

**Change champions: Champions change**

**Thesis submitted for the degree of  
Doctor of Education  
at the University of Leicester**

**by**

**John Frank Deary BA Hons (Oxford Brookes), M Phil Hons (Univ of Auckland)**

**March 2008**

## **Abstract**

Since the start of the 21<sup>st</sup> century the United Arab Emirates (UAE) has experienced mass development, and this has been accompanied by a growing attention to public sector organizations and their need for change. Consequently, linked to change in the UAE higher education sector is the search for avenues that improve performance.

This thesis is about ‘champions’ and ‘championing’ change in a UAE higher education institution. ‘Champions’ introduce change, fight for change, and defend others through change. In turn, the champion can be viewed as representing a cause and conquering change. There has been a tendency to overlook the importance of championing and the role of champions in a UAE higher education context, despite the attention given to institutional change in recent years.

In this thesis it will be argued that champions of change are a necessary and important part of higher education institutional change. A champion is somebody or something on which others can rely during institutional change. While change may be implemented in the form of structured rationalisation and mission statements, it is the champions that lead and secure institutional change. It will be argued that champions are the key to creating institutional change.

The goal of this study is to understand and explain how change leadership works at one particular institution. Following a review of relevant literature, research questions were formulated. These were addressed through an interpretive case study undertaken at a particular UAE higher education institution. The study predominantly used ethnographic methods of data collection, which allowed a set of themes to be identified from interviews, focus groups and observation(s) at the case study institution. It will be argued that the themes show how champions emerge during institutional change.

**Keywords:** change – champions – championing – communities of practice – higher education – UAE.

## **Acknowledgements**

There are many people without whose support I would never have completed this thesis.

My appreciation and thanks goes to all participants in this study who willingly offered their own time, and to the case study institution that permitted access to study the participants' experiences of organization change. It is my sincere hope that I have represented them faithfully. Without their help this study would not have been possible.

I wish to give special thanks to my supervisor Dr Hugh Busher, with whom I have spent some searching times during my journey to complete this study. At the same time I have appreciated Dr Busher's honesty and encouragement when I needed it most, particularly during the times I needed to move on and forward. The journey has been in part lonely, but I have always known that I could rely on his support.

I have benefited from the support of friends and colleagues. In particular, I would like to thank Angela Kammer, Gary Pathare, Khaled Temsah and Dr John Politis.

And last but not least a big thank you to my wife Wendy for her continued love and support. Although at times it must have seemed like one journey too many, you have always tried to help and provide understanding through challenging times. You have been there as a friend and critic.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Abstract</b> .....	i
<b>Acknowledgements</b> .....	ii
<b>Table of contents</b> .....	iii
<b>List of figures</b> .....	vii
<b>List of tables</b> .....	viii
<b>Appendices</b> .....	ix
<b>Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview</b> .....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Purpose and outline of the chapter.....	1
1.3 Context of the study.....	2
1.4 Nature of the research problem.....	5
1.5 Significance, purpose and scope of the study.....	6
1.6 Danger of subjectivity.....	9
1.7 Organization of the thesis.....	10
1.8 Summary of chapter.....	11
<b>Chapter 2: Literature Review</b> .....	13
2.1 Purpose and outline of the chapter.....	13
2.2 Research and organizational change.....	14
2.2.1 Reactions to change.....	17
2.2.2 Understanding organization change.....	18
2.3 Leadership of change.....	20
2.3.1 Leaders of change.....	22
2.3.2 Leader influence.....	24

2.4	Understanding organization culture.....	26
2.4.1	Creating a culture, facilitating change.....	29
2.4.2	The learning of culture.....	30
2.4.3	Managing culture.....	32
2.4.4	Culture applied.....	34
2.4.5	The context of culture in UAE.....	36
2.5	Understanding change processes in HE in the UAE.....	38
<b>Chapter 3: Methodology and Analysis.....</b>		<b>42</b>
3.1	Purpose and outline of chapter.....	42
3.2	Research design and data collection methods.....	42
3.2.1	Being an insider researcher.....	46
3.2.2	Why a case study and what type of case study.....	47
3.3	Data collection.....	50
3.3.1	Interviews and focus groups.....	51
3.3.2	Participant observation.....	59
3.3.3	Documentary evidence.....	60
3.4	Data analysis.....	60
3.5	Ethical considerations.....	62
3.6	Validity and trustworthiness.....	64
3.6.1	Sampling.....	66
3.7	Summary.....	69
<b>Chapter 4: Findings, Analysis and Discussion.....</b>		<b>70</b>
4.1	Purpose and outline of chapter.....	70
4.2	The context for the study.....	71

4.3	The context of change.....	72
4.4	Who and what are perceived as change leaders by staff and students?.....	75
4.4.1	Symbols of change.....	79
4.4.2	Feelings of the individual during change.....	81
4.5	Why do staff and students respond as they do to change leaders?.....	83
4.5.1	Being close to others in change.....	87
4.5.2	Carrying change forward.....	90
4.6	How does change construct leaders? .....	91
4.6.1	Champions help others change.....	93
4.6.2	Champions of practice and change.....	94
4.7	How do leaders construct change?.....	98
4.7.1	Change and the need for champions.....	102
4.7.2	Champion styles.....	103
4.8	Why and how are change leaders shaped?.....	104
4.8.1	Shielded from change.....	115
4.8.2	The role of the champion.....	116
4.9	Synthesis of findings.....	119
<b>Chapter 5: Conclusions.....</b>		<b>128</b>
5.1	Purpose and outline of chapter.....	128
5.2	Overview of the study.....	128
5.3	Review of findings.....	129
5.4	Implications for change leadership.....	134
5.5	Limitations of the study.....	135
5.6	Implications for future research and practice.....	136
5.7	Reflection on research from this study.....	137

5.8	Conclusions.....	138
	<b>References.....</b>	<b>140</b>
	<b>Appendices.....</b>	<b>181</b>

## List of Figures

Figure	Title	Page
2.1	Change Application Model for UAE Higher Education	40
4.1	Change Champion Dependency Model	121



## List of Tables

Table	Title	Page
4.1	Summary of student responses to champion characteristics	117

## **List of appendices**

Appendices	Title	Page
Appendix A	Distribution for interviews and focus groups	181
Appendix B	Observation in the field	182
Appendix C	Student interview transcript	184
Appendix D	Staff interview transcript	194
Appendix E	Student champion themes and connections	203
Appendix F	Mapping categories and connections	204
Appendix G	Staff champion themes and connections	205
Appendix H	Student champion themes and connections	206
Appendix I	Pilot focus group change leader characteristics mapping	207
Appendix J	Student focus group transcript	209
Appendix K	Field notes extract	217

# **Chapter 1**

## **Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction**

‘Champions’ and ‘championing of change’ is the focus of this thesis. The research took place in a specific higher education institute in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). While the ‘championing’ of a cause is something that is referred to in everyday life, the contribution and construction of ‘champions’ in a higher education context is something that the author believes has been understated as an important part of institutional change. The desire to understand and explain how championing works, has been the force behind this study.

Behavioural change in organisations has received a great deal of attention. For example, the focus has been on the implanting of new attitudes and approaches of organization members. The subject of championing has been under-studied, although, from this study it has emerged as a central facet of institutional change. ‘Champions’ and ‘championing’ therefore need to be understood so that their contribution to institutional development can be realised and utilised, given that change is a necessary factor in improving organizational performance and effectiveness. (See Chapter 4 and 5 for a more detailed discussion of what ‘championing change’ means.)

### **1.2 Purpose and outline of the chapter**

In Chapter 1, the importance of the topic of change leadership is outlined, the context of change in UAE and the higher education sector is explained briefly, and the nature of the research problem is discussed. The second part of the chapter outlines the research aims and objectives. This is followed by a short description of the qualitative approach adopted, that yielded the themes that are reported later in this thesis. The third part of the chapter relates to the author’s personal experiences during the research process. An outline guide to the organization of the remainder of the thesis is then given, and the chapter concludes with a summary of the chapter.

### **1.3 Context of the study**

The UAE is a federation of seven small states, ruled by a President and directly nominated government of Sheikhs from the ruling tribes. The population of approximately 4.1 million ([www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint\\_misc/](http://www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint_misc/)) consists of 21.9% Emirati nationals and 78.1% expatriates ([www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint\\_misc/](http://www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint_misc/)). Economically, unusually large revenue from oil and gas accrue directly to the state, and the government distributes this to the national population in the form of free public education, subsidized housing and medical services, and secure government jobs ([www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint\\_misc/](http://www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint_misc/)). Of late, precipitous acquirement of oil coupled with wealth deriving from trade and tourism has made the UAE the fastest growing Gulf state in economic terms. Outward signs of global consumerism have become available inside the period of a generation to a previously lower socio-economic grouping (Findlow, 2005).

The private sector of the economy is run mainly by an expatriate labour force. However, the UAE government has initiated a programme of 'Emiritisation' (see 1.5) in all sectors, with a view to reducing the country's dependence on expatriate workers.

Despite the changes that have already taken place in the UAE's public and private sectors, organizations continue to search for avenues to improve performance, and to enhance the international image of the UAE as a major strategic, trading, business and educational centre. The service organizations' ability to adapt to an increasingly competitive environment has become the difference between their survival and extinction in the UAE. The private sector organizations have advertised the need to enhance service levels and improve staff development and qualifications. This has given impetus to initiatives that help to cultivate new attitudes and approaches in staff, along with a need to affect behavioral change in organizations.

Following the lead of the private sector, the public sector has undergone change programmes that improve quality and levels of customer service. Meanwhile, the established government higher education institutions are experiencing rapid growth,

and change, as technology and market competition call for measurable outcomes that affect and shape the way they function both externally and internally. Like higher education systems around the world, “the UAE system has had to balance fulfilling needs with maintaining global competitiveness” (Findlow, 2005: 300), while at the same time respecting, and being influenced by, Arabic cultural and Islamic religious beliefs (Richardson, 2004).

Education in the UAE has become a “priority for the political leadership of the UAE” (Minister of Education, Dr Hanif Hassan, 2006:6). With this in mind “the leadership has sent messages to everyone who is responsible for education in the country that concentration should be on results rather than numbers or figures” (Minister of Education, Dr Hanif Hassan, 2006:6). Education includes government-funded higher education institutions and overseas universities attempting to establish themselves alongside the multitude of schools that are evident in the UAE (Deary, 2005). The country’s higher education system is widely mentioned as the fastest growing in the Gulf in terms of student numbers and implementation of educational technology. In the context of the changing terrain of higher education in UAE, the sector continues to be largely located in the public sector, and is therefore subject to government financial and administrative control.

As the economy in the UAE has evolved from pearl trading, fishing, farming and nomadic lifestyles through to oil production, international tourism, trading and banking, so too have educational institutes evolved. The emphasis on change has emerged as a theme amongst established education providers and new entrants to the education sector. There have been calls in government higher education administration for an emphasis on leadership implanting a sense of responsibility, and instilling knowledge, with an eye on the future for the education system (Anon, 2004:8).

