar_1953_sec6.pdf.

Appendix 2: Useful links

1. Types of scientific research
<https://innspub.net/types-of-scientific-research/>
2. Types of research designs
<https://libguides.usc.edu/writingguide/researchdesigns>
3. Research Design – Types of Research Design
<https://scholarshipfellow.com/research-design-types-research-design/>
4. How to create a research design
<https://www.scribbr.com/research-process/research-design/>

Appendix 3: Important Figures

1. The tree as a metaphor for research process

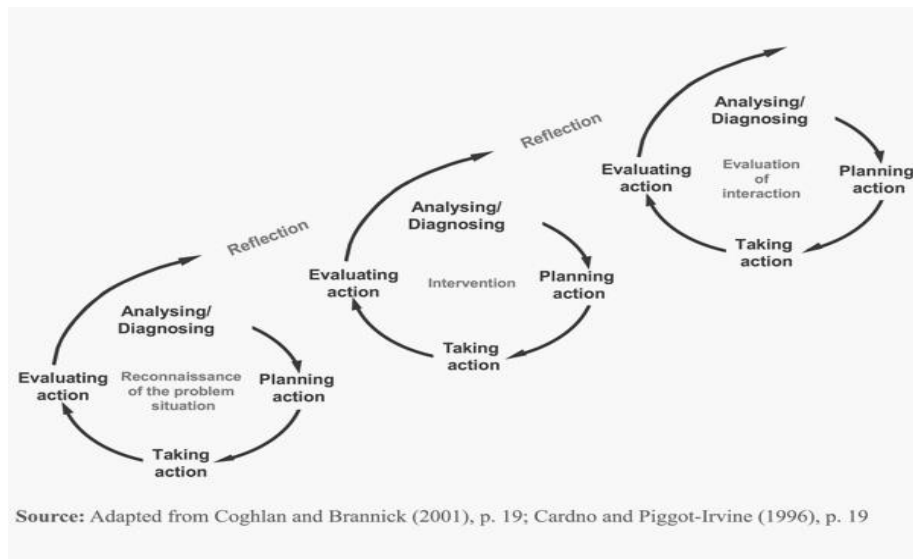


2. Type of Research