In the context above, education is “not developed enough to match the same level of the UAE’s development, despite the fact that the education budget is the biggest amongst other ministries’ budgets” (HH Sheikh Mohammad Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice President and Prime Minister of the UAE and Ruler of Dubai, 2006:4). These institutions have been charged with developing the human resources of the UAE so

that they can make a productive contribution to the country (Abdelkarim, 1999; 2001) and to “advance national and regional interests” (HE Sheikh Nayhan Mabarak Al Nayhan, Minister of Education, 2006).

The demographic changes anticipated in the 21<sup>st</sup> century include an incremental rise in the number both of Emiratis and of other nationalities in the UAE who will want access to higher education in the UAE. The established government higher education institutions are experiencing rapid development, growth and change. To accompany such change pressures (Stewart & Kringas, 2003) there is an expectation from the central controlling higher education administrative body that there will be improvement of organizational performance and organizational effectiveness, along with initiatives to improve the core functions of teaching and learning and a drive for international accreditation and affiliations (Findlow, 2005). The implications for government-funded higher educational institutions is that change interventions are increasingly important as change is introduced at an accelerated pace. One thing that has remained the same is the requirement for staff and students to adapt to organizational change.

Of central importance is that organizational change can be different at different stages of the development of an organization. The kind of change which is possible depends on the degree to which the organization is ‘unfrozen’ and ready to change, either because of some externally induced crisis, or some internal forces toward change (Schein, 1985; 1990, Smedlund & Poyhonen, 2005). These factors are particularly relevant to higher education in the UAE. One of the key issues facing higher education establishments is the critical role of change leadership. The majority of staff in the higher education sector are expatriate workers who represent a group of internationally mobile employees (Richardson & McKenna, 2002). The expatriate employee has become a significant facet of organizational life in higher education in the UAE, and this is likely to continue for the foreseeable future (Richardson, 2004; Deary, 2005; Findlow; 2005).

## **1.4 Nature of the research problem**

The topic of organizational change has tended to gain the interest of practicing managers and academic researchers. Furthermore, those organizations that understand change are better placed to anticipate and build a capacity for change (Kerber & Buono, 2005). This can mean the difference between organizational survival and extinction, and has given momentum to a search for reasons why attempted organizational changes sometimes fail (LaClair & Rao, 2002; Smith, 2003; Ahn et al, 2004). Change success can be determined by quality improvement, customer service and innovation. For many organizations these have provided the motivation for change. For example, the search for ‘recipes’ for successful change has resulted in a flattening of organization structures (Ahn et al, 2004) to improve organization effectiveness and in greater demands for a new set of competencies and behaviours from employees (Gundry et al, 1994). To this extent, “the challenge is to create an internal environment in which employees accept rather than resist change” (Iverson, 1996:123). The origins of higher education institutions have produced cultures that naturally resist change and prefer the comfort of the status quo (Freed et al, 1997). In other words, the challenge is to create the internal conditions that empower organizational change, which in turn can create adaptable work-forces that are positively disposed to change (Guest, 1997; Craig, 2004).

Interestingly, in Australia and the United States attention given to research on change management has derived from the private, rather than the public sector (Kotter, 1996; Conger et al, 1999; Stewart & Kringas, 2003). While there has been a paucity of research attention given to the UAE public sector (Politis, 2003), there have been two recent research inquiries registered in the various bibliographic sources, relating specifically to change in higher education in the UAE (Richardson, 2004; Findlow, 2005).

Nevertheless, the presence of (and the differences between) expatriate and local cultures creates a particular context that impacts on processes of change. To what extent this influences organizational change in the UAE remains largely unanswered, and needs to be addressed. In other words, there is lack of detailed and contextualized

accounts of what change leaders do and why they do it in the UAE. There is a need to take sufficient account of the dynamic and socially complex nature of change management leaders and activities within a particular UAE higher education setting to enhance understanding of organizational change.

Linked to organizational change is the influence of positional power and hence the types of leadership in UAE society (Shah, 2006). This cannot be ignored as it infiltrates all aspects of everyday life, and in turn infiltrates organizational life, and feeds the cultures that grow within. Power is an integral part of culture where decisions are taken on the balance of influence and ideologies. The level of managerial power that is exercised in the UAE and the propensity to adopt a paternalistic approach to leadership (Politis, 2003) creates a unique environment (Deary, 2006), which may have implications for the construction of change leaders in higher education.

## **1.5 Significance, purpose and scope of the study**

The research for this thesis took place in a higher education institute in the UAE. The UAE is a group of seven Emirates that form the United Arab Emirates. Each Emirate shares a common goal of the development of its people and incorporates the drive towards ‘emiratisation’. This means that the indigenous people are being educated in order to replace expatriates in the workplace. The temporary nature of employment in UAE is reflected in the mobility of its expatriate population in particular.

The focus of this study is the investigation of processes of change in a particular UAE higher education setting with the purpose of understanding the processes that mutually reinforce and provide complementary change, or alternatively restrict and provide barriers to change.

Change in organizations includes people and processes (Achtenhagen et al, 2003; Feldman & Pentland, 2003). Furthermore, it is the interaction of processes and people during the implementation of change (Achtenhagen et al, 2003) that affects students



and staff experiences and may provide actionable knowledge to support change efforts.

In this thesis it is argued that unless it is known how change works in a UAE higher education context, those introducing change cannot bring about change effectively. More than ever there is an importance and a need to know how change leadership works in what can be characterised and understood as ‘small cultures’ (Holliday, 1999). That is, there is a need to understand how change leadership works in a particular human grouping and social setting (Holliday, 1999; Baumann, 1996), such as higher education in the UAE. To this extent, examination of the processes is crucial to understanding organizational change.

A key to understanding change in a UAE context could be through a better understanding of how one’s cultural upbringing and socialization influences feelings and expressions (Holliday, 1994; 1996; 1999; Johnson et al, 2005) of leadership (Shah, 2006) and change circumstances. Identification and awareness of a group’s positive and negative reactions, shared understandings and resistance to leadership of change, are so taken for granted that they are rarely articulated by those who are impacted by change. It is felt that there is a need for those that are introducing change to also understand the role of leadership in the context of change in UAE higher education, a need which drives this research.

Despite agreement among some researchers that organizational change is subject to complex organization processes by which change arises (Israel & Kasper, 2004; McAleese & Hargie, 2004; Kerber & Buono, 2005), there has been only moderate agreement on the contextual factors or activities that embrace or influence processes of change.

The research will explore the nature and impact of organizational change. It will also consider the creation of change by examining the links between leaders, leadership, culture and change in a particular UAE higher education setting.

The key research questions are:

- Who and what are perceived as change leaders by staff and students?
- Why do staff and students respond as they do to change leaders?
- How does change construct leaders?
- How do leaders construct change?
- Why and how are change leaders shaped?

The main interest in this research is constituted by change in higher education institutions in the UAE. In other words, it is hoped to illuminate the world of those involved in institutional change. For example, the understanding sought from the research is directed at the ways that leadership of change is interpreted by the participants, and the common understandings that are constructed through change. There is a need to explore the successful style of leading change across varying levels in a UAE higher education context. To try to make sense of change leadership processes at varying organization levels it will be important to gain the views of a cross section of those subject to change. The aim is to gather data needed to describe change leadership processes grounded in the working lives of the participants (students and staff) from which it is gathered, and to thereby represent what they themselves have constructed.

The whole idea of introducing successful change and how it is led in UAE higher education deserves more attention, as significant investments of personal and organizational commitment are at stake. The premise of this study is that clarification of the interaction of change, leadership and culture has the potential to make visible the features that either aid or hinder the process of change in a UAE higher education context. It is argued that, unless it is known how change works in a UAE higher education context, we cannot establish change effectively.

From the outset, those that understand the complexity of organizational change are more able to make informed choices and navigate change (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005). UAE higher education is experiencing rapid development and growth. To those leading the changes in higher education in the UAE, change interventions and

organizational transformation processes are an increasingly important consideration in improving organization performance (Kerber & Buono, 2005).

In the research design, a single site was studied over a specified period of time. The scope of the study is small in scale. (Initially, attempts were made to gain access to another site but this proved impractical for those organisations.)

Not only is context important to change, but also to processes of researching change. The nature of the area of study lent itself to a more qualitative approach, providing the opportunity for the researcher to recognise and draw on emerging themes (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996) and interrelationships at the case study institution. This was particularly relevant in this study, as the stories of change might reveal common narrative threads in a setting that brings together people from different educational and cultural backgrounds. In this way, it facilitated the development of an understanding of the ways that leadership of change is interpreted by students and staff.

A qualitative inquiry and an interpretative approach offered extended possibilities for understanding change processes and human behaviour in the chosen context. The themes that emerged subsequently provided a guide to further data collection and analysis of the data. A case study approach was selected because of its ability to capture a time-framed picture of both individuals and collective characteristics through change (Yin, 1994).

## **1.6 Danger of subjectivity**

The author has endeavoured to be impartial and uninfluenced by previous knowledge and experience. However, it is acknowledged that these are influences and biases that covertly apply to research. These are the result of an individual's socialization. For example, the biases I bring to this research are a result of my own socialisation within at least eight organizations in manufacturing, business, vocational and higher educational institutes. I came to this investigation after six years as a business faculty educator with the case study institution. In relative terms I am a longer-term staff member. As a member of the business department I also have regular contact with

students and staff of other departments (engineering and computing). Having been subjected to, and also at times responsible for, organizational change initiatives, I have personal experience of organizational change. This experience generated and fuelled my interest in this study, but it is also a potential source of bias, of which I needed to be constantly aware.

## **1.7 Organization of the thesis**

Chapter 2, being part of the introductory stages of the thesis, provides the conceptual background in change, culture, leadership and theory-building for the qualitative study described in Chapter 3. The supporting Chapters 4 and 5 describe the qualitative research that was carried out to investigate processes of organization change. These chapters also discuss the results and conclusions of the thesis.

This chapter has provided the rationale and an overview of the organizational structure of the thesis, as well as a synopsis of the qualitative research, and it is followed by the research aims and its significance.

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature relating to organizational change and change reactions. This chapter also reviews and evaluates the literature and research, contributing to an understanding of change, and its interaction with organization culture and leadership, as well as the role and influence of leaders during change. Chapter 2 also evaluates the context of change in higher education in UAE.

Based on the literature review in Chapter 2, the need for the research is justified and the choice of methodology for investigating processes of change specified. The third chapter of the thesis provides an overview of the qualitative study. It discusses the research strategies and methodology for study described in this thesis. Additionally, Chapter 3 provides a description of the research design, sample and procedures used for collecting the data. Lastly, this chapter outlines the methods used for analysing the data.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. Section 4.1 briefly outlines the chapter. Section 4.2 explains the context of the study. Section 4.3 explains the context of change. Sections 4.4 to 4.8 address the key research questions (refer to page 8). Section 4.9 provides a synthesis of the research findings and brings to light the importance of ‘champions’ in processes of change. At the end of this chapter, both the research strengths and limitations are discussed.