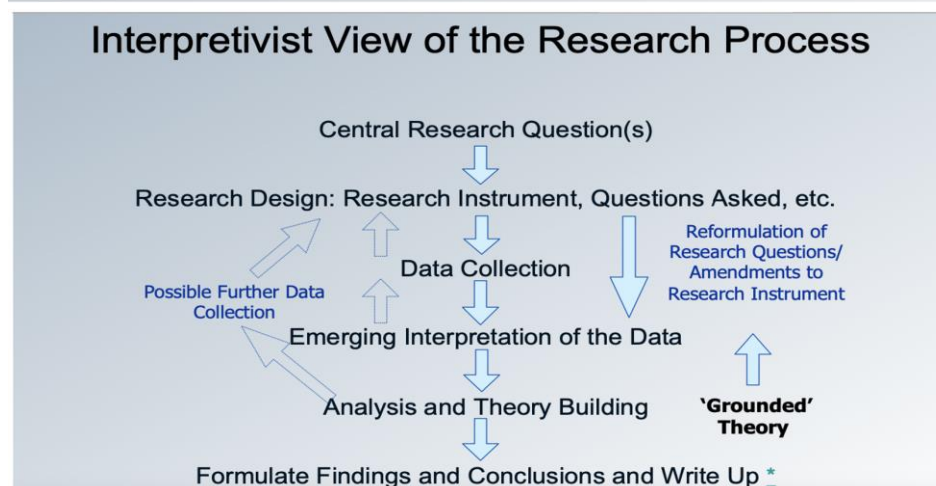
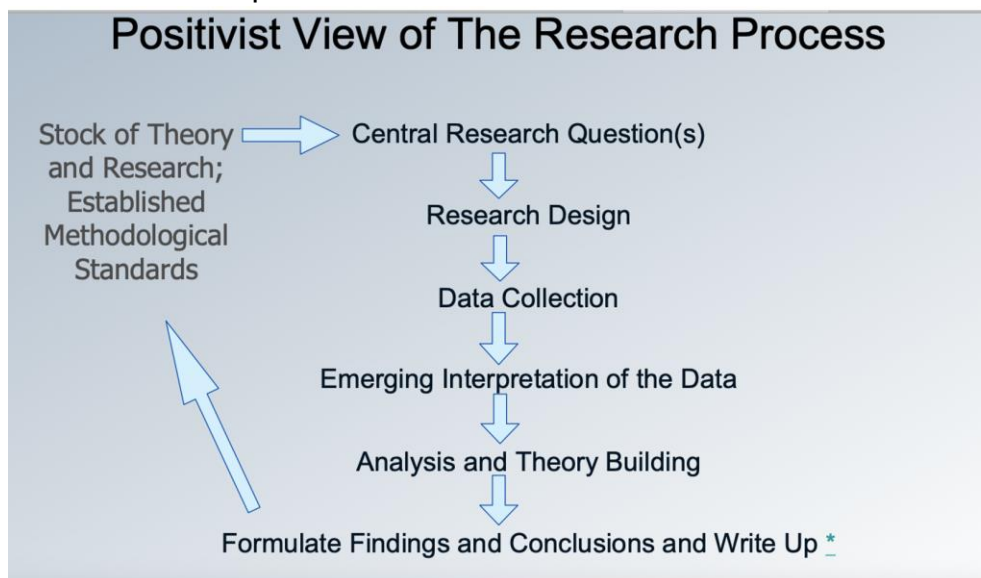
Type of Research

- **Qualitative:** In-depth, open-ended and unquantifiable, small scale, in-depth, unstructured & unquantifiable information (e.g. attitudes, opinions, beliefs), holistic, flexible
- **Quantitative:** Information that can be summarised by numbers, large scale, generalizable, structured, focused clearly on one or more research questions

3. Action Research Spiral



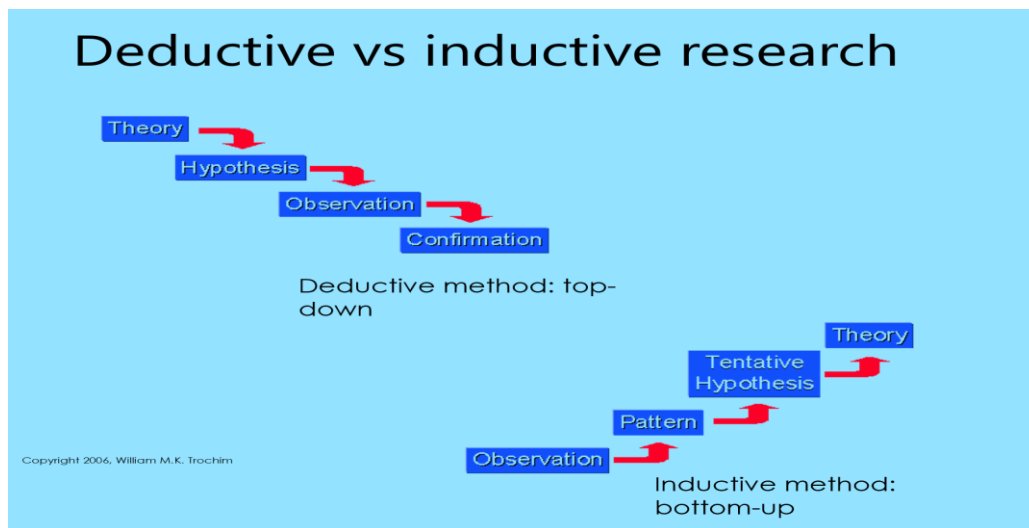
4. Positivist/ Interpretivist View of The Research Process