Chapter 5 concludes with a summary of the findings of this thesis, and presents the contributions. The findings are attributed to the analysis of the research and the contributions made by this thesis to change leadership theory, future research and change management practice. As well as the findings, recommendations for future research are provided.

## **1.8 Summary of chapter**

Chapter 1 provided the introduction and rationale for the thesis. The chapter noted that a body of theory and accumulated research findings suggest that in addition to content, examination of the processes of change is crucial to understanding organization change. However, it was suggested that there are limited contextual accounts of what change leaders do and why they do it in a UAE higher education context. Such processes of organization change were chosen to be investigated in the study described in the thesis. The premise in this study is that clarification of the interaction of change, leadership and culture has the potential to make visible the features that either aid or hinder the process of change in a particular UAE higher education context.

The findings of the qualitative study will provide new insights into change leadership. The researcher hopes that the findings of this thesis will serve as a valuable basis for future explorations into the relationships between leaders, culture and change in organizations.

The methodology adopted was strongly influenced by the nature of the inquiry. Furthermore, it was felt the issue of institution change related to human behaviour

(Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In this sense, the author felt that institutional change is a topic best researched using a qualitative methodology. Providing the opportunity for the researcher to recognise and draw on emerging themes and interrelationships at the case study institution. The themes that emerged subsequently provided a guide to further data collection and analysis.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Literature Review**

*Unless we have an image of change as an ongoing process, a stream of interactions, and a flow of situated initiatives, as opposed to a set of episodic events, it will be difficult to overcome the implementation problems of change programmes reported in the literature (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005:184).*

#### **2.1 Purpose and outline of the chapter**

The primary aim in this chapter is to construct an understanding of the interactions of organisational culture and leadership and processes of change, drawing on the literature pertaining to these topics. The review of literature will serve as a vehicle for developing a conceptual framework for this study. This chapter will explore the research literature identifying gaps and unanswered questions that may be helpful in pursuing an understanding of change processes, in a specific UAE higher education setting. The purposes of the study, as set out in chapter 1 are to make visible the ways that organization processes impact on change and by which change arises, especially in a specific UAE higher education setting. This will be the guiding framework for structuring this chapter.

In the first section of the chapter, the role and influence of leaders in the process of change will be discussed. This will be accompanied by a review of the literature relating to organizational change and change reactions. This is followed by a review of the literature and research contributing to an understanding of change and its interaction with organization culture and leadership. Next, the chapter includes a review of the literature relating to creating cultures and the influence culture may have on change in organizations. Finally, those features that might contribute to an understanding of change in higher education in UAE are identified, and a model (figure 2.1) included that proposes a process for change.

While there has been a paucity of research attention given to the UAE public sector, there have been two recent research inquiries in the various bibliographic sources, specifically relating to change in higher education in the UAE (Richardson, 2004;

Findlow, 2005). A predominantly Western literature was drawn on to construct a conceptual framework for understanding change in higher education in UAE. In using cognate literatures, of largely 'Western-centric' origin (Trompenaars, 1993), there is a risk of applying generic models and perspectives, and in turn, a normative approach to the dynamics of change in a contextually specific environment. Questions instinctively arise about the relevance, applicability, validity and appropriateness of perspectives and theories which are transferred to, or borrowed and applied to situational conditions (Dimmock & Walker, 1998) which are "quite dissimilar from those in which they were conceived" (Dimmock & Walker, 1998: 388). For this study, the literature serves as a vehicle for the emergence of a plausible and operative conceptual framework for undertaking an investigation of processes of change in a particular UAE higher education setting.

After identifying the paucity of reflection on change from within UAE higher education, those elements of the limited UAE research available that might contribute to an understanding of the implementation of change in a UAE higher education setting are identified. The summary links the gaps found in this literature review with the research questions and goals of the study.

## **2.2 Research and organizational change**

Higher education has evolved from a niche-service to one that caters to a mass market by increasing student numbers and diverse providers (Patterson, 1999; O'Neill & Palmer, 2004). Organizations that employ public funds, such as higher education, are facing increasing pressures to demonstrate sufficient value in return for resources employed (Pounder & Coleman, 2002) and to develop systems that can do more with less (Patterson, 1999). Furthermore, there is a public interest in the effectiveness of institutions that comprise higher education (Pring, 2000). As a response, higher education has borrowed strategies and perspectives from the corporate business sector to survive in a competitive environment (O'Neill & Palmer, 2004). The emphasis on institutional efficiency, competitiveness and improved performance has led to performance management techniques, indicators and output control (Askling & Stensaker, 2002). Consequently, "relating these terms to higher education institutions



the product is not a tangible, material product but the student's knowledge and competencies" (de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007:32).

The research literature on change management in the public sector suggests greater complexity, fragmentation and ambiguity than in the private sector, and points to the importance of each agency's specific environment (Osborne & Plastrik, 1997; Lutrin & Shani, 1998; Kogan et al, 2000; Evans, 2001; Stewart & Kringas, 2003; Israel & Kasper, 2004). This acknowledges that some contexts are more receptive to change than others (Pettigrew et al, 1992). "Compared to change in private companies, change in higher education is far more complicated due to the organisational structures and, not least the role of leadership" (de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007:38). Whilst change in organizations can refer to the external world of technology, customers and competitors, it can also refer to internal changes such as practices, styles and strategies (Senge, 2001).

Change intervention success is influenced by the ability to encompass the organization's purpose, incentives, accountability, power and culture (Osborne & Plastik, 1997). Change affects more than roles and skills; it alters power relationships (Foucault, 1977), makes trust issues salient (Morgan & Zeffane, 2003; Lines et al, 2005; Singh, 2006) and undermines existing pacts. Most important is that change "intrudes upon deeply rooted symbolic agreements, traditional ways, and ritual behaviour" (Bolman & Deal, 1991:375) and discourse (Foucault, 1977; Heracleous & Hendry, 2000; Fairclough, 2001; Francis, 2003).

Discourses do not just reflect or represent social entities and relations; they construct or constitute them (Fairclough, 1992; Foucault, 1977). Importantly, "existing networks of conversation, and the orders of discourse in which these evolve, both act to constrain and facilitate new conversations of change" (Francis, 2003:402).

Discourse can announce subtle change, that when brought into focus can be amplified and earn legitimacy (Keeney, 1983; Francis, 2002; Knights & McCabe, 2002; Tsoukas & Chia, 2005) for chosen images (Bean, 1998). These, in turn, become a vital component in producing change (Ford & Ford, 1995; Weick, 1995).

The 'success' of any change-attempt depends on congruence between what is being changed, how it is being changed, and the particular environment within which the change is to occur (Merton et al, 2004). Change emphasises the social aspects of human behaviour and the ability to learn new behaviour (Fullan, 2001; Mills et al, 2005). Importantly, organizational transformational interventions need to be mindful of the reasons why people resist change (Humphreys & Brown, 2002; Craig, 2004; Ahn et al, 2004). Resistance to organizational change can be a consequence of what people cling to, and what they know and understand from the past (Mills et al, 2005). Nevertheless, it would seem that "to change an organization you have to change the value system of the people within the organization" (de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007:35).

There is no single 'best way' to achieve a given result. It is the correct 'fit' among the organization's internal functioning, task, technology and environment which is critical to successful change (Lorsch & Lawrence, 1970). Affecting change is a time-consuming activity, particularly if the change is intended to permeate throughout the whole organization, which can "create high levels of perceived uncertainty for those that will be affected" (Lines et al, 2005:226). An organization has to get internal support for change. For those organizations wishing to introduce change, a key factor is engaging people in the management of change. Therefore, getting people to engage in change requires helping them to understand why there is a need for change. It also prepares people for how to change.

The propensity of others to change is influenced by, and subject to, change leaders, who represent change (Kanter, 1983; 1995) and are the "prime movers of change" (Lakomski, 2001:68). In addition, central to the change process is that "leaders cannot lead unless they have followers" (Arlinghaus, 2006:6) which is significant in the context of leading and securing organizational change. The kind of change that is possible depends on the degree to which the organization is 'unfrozen' (Lewin, 1951), and ready to change, either because of some externally induced crisis, or some internal forces toward change (Schein, 1985; 1990).

### **2.2.1 Reactions to change**

Reactions and responses to change can be implemented in the form of administrative reform (Stewart & Kringas, 2003), institutional quality (Freed et al, 1997; Knights & McCabe, 2002), structured rationalization (Wergin, 1994) and mission statements. However, studies indicate (Beer & Nohria, 2000; LaClair & Rao, 2002) that as many as 70 percent of major change efforts fail to achieve their stated objectives, which “may be due in large part to a mismatch between the requirements of the situation and the approach to change that is implemented” (Kerber & Buono, 2005: 24). This serves to display the challenges and complexities for those leading organizational change. In short, it appears that people in organizations are witnessing the need to formulate fresh contextual perspectives on organization: how they should function, how they should be managed, and how they should cope with change (Hitt, 1995; Crawford & Strohkirch, 2002; Askling & Stensaker, 2002). The pattern of change is a complex mixture of adjustments of core beliefs of top decision makers, followed by changes in beliefs (Pettigrew, 1985). According to Schein (2004:325) “most change processes emphasize the need for behaviour change”.

“The learning anxiety associated with having to change one’s competencies, one’s role or power position, one’s identity elements, and possibly one’s group membership causes denial and resistance to change” (Schein, 2004: 336).

The complexity of factors affecting change may include values which:

“are an important part of educational change as change processes entail both a systemic and value oriented change if superficial change is to be avoided” (de Graaff and Kolmos, 2007:33).

The most effective approach to organizational change appears to be dependent on key contingencies of the situation including (a) the complexity of the external environment and (b) the socio-technical uncertainty of the task or problem, along with (c) the change capacity of the organization and (d) the risks associated with either no change or slow change. Ahn et al, (2004:114) claim that “many initiatives nominally supposed to manage change are either ineffective in their original formulation, or

rendered so by the process of implementation – often as a result of internal resistance to new initiatives”. Ahn et al, (2004:116) make the point that change interventions, rather than creating improvement, can “result in a vicious circle in which each new initiative strengthens the resistance for further change”. In some cases, resistance can be disguised by “ritualistic compliance” (Licata & Morreale, 2002:9) with change. In the case of higher education, inertia and adaptation are two competing organizational theories that are attributed to change (Gumport & Snyderman, 2002). According to de Graaff and Kolmos (2007:37) “only a few staff members feel the need for change as the trigger for internal institutional change most often is external”.

### **2.2.2 Understanding organization change**

To better understand change, the reasons for which may be obscured, Bolman and Deal (1991) provide four frames that can be used concurrently for understanding what takes place in organizations. Firstly, the ‘structural frame’ emphasizes the importance of formal roles and relationships. Structures are created to fit the organization’s environment, and problems arise when there is an imperfect fit. Secondly, the ‘human resource frame’: this reminds us that organizations are inhabited by individuals who have needs, feelings and prejudices. Thirdly, the ‘political frame’: there are arenas in which different interest groups compete for power and scarce resources. Finally, the ‘symbolic frame’: organizations are propelled more by rituals, ceremonies, stories, heroes and myths than by rules, policies and managerial authority. The organization is compared to a theatre with people playing certain parts. Bolman and Deal argue that each frame describes a phenomenon that is present in any social construction, but each is likely to be more relevant to some circumstances than others. The frames provided by Bolman and Deal recognize the need to analyze change at the individual, group and organization level. That is, the use of multiple frames allows a more comprehensive view of what is actually going on in organizations.