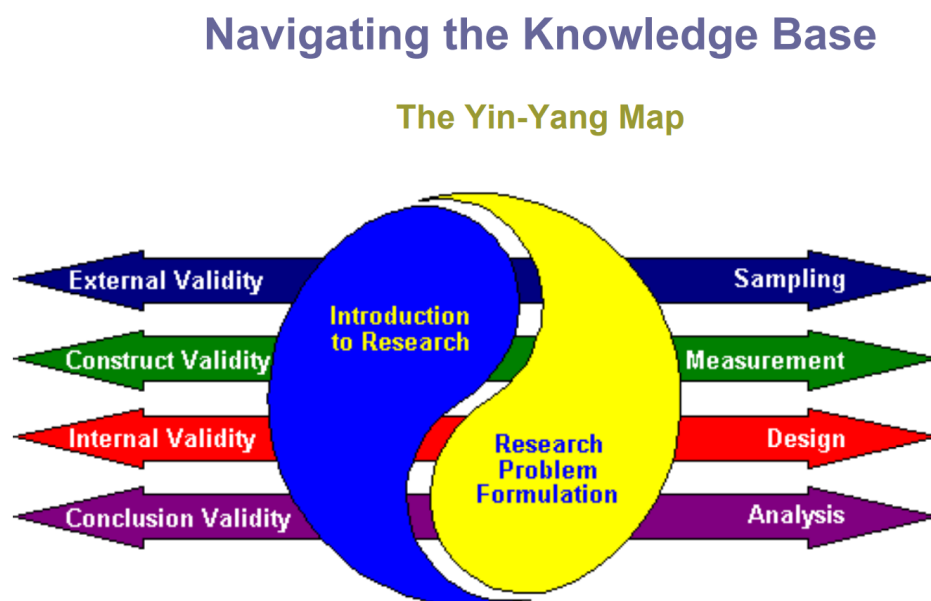
5. Qual Vs Quan: Basic differences

	Qualitative	Quantitative
Purpose	To describe a situation, gain insight to particular practice...	To measure magnitude-How widespread is a practice...
Format	No pre-determined response categories	Pre-determined response categories, standard measures
Data	In-depth explanatory data from a small sample	Wide breadth of data from large statistically representative sample
Analysis	Draws out patterns from concepts and insights	Tests hypotheses, uses data to support conclusion
Result	Illustrative explanation & individual responses	Numerical aggregation in summaries, responses are clustered
Sampling	Theoretical	Statistical