In contrast, other authors (Pettigrew, 1992; Newstrom & Davis, 2002; Nelson, 2003) have argued a need to understand change in terms of an organization’s ability to respond to environmental conditions. It is the correct ‘fit’ among the organization’s internal functioning, task, technology and environment which is critical to successful change (Lorsch & Lawrence, 1970). The discontinuous nature of organizational

change (Fombrun, 1992; Nelson, 2003), and the need for convergence with the external environment, emphasise the need to achieve a 'fit' between strategies, structure, people and processes (Tushman et al, 1986).

The response to change can be viewed as a dynamic (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Greenwood & Hinings, 1988), continuing phenomenon, within an organization's particular circumstances (Dawson, 1994) "reflecting the need to embrace flexibility in less certain environments" (Nelson, 2003: 19). The literature reviewed suggests there is no single 'best way' to achieve a given result. Nevertheless, to understand organizational change it appears there is a need to understand the perspective of mutual causality (Morgan, 1986).

"An individual or organization can influence or shape change, but the process is always dependent on complex patterns of reciprocal connectivity that can never be predicted or controlled" (Morgan, 1986:246).

This is influenced by the nature of relations and interconnections through which organizations produce and organize their environments, which can, in turn, "influence patterns of stability and change" (Morgan, 1986:268). An organization can be described as

"a cultural milieu characterised by distinctive values, beliefs and social practices; a political system where people jostle to further their own ends; an arena where various subconscious or ideological struggles take place; an artefact or manifestation of a deeper process of social change; an instrument used by one group of people to exploit and dominate others" (Morgan, 1986:321-322).

A common thread is that "organisations exist to serve people, rather than people existing to serve organisations" (Newstrom & Davis, 2002:3). Moreover, "any realistic approach to organizational analysis must start from the premise that organizations can be many things at one and the same time" (Morgan, 1986:321).

Just as the scope of organizational change continues to be debated, it appears that there is disagreement on the levels of analysis needed to understand change. One apparent reason for this is that some researchers focus on the need to understand change from a micro ongoing process (Fullan, 2001), organizational behaviour viewpoint (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005). Others try to understand change from a macro, 'accomplished event' organizational theory viewpoint (Lewin, 1951; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985; Greenwood & Hinings, 1996). While there is overlap in terms of change analysis, the depth of understanding of organizational change appears to determine the research approach and levels of analysis.

Despite agreement among some researchers that organizational change is subject to complex and ongoing processes of social interaction, by which change arises (Fullan, 2001; Israel & Kasper, 2004; McAleese & Hargie, 2004; Kerber & Buono, 2005; Tsoukas, 2005), there has been only moderate agreement on the contextual factors or activities that embrace or influence processes of change.

Although it is understood that change has many antecedents and correlates, a review of the literature reveals that leadership and culture are two of the most important variables (Smith, 2003; Block, 2003; Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003; Ahn et al, 2004; Merton et al, 2004; Wood & Johnsrud, 2005). Leadership of change will be discussed in the next section.

### **2.3 Leadership of change**

"Leadership is at the heart of any change process" (Block, 2003: 332) and can be "instigated by new leadership with new visions, or environmental pressure" (Owen & Demb, 2004:639). In the context of organizational change it seems important to define leadership. Nash (1929) suggested that "leadership implies influencing change in the conduct of people" (quoted in Bass, 1990:13). That is, "leadership is about change, moving people in new directions, realizing a new vision, or simply doing things differently and better" (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006:8). Leaders must steer through changes in a climate of increased competition and diverse stakeholder needs. More successful leaders are able to gain the positive engagement of people in

organizations (Wallace et al, 1997) to meet changing circumstances (Reddin, 1970). In this way, leadership has the ability to frame the experiences of employees throughout change (Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999; Mahoney, 2000; Crawford & Strohkirch, 2002; Johnson et al, 2005). It appears “leadership ultimately involves an ability to define the reality of others” (Morgan, 1986:176) during change.

Leadership within an organization is a key factor, not only in the existing culture, but also in changing the culture (Block, 2003; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2002; Sergiovanni, 1992). Leaders play a crucial role in building and maintaining an organizational culture of learning (Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999). For Trompenaars and Woolliams (2003:10) “organizational culture can be developed because the context best suits the main dilemmas their leader(s) are facing”. Where the focus is on cultural change, the role of the leader is crucial, because he or she symbolizes the culture, and plays an important part in the construction of organizational culture (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003; Sergiovanni, 1995). Thus the personality of an institution is shaped by the beliefs and values that can influence an organization. As a framework this can be influenced by, the decision making and behaviour of those making the decisions (Gayle et al, 2003:41-46).

The extent to which the leader of an organization is able to communicate and impose a vision (Francis, 2003) is the most salient aspect of leadership (Stewart & Kringas, 2003). Leadership is an interactive process in which an individual, usually through the medium of speech, influences the behaviour of others towards a particular end (Bass, 1990:13). The “language of leadership, like the language of art, is especially characterised by the use of images, symbols and metaphors” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006:81). According to Bass (1990:13), “leadership exercises a determining effect on the behaviours of group members and on activities of the group”. Leadership builds consensus and manages the associated tension that comes with change (Austin et al, 1997). Leadership is a process of social interaction (Middlehurst, 1999).

Denhardt and Denhardt (2006:157), claim that “leaders give form to what is especially meaningful and significant in the lives of people with whom they interact”. In this sense leadership is prospective: it defines what the future should look like, aligns the organization with a common vision. Vision is formulated by leaders, who

in turn communicate the vision to staff (Kotter, 1995; de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007), and provide “inspiration for groups and individuals to achieve transformational goals” (Ahn et al, 2004:115). Those leaders who understand the power of such acts use them sparingly but artfully.

In summary, leadership and being a leader involves a capacity to influence people in different contexts. It would seem both leadership, and being a leader does not emerge spontaneously or in a vacuum. Both evolve out of the context and history of the organization and their role and impact is conditioned by the subjective perceptions of people in organizations, whose experience is ruled by that history.

### **2.3.1 Leaders of change**

Leaders play an important role, leading the process of change and maintain the course of change (Weiner, 1988). Leaders “are crucially situated at the moments of change, right at the crossroads as those involved in change move from the past through the present and into the future” (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2006:158). In short, leaders of change show how to make change, where to make change, and why to make change. Moreover, leaders need to demonstrate their commitment to change, so others in the organization can see how it works. Leading important change events can signify the importance of “what the leader is or does” (Erickson, 1967:376). Askling and Stensaker (2002:122) argue that “academic leaders might have most impact when trying to turn complexity into meaning by providing sense and transparency in situations characterized by confusion”. Korten (1968) argues that where there is lack of clarity, there is a greater compulsion among group members to give power to a central person, who in essence promises to remove the ambiguity and stress. Above all, leaders of change need to craft change strategies to fit their institutional cultures (Merton et al, 2004). As a result, “what may be successful for one leader may be unsuccessful for another” (McAleese & Hargie, 2004:162). In different contexts, “being a leader, is about what people do and not what they are” (Ribbins & Gunter, 2002:361). It would seem that “different interpretations of leadership reflect the ways of looking at it and the philosophical and theoretical assumption behind them” (Shah, 2006:364).



While the role models of change may be existing leaders, they can also be appointed change ‘agents’ (Havelock & Zetolow, 1995) or change ‘champions’ (Kaltenbach, 2002). As such, each has a capacity to intentionally or indirectly cause change. Each has their role. Change agents deliberately try to bring about change or innovation (Havelock & Zetolow, 1995). Change agents by necessity can also engage “in the exercise of power, politics, and interpersonal influence” (Buchanan & Badham, 1999:615). Alternatively, those organizations that “have their champions” (Ribbins & Gunter, 2002:361) provide powerful symbolic means of communication, which in turn manages and shapes change (Peters, 1978; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Above all, champions demonstrate their commitment to change (Kanter, 1983) by personalizing change so others in the organization can see how it works. In this sense, it appears that particular change champions become salient for individuals and groups in different contexts.

However, as change agents they have attracted little attention in attempts to understand culture change from a processual and contextualist perspective. Ribbins and Gunter (2002:361) believe that there has been:

“Too little focus on contextualized accounts of leading, and how and why others respond as they do, and with what outcomes and what leaders are, why, and by whom are they are shaped into what they are, and how they become leaders”.

The leading and championing of culture change revolves around the notions of legitimacy, and of the management of meaning (Pondy et al, 1983). Both leaders and champions have the capacity to influence; however, the extent to which they are influential hinges on their ability to juxtapose the links between change content, process and context. In short, change leaders bring into existence a new reality that frames the context within which new interpretive frames and behaviour are formed (Weick, 1995).

### **2.3.2 Leader influence**

According to Morgan (1986:165), “since organizations are in large measure decision-making systems, an individual or group that can exert a major influence on decision making processes can exert a great influence on the affairs of his or her organization”. Leadership is “not only an essential part of the process of management” (Mullins, 1996:276) but it is influential in the social structure of an organization, and the culture within it. Where the focus is on cultural change, “that is to change the value system of the people within the organisation” (de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007:35), the early signals of leadership tend to be symbolic of the way things are to be. In other words, leadership sends powerful signals of what type of culture they would prefer. Successful leaders are responsive to culture and demonstrate an ability to refine it and adapt it to new strategic needs (Farkas & Wetlaufer, 1996). Defined in these terms “building organizational change capacity, involves leading change in ways that are appropriate to the situation” (Kerber & Buono, 2005:24). Schein (1985) claims that if the leader is around for a long time, the culture simply evolves in terms of what works best over the years.

Of central importance is the identification by the followers with the leader figures, so that they can internalize their values and assumptions (Schein, 1990). The followers are able to imitate the preferred culture values and can mimic the leader’s values, drawing on the legacy and stories of success and heroism (Schein, 1990). “Because of the leader, those who are led, act or feel differently than they otherwise would” (Bass, 1990:13). For Cartwright (1965), leadership is equated with the domain of influence. The source of this influence may be formal, such as that provided by the possession of managerial rank in an organization. Alternatively, the source of influence may be informal, such as that provided by expert knowledge, longevity in the role, or trustworthiness (Plowfield et al, 2005). “In educational settings the role of the leader might be hard to define and fulfil, as leaders often are good colleagues with their employees” (de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007:37). Most importantly, “leaders connect with people in a way that energizes them and causes them to act” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006:20). What is limited in the literature is consideration of the situational factors that influence success or failure in leadership; an understanding of what gives a leader influence over others (Collinson, 2005; 2006).