6. The deductive and inductive research reasoning.



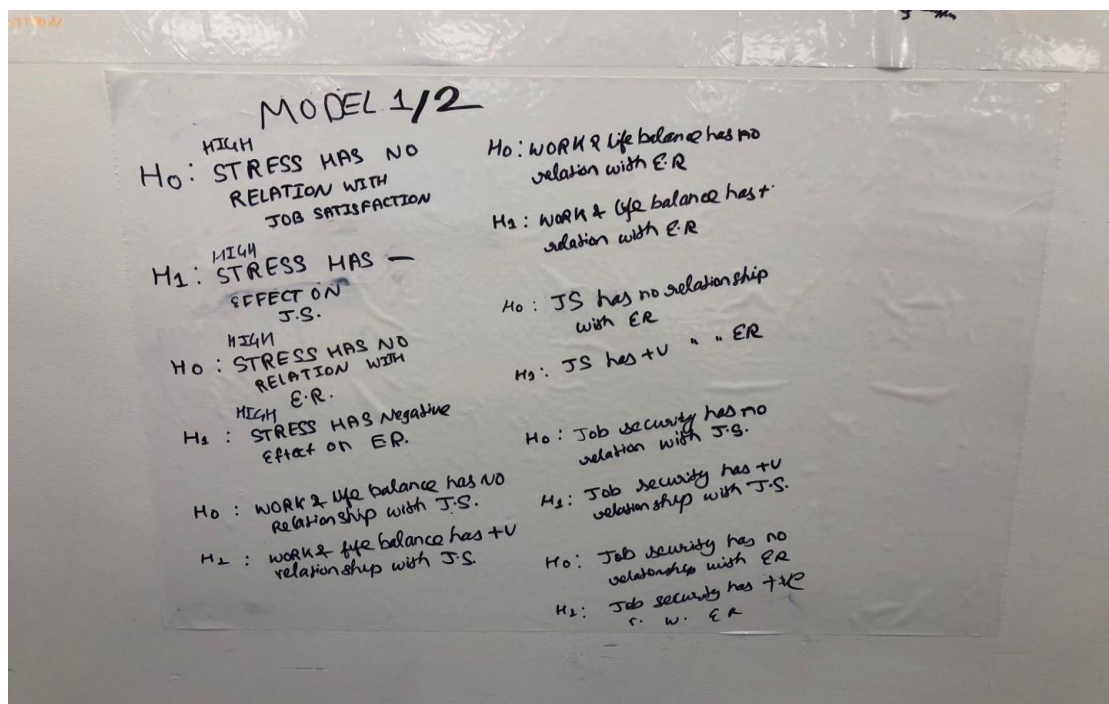
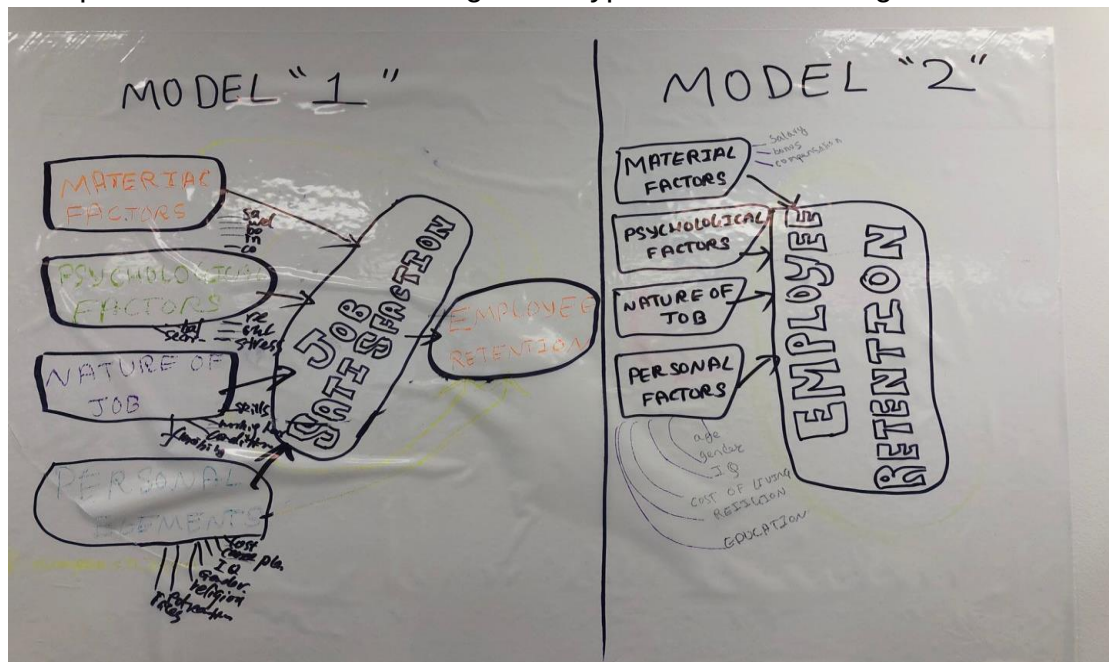
7. The Chinese YIN YANG map of Research.



The Yin and the Yang of Research

Appendix 4: Self-development activity

Group activities of research design and hypothesis formulating.



Entry 7: Research ethics and integrity

The Definition of Ethics

Regarding the definition of ethics, there are two major denominations. The first one refers to rules and regulations for determining between right and wrong. As the definition of Ethic in Cambridge dictionary is “The study of what is morally right and wrong, or a set of beliefs about what is morally right and wrong.” Similarly, Ferrell, Fraedrich and Ferrell (p 8) and (Craig, xxii) Also consider ethic is a philosophy about determining acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. However, there are still distinguish and discriminative discrepancies between ethics and morality.

Although it is all about providing standards for judging the right and wrong of behaviour, ethic focuses on professional interactions, with rules provided by an external source, e.g., codes of conduct, codes of ethics, codes of practice. Morality focuses on private, personal interactions.

Typical examples like “Golden Rules” (Kant, 1785) of deontology and “Harm Principle” (Mill, 1873) of teleology.

Another type of definition is a method, procedure, or perspective for deciding how to act and for analysing complex problems and issues (Resnik, 2015). For instance, while dealing with some complex business issues, supporters of Friedman (1970), Freeman (1984) or those believes in care ethics as Gilligan (1982) and Nelson (2010), could adopt completely different decisions.

The Definition of Research Integrity

The definition of Research Integrity reported by the Nature of Science refers to a commitment to intellectual honesty and personal responsibility for one’s actions and to a range of practices that characterize responsible research conduct. It is research practice with ethical and professional criterion. Conforming ethical doctrine is paramount for research integrity.

Why does it matter?

First, whether it is due to "stressful" or "imperfect" environmental or individual factor (Shamoo and Resnik 2015), research misconduct could generate far-reaching consequences for individuals and society. Take this world epidemic, coronavirus-19 as an example, if researchers from various countries fabricating, falsifying, or misrepresenting research data would impede the truth and minimize error and bring about worldwide tragedies. Therefore, promote and comply with the principles and standards of research ethics and integrity could facilitate discovering the knowledge, reality, truth, and avoidance of error.

Second, research ethics contains many important morality standards and social values, such as human rights (The Universal Declaration of Human Rights article 12: No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation), animal welfare, public health and safety, etc. Therefore, apply the norms of research ethical principles help to be responsible and accountable for the society.

Third, as the research process often requires people from different institutions to cooperate and coordinate among different disciplines. The principles, standards, and norms included in research ethics, such as peer review, data confidentiality, and copyright are conducive to protecting the rights and interests of various stakeholders and promoting mutual trust, respect, and cooperation.

Important practical ethical tools

with the help of Seedhouse's Ethical Grid (2007) and Flinders' Ethical Frameworks (1992), ethical research protocols, sets of ethical standards and additional consideration as well as some unseen corners could be developed to formulate the controllable research (Stutchbury and Fox, 2009).

Seedhouse's ethical grid is work is originally designed for healthcare research, can be used as a tool in different disciplines (Stutchbury and Fox, 2009). It consists of four layers, namely, external considerations, consequential Layer, duties and motives and concerns for individuals.

Flinder's Ethical Matrix was designed to tackle problems with distinctive philosophical perspectives and promote researchers to behave ethically. Flinder's matrix could be applied to reflect both the philosophical and practical dimension and take steps to protect stakeholders.

Appendix 1: References

- 1.Kant (1993). Grounding for the Metaphysics of Morals. Translated by Ellington, James W. (3rd ed.).
- 2.Kaptein, Wempe (2002). Three General Theories of Ethics and the Integrative Role of Integrity Theory. SSRN Electronic Journal.
- 3.Mill (1859). On Liberty. Oxford, England: Oxford University. pp. 21–22. Retrieved February 27, 2008.
- 4.Nelson (2010). Care Ethics and Markets: A View from Feminist Economics. Global development and environment institute working paper NO.10-02.
- 5.Shamoo and Resnik (2015). Responsible Conduct of Research. Oxford University Press. Third Edition.
6. Stutchbury and Fox (2009).Ethics in educational research: Introducing a methodological tool for effective ethical analysis. Cambridge Journal of Education 39(4).