To illuminate the influence of power in organizations, a number of alternative power sources have been presented by French and Raven (1959), Stephenson (1985), Hunt (1986), and Morgan (1986). French and Raven's power-based taxonomy consists of five important bases of managerial power: coercive, expert, legitimate, referent, and reward. 'Coercive power' is based on the belief that the manager has the ability to punish employees; 'expert power' is based on the belief that the manager can provide employees with special knowledge; 'legitimate power' is based on the perception that the manager has the legitimate right to influence those they work with and that he or she is obligated to comply; 'referent power' is based on the identification of the followers with the leader as a desire to be associated with the leader; and 'reward power' is based on the belief that the leader has the ability to provide him or her with desired tangible or intangible objectives. At a broad level, French and Ravens power-based taxonomy can be interpreted in terms of organizational control or influence over people, with or without their consent. As Mullins (1996:604) notes, "power is an inherent feature of work organizations, and is often the underlying reality behind the decision-making process", which impacts on the cultures within (Etzioni, 1975; Handy, 1993). To this extent, prevailing cultures put pressure on people to conform to that culture. Craig (2004) provides further substance when arguing that culture provides the rules of the game in organizations.

The above bases of power are significant in the formation of organization culture, where higher levels of power distance are evident, for example in Arab countries (Hofstede, 1991), in which "knowing one's place is a prerequisite to social order" (Mulder, 1996: 56). Yet, it is acknowledged that high power distance reflects an acceptance of an unequal distribution of power without question and to regard it as normal (Hofstede et al, 1990). For example, in a UAE context preference is given to strong visible leadership and paternal-autocratic styles (Politis, 2003), which are seen as caring (Hofstede, 1991). Another cultural difference is the view of personal goals characterised by low individualism. This, in turn, has the potential to shape the construction of organizational culture. The construction of organizational cultures takes place within, but also influences the framework of asymmetrical power relationships in hierarchical organisations. Power becomes an integral part of culture where decisions are taken on the balance of influence and access to sources of power (Ribbins, 1999; Busher, 2001). Dominant ideologies can determine which behaviour

patterns are helpful and acceptable, and which are not (Richardson, 2004). In other words, “obedience and rapid response to central dictates, are followed instinctively and moves outside the Anglo Saxon model of change, which is based on a task oriented culture and the idea that traditions need to be forgotten as soon as possible” (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003:3).

The level of managerial power in the UAE and the propensity to adopt a paternalistic approach to leadership (Politis, 2003) may have implications for the types and functions of internal culture, and the construction of change leaders in higher education. These findings could be significant in the light of measuring the impact of culture on organizational change. Subcultures may for example become more active, to mediate and moderate the significance of sources of power, or to act as a parallel evolutionary process (Morgan, 1986), to the leaders influence over internal culture. Nevertheless, binding subculture members by norms and identities (Schein, 1992), that support their own sets of customs, beliefs and practices may not be congruent with the prescribed culture (Keup et al, 2001; Detert et al, 2001). However, Hartel (2004:192) makes the significant point that “culture only exists if people give power to the common assumptions and deviation is minimal”. This could explain why organization cultures that meet employees’ needs for affiliation, identity and a sense of psychological safety (Pitzer & Hartel, 2004) may satisfy the need of organizational members to feel secure.

If leaders want to bring about change in organizations, or in parts of it, or in the practices of their members, they need to alter the culture. Leaders need to create the internal conditions that empower organizational change.

## **2.4 Understanding organization culture**

In the anthropological view, culture is the meanings which people create, and which create people, as members of society (Hannerz, 1992). “Culture is in some way collective” (Hannerz, 1992:3), and may include values, beliefs and customs shared by a group which can “underpin organization structures, processes and practices” (Dimmock & Walker, 1998:385). Defined in these terms, culture has the capability to

influence individuals and groups of all sizes and complexities (Dimmock & Walker, 1998).

Organizations with strong service oriented cultures can exhibit superior overall performance and outperform their sector peers (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Kilman, 1984; Nohria et al, 2003; Smith, 2003). A common thread in the literature relating to organizational culture and a collective sense of purpose is that each contributes to organizational effectiveness. For example, Sergiovanni (2000:8) highlights the importance of culture by defining it as “a unique character, and the organizations life world, which includes the traditions, rituals and norms that link to organization effectiveness”. For Sergiovanni (2000:9), “schools have character when there is consistency between that school’s purpose, values and needs and its decisions and actions”. Culture can mirror the imbedded values of an organization and become part of what Senge et al, (1994) suggest are a collective sense of an organization’s underlying purpose. In short, “those who have developed a common understanding of their purposes and have faith in their ability to celebrate this uniqueness, have a powerful way to achieve their goals” (Sergiovanni, 2000:9).

The superior performance of organizations has been attributed to their use of socialization and other techniques to emphasize a process that is reinforced through a system of rites and rituals, patterns of communication, the informal organization, expected patterns of behaviour and core values that, when shared by employees, are thought to perform crucial functions (Tichy, 1983; Barney, 1986; Sergiovanni, 1992, 2001). As a negative force, Smith (2003:261) found that “the existing culture was a significant barrier to culture change”. Hofstede (1991) attributes the acquisition of a set of values and attributes shared by a group to the process of collective programming of the mind, which might be considered part of developing a cultural identity (Schein, 1992). This process hinges around the potential of those in organizations to learn and share culture (Weeks & Galunic, 2003; Godfrey, 2003). Pfeffer (1994) argues that creating such a strong shared culture takes a lot of time and effort to achieve, and when everybody shares the same vision and values, the organization tends to lose the argument, the discussion, indeed the conflict, which leads to creativity (Senge, 2001) and which is vital to organizational growth, survival and change.

Culture can be thought of as a set of cognitions shared by members of a social unit (Geertz, 1973; Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Bogarsky & Kwantes, 2004). A culture may be a unique social construction of reality (Rousseau, 1990), cognitive phenomena and “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 1991:5) perhaps unconsciously on the part of the culture’s members (Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Schein, 1985; Godfrey, 2003). Culture reflects participation through conventions and rules, by which people coordinate their behaviour and decision-making (McKinney & Gerloff, 2004). Culture can also represent shared moral values and convergent expectations (Flores, 1993) or shared language and cognitive schema (Winograd & Flores, 1987). Culture can be manifested in tangible ways, such as behaviours throughout an organization (Schein, 1990; Detert et al, 2001), which can be shaped by group assumptions and expectations (Rousseau, 1990). Schein (1992) has presented a range of descriptors of culture that focus on the importance of patterns of group assumptions, which shape culture in organizations. These assumptions include:

- How the group copes with the outside world and how members should act within the group.
- Why these assumptions have been invented, discovered, or developed by the group out of their experience.
- How members should perceive, think and feel about problems.
- When the group views these assumptions as valid and important to teach new members.
- Basic values of the organization.

Culture can mirror “the way of life of a given collectivity (or organization) particularly as reflected in shared values, norms, symbols and traditions” (Mitchell & Willover, 1992:6). Where micro-cultures (Mittendorff et al, 2005) or ‘small cultures’ exist (Holliday, 1999; Holliday et al, 2004), they may be the result of hierarchical differences, departmental grouping (van Maanen, 1992), occupation, or gender (Martin, 2002; Godfrey, 2003). In other words, it appears that central to culture is the notion of shared understandings that emerge from shared experiences and values

(Godfrey, 2003), and a sense of belonging, that together guide actions and reactions. The implications for cultural formation as a ‘collective whole’ are discussed later in the text.

#### **2.4.1 Creating a culture, facilitating change**

According to Morgan (1986), organizations are complex systems which can be viewed in at least eight different ways: as machines, organisms, brains, political systems, psychic prisons, instruments of flux and transformation, instruments of domination, and as cultures. Culture is a contextual element and a critical variable that affects participation (Weeks & Galunic, 2003) throughout change (Merton et al, 2004). This is important, as introducing successful cultural change relies on how the participants’ views change. Culture’s real task is to create a continual process of meaning in organizations (Levinson et al, 1996). This is frequently invoked in organizational discourse to summarize all that is distinctive in an organization (Lincoln & Guillot, 2004).

As participants in the creation of culture, organizational members conduct their daily activities from the base of their own national culture and socialization (Bourdieu et al, 1994), which provides a ‘lens’ through which they interpret things and decide what is important. This is important, as culture collectively (Hannerz, 1992) “defines the stage on which organizational members act” (Morgan, 1986:184) and helps explain culture’s existence as not so much inside or outside people, but rather as between people (Bates, 1994). Culture is “sustained by the socially structured and culturally patterned behaviour of groups and practices of institutions” (Lukes, 1974:21-2). Moreover, culture flows from social structure and processes that in turn feed back to motivate and channel individual and collective action (Durkheim, 1966; Tsoukas & Chia, 2005). Keup et al (2001) believe that members of an organization often take its culture for granted and do not evaluate its impact on change decisions, behaviours, and communication, nor do they consider the symbolic and structural boundaries of organizational culture, until external forces test it.

The “actions and inactions of social actors, always and at every moment confronted with specific conditions and choices” (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005:198). Morgan

(1986:113) makes the point that “the routine of community life does rest on numerous skilful accomplishments”. Where there is ambiguity, culture defines appropriate bonds, motivates individuals, and asserts solutions (Hampden-Turner, 1990). “It can be observed as an influence at the macro (national culture) level, at the organization level, and at the individual level, since individual behaviour is the product of the interaction between individual personality and both national and organization cultures” (Dimmock & Walker, 1998:385).

#### **2.4.2 The learning of culture**

Learning culture can mean acquiring a “way of looking at the world, of coming to possess that perspective embedded in a community or particular discipline and a common wisdom about cause and effect relationships” (Lang, 2001:45). Thus “organizational cultures like other cultures, develop as groups of people struggle to come to make sense of and cope with their worlds” (Trice & Beyer, 1993:4). Schein (1990) suggested that culture is learned by primary imbedded mechanisms, identification with the leader and, perhaps most importantly, ‘norm foundation’ around critical incidents. This is how group norms and beliefs are formed around the way members respond to critical incidents. In this way basic individual values or preferences for certain modes of conduct are expressed in organizational choices and then reinforced within organizational contexts. The behaviour-focused definition of culture as the shared assumptions, beliefs, values and norms of the organization are helpful insofar as they create an understanding of what drives shared patterns of behaviour, and influences what is referred to in organizations as the way in which things are done (Robbins, 1996). Culture, and the order it helps to sustain, must be given its due.

Often the success of the organization hinges on its ability to create a “mutual base for interpretation” (Nieminem, 2005:111) and a shared sense of reality (Morgan, 1986) which has the potential to harness shared commitment and trust (Iverson, 1996; Urch-Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Crawford & Strohkirch, 2002; Weeks & Galunic, 2003) and in turn provides a motivation for collective effort that responds to organizational change (Lincoln & Guillot, 2004). Such an approach encourages a community reflected in, and enhanced by cultural forms (Durkheim, 1933) that are built on shared



dependency (Sergiovanni, 2000). This develops around a shared understanding, a unifying theme that “provides meaning, direction and mobilization, and can exert a decisive influence on the ability of the organization to respond to the changes it faces” (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003:364). Allowing the meaning of culture to be interwoven throughout organization practices (Foucault, 1977) provides an opportunity to create meaning and shape interpretations (Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Peters & Austin, 1985). The importance of this is that, as representatives of organizations interact, their relationships become infused with shared values that turn sectional orientations into collective orientations (Astley & Van de Ven, 1983).

The importance of learning of organizational culture is linked to the psychological process of identity formation in which individuals appear to seek a social identity that provides meaning and connectedness (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In other words, the role of organizational culture can be seen strongly related to shared identity, as it can “represent the underlying structures and environment that individuals are supposed to work with” (Nieminem, 2005:114). The socialization process for individuals, with a potential for a very wide range of behavioural patterns, leads them to develop actual behaviour patterns which are in the range of what is customary and acceptable in organizations. An organization’s behavioural rules and norms are the product of its culture. These will have developed as a response to an organization’s need for survival and functional efficiency. That is, “cultures act to preserve themselves and to protect their living existence” (Trompenaars et al., 2003: 2). Culture may in the long run be “the one decisive influence for the survival or fall of the organization” (Hofstede, 1991:488).

Learning culture becomes a necessity in creating a relationship between the organization and the employee. In return, culture that is learnt can reduce an employee’s uncertainty and anxiety about expected behaviour (Smith, 2003). As a result, the knowledge gained can be considered as a social construct that is discovered in a social context (Coakes et al, 2002). This also relates to the idea of sense making (Weick, 1979; 1995) where employees are forced to make sense of and manage the complexity of their environment. In other words, elements of organization culture can satisfy the need of the expatriate to feel secure, and can be delivered through organization culture.

The role of culture is that of providing a sense of wellbeing to both the organization and those employees that operate within it, and can provide “the social glue that helps hold the organization together by providing standards for what employees should say and do” (Robbins, 1996:687). Such commonalities are manifested in the way people interact, the implicit rules of the game, habits of thinking and shared meanings, symbols and metaphors (Schein, 1992). As expedient patterns of acting are discovered through trial and error, they tend to be repeated (Astley et al., 1983). When culture is officially defined, key people will have won their position by playing the organization’s power game. Others are required to correctly anticipate what is expected of them from the power holders and perform accordingly. Imitating those in influential positions and learning from the reaction of others whose behaviours bring acceptance, praise, rewards, recognition and security become significant in the context of the learning of culture.

### **2.4.3 Managing culture**

Innovations in technology, societal and consumer expectations have led many organizations to realize that their traditional ways of doing things are unresponsive and not focused carefully enough on the needs of the consumer. Consequently, for some organizations this has provided the realisation that cultural management is a “critical competency requirement for the whole organization in the twenty-first century” (Block, 2003:318). Understanding organization context and its influence over peoples’ behaviour is an essential factor to consider when introducing and managing change programmes successfully in organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Wood & Johnsrud, 2005). For example, understanding the significant role that academic culture has in shaping faculty responses to change can help those introducing change. For Wood and Johnsrud (2005) this allows those introducing change to capitalize on relevant faculty beliefs and values that inform the development of policies and procedures for change implementation. However, failure to understand organizational culture is often the reason that attempted changes fail (Gayle et al, 2003; Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003).

Organizational change practitioners and organization development theorists express a regular bias towards involvement and participation (Farnham et al, 2003; Warren,

2004) as the preferred “strategy for overcoming many of the negative reactions associated with the change process” (Kerber & Buono, 2005:24). For those organizations wishing to introduce change, a key factor is engaging people in the management of change. This is important, as introducing successful cultural change relies on how the participants’ views change. An organization has to get internal support for change for it to be successful. To do this there is a need to create the conditions that empower organizational change and this can be achieved through changing organizational culture.

“Developing cultural change is difficult and managers need guidance” (Smith, 2003:261). Beare et al, (1989) argue that creating an excellent school requires consideration of underlying values, philosophy and ideology. The same could be said of higher education cultural change in the UAE, where change will continue to be a feature of teaching and learning. To better understand change there is a need to identify clues that provide meaning in organizations, in order to be able to identify how cultures are created. Seeing something first allows understanding of how and why it contributes to organization performance. In addition, it allows those that are leading change interventions to trace the outline that shapes culture.

On the one hand, the preferred culture could be described as one that serves the organization, while on the other, “culture, whether espoused or covert, adds either value or cost” (Deary, 2005:34).

Managers need to be attentive to the historically shaped interpretative codes, underlying organizational practices, and how such codes and the associated practices mutate over time as a result of individuals attempting to cope with new experiences (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005:202).

The alternatives are to: ignore the culture; to manage around it; to attempt to change elements of the culture to fit the strategy; or to change the strategy. Similarly, management can take the culture the organization has and do what is best to maintain what is good about it, while attempting to change counter-productive aspects of behaviour.

In a higher education context, what is meant by culture may lead to confusion (Kezar & Eckel, 2002). This may in part, be due to the fragmented nature of operations, hierarchy, departmental focus or student/staff diversity. Is it the academic culture, student cultures, management cultures (and counter cultures) or teaching cultures (Merton, et al, 2004)? Many cultures can and do exist within a social organization (Hargreaves, 1991). For example, small cultures (Holliday, 1999) provide differentiation in higher education institutes and exist not only because individuals in groups have different roles, but also because they belong to different groups within their institutions. Hargreaves (1991:50) makes the point that “cultures may compete with each other for social and organizational space”.

Just as the study of culture in other organizational settings has acknowledged differentiation and fragmentation perspectives (Martin, 1992, 2002) the strength of organizational culture depends on the ability of the members to adapt to both external needs and internal integration (Craig, 2004). Internal construction of culture can be affected by the image of the organization communicated through the interaction of the internal stakeholders (Gioia & Thomas, 1996; Mills et al, 2005). Keup et al, (2001) has emphasized a suitable fit between the existing culture, and proposed change, which determines whether the culture ultimately facilitates, or inhibits institutional transformation. That is, “cultures need to adapt, and change continually in order to survive” (McAleese & Hargie, 2004:165). However, many organizations fail to acknowledge this.

#### **2.4.4 Culture applied**

Culture provides an opportunity to shape the identity of the organization of which the employees and the recipients are a part (Kogut & Zander, 1996; Kezar & Eckel, 2002; Child & Rodrigues, 2003) and “can help explain why some organizations are more successful than others” (Smith, 2003:251). Sometimes there are covert cultures, which carry the real beliefs, values and norms that drive patterns of behaviour within the organization. “These may remain unnamed, undiscussed, undiscussable, or even unmentionable and lie outside ordinary management control” (Mullins, 1996:715). Nevertheless, covert cultures can provide a conduit, where information and rumours are exchanged and examined (Hoyle, 1986) and judged. For Becher (1989) the higher

education culture operates in three arenas; front of-stage (the public arena); backstage (where deals are done); and under-the-stage (where gossip is purveyed). These terms appear to correspond to the notion of subcultures (van Maanen, 1992; Godfrey, 2003) and small cultures (Wenger, 2007) insofar as such activity influences the organizational climate, character and work culture that prevails.

Existing subcultures may be the result of hierarchical differences, departmental grouping (van Maanen, 1992), occupation, or gender (Martin, 2002; Godfrey, 2003). Subcultures also play an important role, in as much as they represent a sense of group identity, personal commitment and a way of doing things (Godfrey, 2003) and can explain diversity between departments. So, for example, academic departments have culturally defined methods for conducting inquiries and a set of conventions and mode of discourse for presenting results (Becher, 1989; Hodson & Hodson, 1998). Furthermore, an academic department establishes its own culture (Godfrey, 2003) and becomes the “locus for how its members define their roles and identify with their institution and academic discipline” (Mills et al, 2005:597). The importance of subgroups in education is supported by Holliday (1996), who explains that the classroom provides both students and teachers with traditions, recipes and tacit understanding about acceptable forms of behaviour. Teachers and students are constantly adapting and readapting themselves to new classroom culture and subcultures within different groups (Holliday, 1999). This culture is transmitted to new members, who have to learn and share it in order to be accepted by the group. Being a member of an academic community (Sergiovanni, 2000) calls for “depth of knowledge and cultural practice” (Morgan, 1986:113) which members of that community can take for granted.

Subcultures and their associated artefacts exhibit how subcultures see themselves and others, and how they wish to be seen as “cultures within cultures” (Schein, 1985:7). To this end, culture can be represented either as a consistent, consensual, stable whole (van Maanen, 1992; Schein, 2004), or by numerous small cultures, existing within the same organisation (van Maanen, 1992; Holliday, 1999). Each can be characterised as self-organising communities of practice (Wenger, 1998; Wenger et al, 2002), who learn to function, and become enculturated into that community’s practices, language, viewpoints and behaviours. In a community of practice, the focus is “on people and

on the social structures that enable them to learn from each other” (Wenger, 2007:3). Moreover, communities of practice are groups in which social cohesiveness has been promoted, and the groups assist in the generation of new knowledge (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). As such, “they cannot be mandated into existence, and they exist only as long as participation has value to their members” (Gray, 2004:4). Moreover, “communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly” (Wenger, 2007:1).

Central to culture is the notion of interpretive codes (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005), and shared understandings and generative systems (Feldman & Pentland, 2003) that emerge from shared experiences and values (Godfrey, 2003) of the organizational communities that culture evolves within. These shared experiences and values in turn shape and guide organizational routines (Pentland & Reuter, 1994; Feldman & Pentland, 2003) actions and reactions, which may vary across organization communities (Godfrey, 2003). That is, sharing used in the context of culture may mean that whilst each member engages in and subscribes to the establishment and reinforcement of culture, the contributions and experiences of individual members of the culture are not the same.

In summary, cultures and communities of practice serve useful purposes; to convey a sense of identity to its members, to instil group commitment and loyalty, to stabilise the group’s social system and to provide guidelines for behaviour, and for interpreting and making sense of the surrounding organizational world.

#### **2.4.5 The context of culture in UAE**

To understand organization culture it is necessary to comprehend how it works in the context where the process unfolds (Trompenaars, et al 2003). To do this there is a need to ‘open up’ the process and method of creating cultures.

This is significant in the formation of organization culture where higher levels of “power distance and low individualism” (Hofstede, 1980:14) are evident, for example in Arab countries (Hofstede, 1991). Moreover, it “reflects acceptance of an unequal

distribution of power without question and to regard it as normal” (Richardson, 2004:432). Power becomes an integral part of culture where decisions are taken on the balance of influence and dominant ideologies can determine which behaviour patterns are helpful and acceptable, and which are not. “Knowing one’s place is a prerequisite to social order” (Mulder, 1996:56). Inequities of power are more accepted, citizens prefer strong visible leadership and paternal/autocratic styles are seen as caring (Hofstede, 1991). Another cultural difference is the view of personal goals characterised by low individualism (Hofstede, 2001). Befitting the tribal nature of Arab society, individual typically subordinate personal aspirations, for the good of the collective (Richardson, 2004; Clarke & Otaky, 2006). In comparison, some cultures of the expatriates who work in higher education in UAE might be described in terms of higher individualism and accepting lower levels of power distance (Hofstede, 1991). This reflects a lower propensity to accept power of status in decision-making.