Appendix 2: List of useful web sites

- 1.Code of ethic in AOM:

<https://aom.org/About-AOM/AOM-Code-of-Ethics.aspx>

- 2.What Is Ethics in Research & Why Is It Important?

<https://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/resources/bioethics/whatis/index.cfm>

3. Research Ethics & Misconduct: What Researchers Need to Know

<https://www.enago.com/academy/principles-of-ethical-research/>

4. The British Academy of Management's Code of Ethics and Best Practice

<https://www.bam.ac.uk/sites/bam.ac.uk/files/The%20British%20Academy%20of%20Management%27s%20Code%20of%20Ethics%20and%20Best%20Practice%20for%20Members.pdf>

5. The Ethical Basis of Responsible Conduct of Research in Humans

<https://ori.hhs.gov/education/products/ucla/chapter1/page02.htm>

Appendix 3: definitions, figures and tables

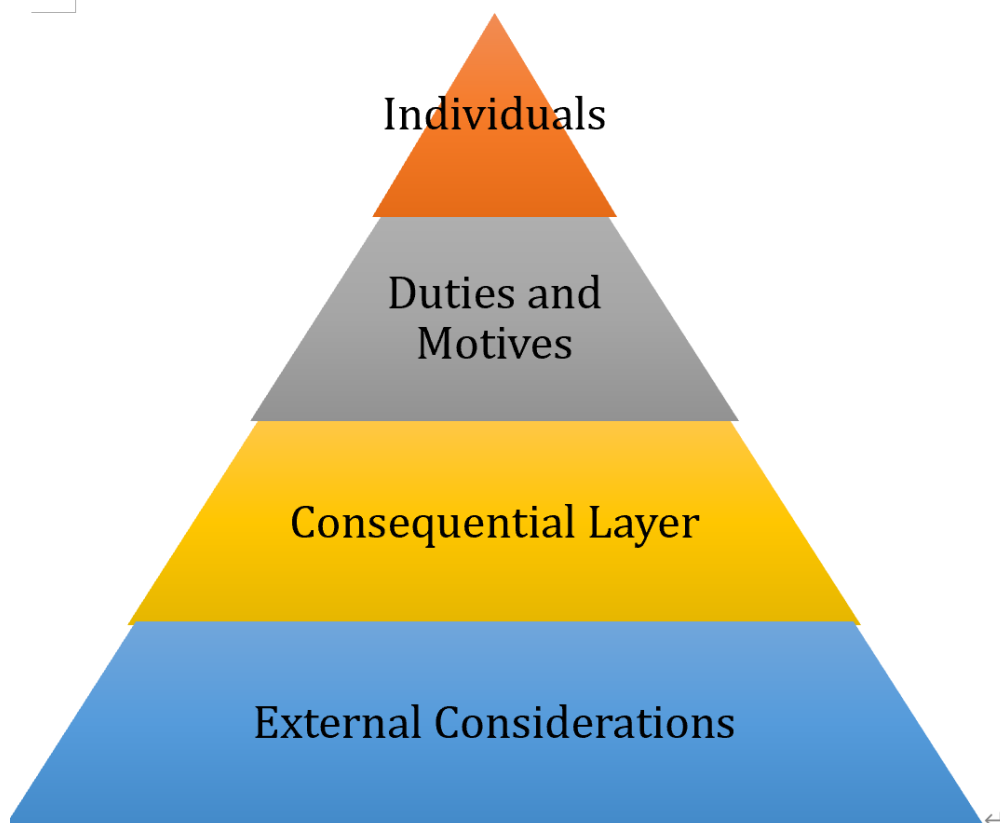
1. Definition of ethic

<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/ethic>

2. What is research integrity:

https://grants.nih.gov/policy/research_integrity/what-is.htm

3. Figure Seedhouse's Ethical Grid (2007)



4. Table Adapted from Flinders' Ethical Frameworks and Aspects of Research applied to the GI (Flinders, 1992)

	Utilitarian	Deontological	Relational	Ecological
Recruitment	<i>Informed consent</i>	<i>Reciprocity</i>	<i>Collaboration</i>	<i>Cultural sensitivity</i>
Fieldwork	<i>Avoidance of harm</i>	<i>Avoidance of wrong</i>	<i>Avoidance of imposition</i>	<i>Avoidance of detachment</i>
Reporting	<i>Confidentiality</i>	<i>Fairness</i>	<i>Confirmation</i>	<i>Responsive communication</i>

Appendix 4: Personal self development activities

In this session on research integrity and ethics, I worked individually with the Seedhouse's Ethical Grid. The following are the pictures representing the answers adapted

with my research topics.

External considerations⁴³

External considerations may include national policies and regulations, peer competition, available resources, risks and obstacles may encounter as well as possible conflicts of interest among stakeholders when recruiting participants, doing fieldwork and reporting the results. Therefore, it is necessary to consider all potential issues in advance and communicate clearly with the stakeholders to obtain consent. At the same time, pay attention to the wording and setting of research questions, and try to allow the subjects to answer questions in hypothetical language, such as A leader, B subordinate, etc. (to avoid the adverse consequences of the subjects due to the unethical behaviour involving the disclosure of their superiors). The whole processes should be controlled and monitored under the supervision of researchers and UWTSD.⁴⁴

⁴⁴

Consequential layer⁴⁵