Of central importance is that organizational culture can be different at different stages of the development of an organization. These factors are relevant to higher education in the UAE. An important element of the higher education community in the UAE is the expatriate employees who predominate numerically. The expatriates represent a group of internationally mobile employees (Richardson & McKenna, 2002) and may be regarded as a hybrid group, in that they tend to be traditional full time workers but the international assignment represents a temporary, contingent work relationship (Welch, 2003). The expatriate employee has become a significant facet of organizational life in higher education in the UAE, and this is likely to continue for the foreseeable future.

The higher education sector teaching staff and administrators guide students in activity leading to the acquisition and mastery of knowledge, skills, beliefs, values, institutions and artefacts. As participants in the creation of culture, staff conducts their daily activities from the base of their own national culture and socialization (Hofstede, 1991). As human actors, students and staff fashion meaning out of events (Schwandt, 1994) from their own cultures, which provides a ‘lens’ through which they interpret things and are able to decide what is important to them (Hofstede, 2001). This is important, as introducing successful culture change relies on how the

participants view change. As a group of people in higher education, expatriates are nevertheless expected to engage with a common purpose, share their culture, and their students' culture, while being part of a unifying movement.

As members of the college community in UAE Higher Education, students, like any other actors in it, help purposely or inadvertently to construct its culture (Linstead, 1993). Culture practice (Morgan, 1986) occurs when teaching staff and students enter the computer laboratory, instruction rooms, library, cafeteria and staff offices. Staff are reminded on a daily basis of different cultures being reinforced; for example, when students enter the class room they greet all collectively, male members of staff with a handshake greeting, but choose to press noses with fellow students (a local traditional norm) (Deary, 2005). As a staff member you have to allow for this (Deary, 2005). What is emerging is a hybrid culture, which has elements of both staff and student cultures. All non-Arab members of the staff in the organization are constantly reminded that they are in an Arabic cultural environment, a fact that is continually reinforced by symbols of greetings, dress and prayer. Stronger reinforcement occurs during the period of Ramadan. Staff are also subject to what might be regarded as 'remote controls'. These stem not from supervisors or peers, but from the students who want employees to play the roles for which they are hired and costumed. Staff are expected to be cheerful, helpful (Van Maanen, 1992) and caring (Deary, 2005). While these factors are not unique to the UAE, the researcher believes student expectations, levels of access to and their relationship with staff provide a different context for change. As such, the expectations of students and staff and the social interactions that take place become part of a learning process that feeds and enriches the culture within (Deary, 2006). It is plausible this may also help in providing order and sustenance for this particular culture.

## **2.5 Understanding change processes in HE in the UAE**

Collectively, the preceding argument indicates that culture is a common meeting ground for those subject to organizational change. It provides a forum through which a feeling of being part of a common entity can be shaped and sustained, by creating a sense of purpose that holds people together, where change can be made. This could

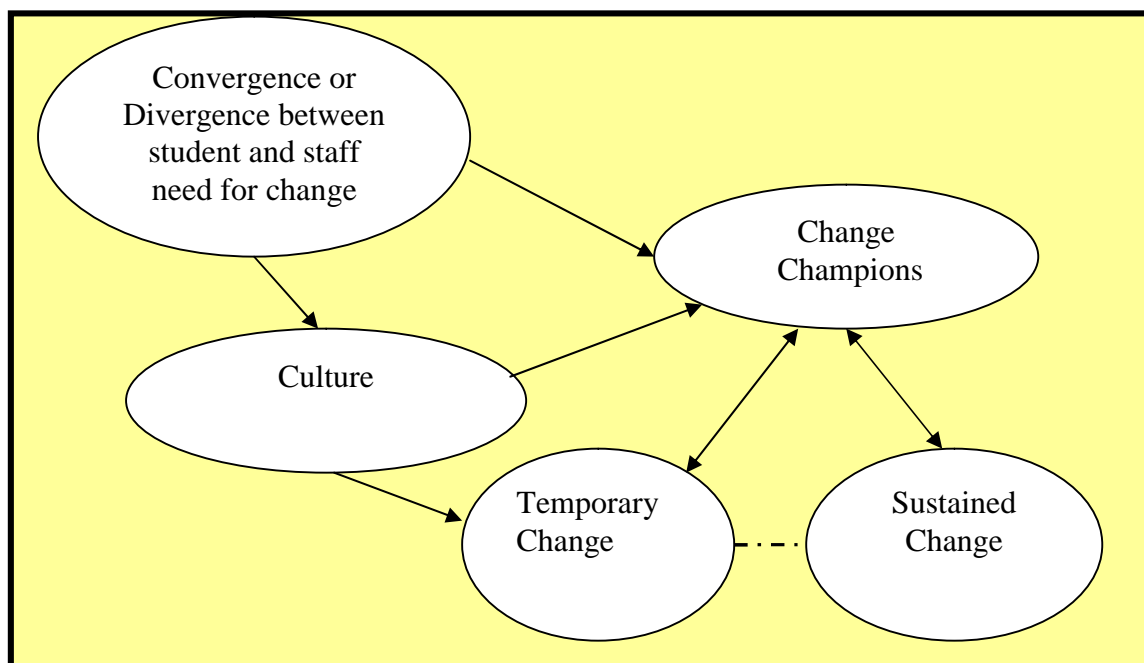


be relevant to higher education development in the UAE, where there is a wielding need indicated in chapter one for institutional academic improvement.

Much has been written about organization culture drawing on a dominant Anglo Saxon and task-oriented culture model. Culture is subconsciously used to make sense of peoples' surroundings (Rollinson & Broadfield, 2002). Often the success of the organization hinges on its ability to create a shared sense of reality (Morgan, 1986). Such an approach encourages a community, built on shared dependency (Sergiovanni, 2000) that develops around a shared understanding, a unifying theme that "provides meaning, direction and mobilization, and can exert a decisive influence on the ability of the organization to respond to the changes it faces" (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003:364). This could be significant for change in an expatriate work environment such as the UAE, as expatriates operate in a very uncertain environment, and their reality can be vicariously influenced by the culture that prevails within. Feldman and Thomas's (1992) work on career management issues for expatriates makes the relevant point that expatriates are faced with the special difficulty of sharing neither the same culture nor the experiences of many of those they work with. Even the frameworks for detecting and interpreting the differences are dissimilar. "The expatriate is in a foreign country and is on the periphery culturally as well as organizationally" (Feldman & Thomas, 1992:272). It is plausible that this could apply in the UAE; however, to what level is not clear. What can be said about the expatriates is they are visitors, and are actively learning and constructing their reality in higher education during the time they are in the UAE.

The following model (figure 2.1) proposes a process for change. From the literature, it is suggested that it would be helpful in examining change in Higher Education in the UAE.

**Figure 2.1:** Change Application Model for UAE Higher Education



The model above (Fig 2.1) illustrates that the degree of convergence or divergence between the need for change felt by individuals and / or groups of students and staff will have a reciprocal effect upon both the organisational culture and the construction of change champions. There will be mutual exchange and influence between these three elements. The model also signifies that change champions, in turn, create either temporary or sustained change, which further influences the construction of change champions. The premise of this study is that clarifying the dynamic interaction between change, leadership and culture has the potential to make visible the features that either aid or hinder the process of change in a UAE higher education context. Linked to organizational culture is the influence of positional power and hence leadership in UAE society. This cannot be ignored as it infiltrates all aspects of everyday life, and in turn infiltrates organizational life, and feeds the cultures that grow within. The bases and level of power that is exercised in UAE (Politis, 2003) are “important determinants of communication, personal traits/control, problem understanding, and organization” (Politis, 2003:756). Furthermore, the presence of, and the differences between expatriate and local cultures create a context that impact on processes of change. To what extent this influences organizational change in the UAE remains largely unanswered, and needs to be addressed. The conceptual model

proposed (figure 2.1) presents a theoretical foundation upon which this study is based. The arrows signify the two-directional nature of change leaders and their strong influences to either temporary or sustained change. In addition, the model illustrates the influence of organization culture on the construction of change leaders.

While not explaining the complexities of the preceding argument, it provides a gateway from which to research and therefore understand organization processes that impact on change and by which change arises, especially in a specific UAE higher education setting.

The key research questions (refer to page 8) relate to the impact of leaders on change. They aim to make visible the ways in which change interacts with culture and leaders through the process of change implementation. The research questions encompass the fields of organization change, culture and leadership, requiring the study to be informed by, and grounded in, a wide ranging research literature, studied within different theoretical, epistemological and methodological research paradigms. In this chapter I have referred to the literature, chosen for its contribution and relevance to the aims and methodology of my research.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Methodology and Analysis**

#### **3.1 Purpose and outline of the chapter**

In this chapter, the research design, methodology and analysis procedures are described, and the interpretive case study approach to the research and predominantly ethnographic methods of data collection are discussed. An outline of the procedures used for data collection and analysis is also provided, and issues of validity and rigour of analysis and results, as well as ethical considerations, are addressed.

#### **3.2 Research design and data collection methods**

The choice of research design aimed to align methodology and analysis with the research questions, the nature of the research data, and the research goals.

The questions relate to the impact of leaders on change. The conceptualization provided in Figure 2.1 (page 40) is translated into the following key research questions (all questions relate to the case study institution):

- Who and what are perceived as change leaders by staff and students?
- Why do staff and students respond as they do to change leaders?
- How does change construct leaders?
- How do leaders construct change?
- Why and how are change leaders shaped?

The choice of a qualitative research approach was determined by two main factors: the problem, and the scale of research that was considered manageable. The aim was to explain the “unfolding of social processes, the meaning of social life” (Lee, 1992:91) and structural context (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lee, 1992) within a UAE higher education setting. Furthermore, a qualitative approach allowed understandings of leadership of change to reflect the “various realities created by individuals and groups at different times in different circumstances” (Richards, 2003:34).

To develop an understanding of the ways that leadership of change is interpreted by students and staff, it was necessary to uncover structures of meaning in use in a particular setting and “synthesise an image of that group’s reality and make it available for consideration and reflection” (Smircich, 1983:164). Qualitative investigators tend to describe the “unfolding of social processes, the meaning of social life rather than the social structures that are often the focus of quantitative researchers” (Lee, 1992:91).

To understand organizational change, there is a need to understand the concept of reality, since change in organizations is change of reality (Henriksen et al, 2004). The significance of this is that “each institution that has undergone such a transformation process has a unique story to tell” (de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007:31). The research in this study was driven by the desire to understand and explain one such story and to use the story to see how change leadership works in a specific UAE higher education setting.

A qualitative ecological perspective assumes that the research object “always consists of a social system, a system that is at the same time internally structured and embedded within a wider, often institutional context” (Brouwer & Kourthagen, 2005:157). Qualitative research methods are concerned with interpretation and exploring assumptions, feelings and the meaning systems in everyday situations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

To understand the meaning and emergent behaviour in a higher education context, it is essential to understand the interpretative paradigm (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, Smircich, 1985) in what can be characterised as small cultures (Holliday, 1999), and to ascertain the reasons, motives, and tacit rules which lead people to act as they do (Holliday, 1996). This will begin to explain how change leadership works where the social world is made up of a mixture of human groupings (Baumann, 1996; Holliday, 1999).