There were consequences of the research for the researcher, the key stakeholders and society. First, the biggest beneficiary of the research may be the researcher, who can help her get a degree. For the managers in organizations, as the research need their help to arrange time and place for the questionnaires and interviews, which may interrupt the normal office hours and occupy human resources. Second, as the researcher also aims to help organizations improve the creativity of employees by encouraging ethical behaviours of leaders, which could be a mutually beneficial process. However, the employees may not be identified. It is crucial to avoid of harm, avoid of wrong and avoid of impact and make sure of anonymity and confidentiality. Last but not the least, the contact information of researchers should be available to the stakeholders. ⁴⁵

Duties and motives⁴⁶

It is the responsibility of researchers to take appropriate measures to protect participants from harm. Therefore, in the head of the questionnaire, noticing of not imposition as well as anonymous and confidential should be addressed. Any circumstances, the participates could stop at any time. At the same time, before conducting interview, details of how, when and where should be asked for consent. It is wise to take advices from the colleagues, supervisors, experts or other experienced researchers. For instance, whether they are willing to take face-to-face interviews or prefer to make a phone call, or whether the conversation could be recorded, should everyone have a code, etc. ⁴⁶

There are two motivations for researchers to conduct the research. First, in order to get her DBA degree. Second, it aims to provide ideas for organizations to improve the creativity of employees by advancing the moral level of leaders and standardizing leaders' business moral behaviours. For participants, the direct

benefits may not be visible, but following an ethical leader and working in an ethical organization is conducive to the physical and mental health of employees, as well as their long-term career development. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), followers could learn the norms of ethical conduct by observing the role models (the ethical leaders). And social exchange theory posits that when employees perceived a leader as a caring and concerned model, they feel obliged to reciprocate. ⁴⁷

Therefore, the research could serve a result of reciprocity. ⁴⁸

Concern for individuals ⁴⁹

Whether in the recruitment, fieldwork or report stage, researchers should try to ensure that all stakeholders are not infringed. At any time, careful, patient and respect communication, as well as the confirmation of information consent should be conducted. In addition, instead of leading the conversation, let the participants take the lead in the interview, the researchers just guide them to say.⁴⁹