The choice of methodology reflects a need to provide insight by asking deep questions about organizations as places of human activity (Gunter, 2004). The rationale behind adopting a qualitative approach is to generate a theory to explain the

social interaction and the structural context of change (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lofland & Lofland, 1984; Erlandson et al, 1993). That is, this research seeks to understand the richness of a world that is socially determined, such as the higher educational setting described here. This is important for an understanding of change:

...if one really wants to capture the dynamics of organizational life and individual behaviours, efforts must be directed on the actors' expressed and hidden representations of the social world in which their action is embedded (Easley & Pompilius, 2004:47-8).

In choosing the research design to develop an understanding of the leadership of change in the chosen setting, the priority was to select methods of data collection and analysis which revealed the perceptions, shared meanings (Pfeffer, 1981; Trice & Beyer, 1993; Bassey, 1999; Alvesson, 2002), tacit knowledge, and lived experience (van Maanen, 1979; Mintzberg, 1979; Brizman, 1995) of the participants in change (in this case staff and students); the research fits within the chosen interpretivist research paradigm and essentially follows an inductive mode of analysis – from data, to themes, to broad interpretations.

The methodology of the research provided the opportunity to recognize and draw on emerging themes and interrelationships amongst the actors (students and staff) and events (Delamont, 2002) in response to pressures for change (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996). There was a need to 'get into the shoes' of the people required to change (Kirkpatrick, 1992) and to allow what was "relevant to the area emerge" (Strauss & Corbin 1990:23).

In addition, the issue of organizational change relates to human behaviour (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). A qualitative inquiry and an interpretative approach offers extended possibilities for understanding change processes and human behaviour in the chosen context.

Not only is context important to change, but also to processes of researching change. Central to gaining a deeper understanding of organizational change in different social contexts is engaging the interpretative perspectives of the participants of change

within the prevailing circumstances. Deeper investigation of change commits itself to adopting the perspectives of those studied, by sharing their day-to-day experiences (Denzin, 1989; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). To understand meaning in educational organizations, it is therefore necessary to assess interpretations (Tierney, 1988), interpret manifest behaviour and search for meaning, assuming that meaning is embedded in the experiences of students and staff (Merriam, 1988; Rentsch, 1990; Schwandt, 2000).

This is significant for research in the UAE higher education context, as the presence of, and the differences between, expatriate and local cultures creates a particular context that impacts on processes of change (Deary, 2005; 2006). A qualitative approach has the potential to provide richness of data, which is enhanced by the ability to manage several levels of inquiry at once. For example, it is more likely that a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach will reveal varying change perspectives and provide an “understanding of the nature of relationships between phenomena within education and the wider social, political and economic sectors of society” (Dimmock & Walker, 1998:384). However, an in-depth qualitative study, although more thorough, is also more time-consuming than a quantitative inquiry using structured surveys, for example.

From an ontological perspective, the reality of change is a construction based on the interaction of the individual with the environment. For example, what may appear to be irrational behaviour in some groups could signal people’s place, confidence, and status within wider social spheres. This may be significant in the response to leadership of change, as the participants’ views and responses to change are guided by underlying cultural expectations, meanings and the way that they create their social roles through their subjective interpretation (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Tierney 1988; Bourdieu et al, 1994; Hofstede, 2003, 1991). My task as a researcher has been to capture this process of interpretation.

For the reasons outlined above, gaining an understanding of social reality is facilitated by an interaction between the researcher and those participating in change. The focus of investigation, as the research progressed, was to gather data about past and current organizational changes using semi-structured interviews and focus groups. Taking a

qualitative approach allowed the probing of information and the testing of its validity (Seidman, 1991). I wanted to probe for deeper understanding to establish the meaning of the ‘stories’ (Johnson et al, 2005) of change, and what these narratives could reveal about leadership of change. “Stories are a way of capturing the complexity, specificity, and interconnectedness” of change experiences (Carter, 1993:6). This was particularly relevant here, as the stories of change might suggest common narrative threads in a setting that brings together people from different educational and cultural backgrounds.

### **3.2.1 Being an insider researcher**

As a researcher, it is important to try to remain outside the picture of change whenever possible; however, there is a need to be close to it to see the detail. While drawing upon personal experience to help interpret the data, I was careful to maintain analytic distance. This was achieved primarily by letting the data ‘speak for themselves’, and presenting the data unpolluted by outside interference. In other words, the construction of meaning emerged from the participants’ own descriptive language, while acknowledging that notions of objectivity, impartiality and pure description are limited due to the researcher’s previous experiences (Jones, 1985).

The role of the researcher in qualitative research is acknowledged by Godfrey (2003) as being contrary to the positivist research paradigm, where the researcher may be objective, unbiased and distinct from the participants. “If we truly seek to understand better the professional world we inhabit, we need to be sensitive to all aspects of the ways in which it presents itself to us, and aware of our place in it” (Richards, 2003:62). My role in this research is to “not only seek to reflect the respondents’ opinions, but to also offer interpretations while recognising my own positionality” (Wilson, 1997:212). In other words, the narrative produced should mirror and combine a hermeneutic understanding of the subjectivities of both the researcher and the researched. In this way, the ontological principles of interpretive research can be fulfilled on a methodological level (Schubert, 1989).

My ‘part’ in the study is description, interpretation and classification of a particular group’s way of life through change. In this particular study data collection has been



mediated, reacted to and analysed through the human instrument, the researcher. Therefore, the representation of data is inherently interpretative.

My role is that of an ‘insider’ at the case study site, both as a business educator in the same college, and a researcher. Smircich (1983) suggested that the researcher needs to be close to, not detached from, social interactions in which meanings are rooted and elaborated. “The task of the qualitative researcher is not to eliminate bias (either in themselves or in others) but to acknowledge and explore it, providing a rich and full picture of the pleasures and pains of organizational life in themselves” (Grugulis, 2003:146). By being an insider, there are “experiential commonalities that can form the basis for building trust and forging a strong relationship” (Labaree, 2002). Similarly, while I was careful to maintain analytic distance familiarity with terms and phrases used by participants, served to inform the study. Thereby, facilitating the generation of themes, that were to drive subsequent data collection relating to change experiences.

### **3.2.2 Why a case study and what type of case study?**

The research focuses on a single institution over a specified period of time; the study is therefore small in scale. An initial attempt to gain access to another site proved impractical.

A case study approach was selected because of its ability to capture a time-framed picture of both individuals and collective characteristics through change (Yin, 1994). The aim of this research is to provide a detailed description of the single institution (Gomm et al, 2000; Richards, 2003), with the potential to retain the meaningful characteristics of realistic change events. Using a case study with the intention of theory-building has been acknowledged by several authors (Bassey, 1999; Merriam, 1988) as sound research design in education. It accommodates three main criteria for case study: specificity, uniqueness and the ability to limit the system under study (Stake, 1994). In addition, a case study approach allows the researcher to “reveal the multiplicity of factors which have interacted to produce the unique character of the entity that is the subject of study” (Yin, 1989:82).

A case study can be employed as an ‘umbrella term’ which is inclusive of a number of research methods and is useful when the focus is on the interaction of factors and events “occurring in a bounded context” (Miles & Huberman, 1994:25). Throughout the research the intention was to generate theory that is specific and special to that setting (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). This study is the study of “an instance in action” (Bassey, 1999:24).

There is a clear need to take into account contextual and cultural conditions. This is important in a UAE higher education setting, as “significant contextual differences have enormous implications in determining what are regarded as appropriate patterns of leadership” (Dimmock & Walker, 1998:380) through organization change. Conclusions found are not necessarily generalisable to other populations and settings. However, limited generalisability of grounded findings in this particular research is “accepted as a legitimate price to pay for research that is intimately tied to the phenomena it addresses” (Rennie et al, 1988:147).

The methods of interviews, focus groups, observation and reference to institutional publications utilized for this research reflect the key research questions (see page 42). In particular, it is suggested that these methods were well suited within a study of change which needed to answer questions like “what is going on here?” and to decipher “how change works”. In other words, it attempted to illuminate the pathways or tracks (Dawson, 1994; 1996) taken by those in a particular higher education setting during processes of change. Although they are time consuming, interviewing and transcribing can provide an in-depth understanding of a particular situation. That is, it allows access to a natural setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994) and a “world that is socially determined” (Richards, 2003:39), thereby providing the researcher an opportunity to unravel that world, in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The key to understanding change as an ongoing process (Tsoukas & Chia; 2005; de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007) is to pay attention to both the transformational character of ordinary human action (Feldman, 2000) and the construction of shared meanings (Bahous et al, 2006) that emerge from change. Moreover, understanding how change is actually accomplished (Eccles et al, 1992) requires that change be examined from within and as a “performance enacted in time” (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005:191).

The work of earlier authors such as Lincoln and Guba (1985); Strauss and Corbin, (1990); Yin (1994); Denzin and Lincoln (1994), and Richards (2003) was mainly used to guide the research design and data collection, together with the work of Strauss and Corbin (1990); Miles and Huberman (1994) and Richards (2003) to guide data analysis.

To preserve confidentiality, an important ethical consideration in this case, (see below section 3.5) I have provided a fictional name of Desert Rose College (DRC) for the case study site.

Three significant attributes DRC has, as a research site are:

1. The availability of access and the opportunity for engagement. I came to this investigation after six years as a business faculty educator with the case study institution. In relative terms I am a longer-term staff member. As a member of the business department I also have regular contact with students and staff of other departments (engineering and computing).
2. A relatively high proportion of expatriate staff working alongside local staff and local male students and recent changes in management, administration and its physical site. In DRC, expatriate staff employees predominate numerically. Expatriates consist of 64% native English speakers, from the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand, and 36% non-native English speakers, such as those from the UAE, Lebanon, Syria, Egypt and Jordan (source: DRC Human resource department). The expatriates represent a group of internationally mobile employees (Richardson & McKenna, 2002) and may be regarded a hybrid group, in that they tend to be traditional full-time workers but the international assignment represents a temporary, contingent work relationship with their employer (Welch, 2003). The expatriate staff at DRC is employed to develop and maintain higher education programmes that are of internationally accepted standards. As such, expatriate staff bring to the UAE diverse international experience and qualifications deemed important to the development of higher education in the UAE. The perspectives of these staff are relevant, given they are a group of people who contribute to, and are themselves subject to change.

3. The current drive for international accreditation and affiliations, and consequent changes in senior and middle level management. In addition, there has been a change in campus location and facilities. The institution continues to seek change, which coincides with a central administrative call at a senior level for the “need to raise the bar...of excellence” (Vice Chancellor of DRC-Staff Meeting).

An analysis of change processes in DRC and its interaction with leadership and culture has the potential to provide insights from which issues of practical significance to organizational change can be applied by managers of change initiatives.

Section 3.3 below details the data collection methods, which include interviews, focus groups and participant observation, and a range of institutional documents and publications. This methodological triangulation contributes to the validity of the theory development.

### **3.3 Data collection**

The Director of DRC approved the research, following a written request and a meeting to clarify issues relating to the study, and to discuss issues of access and potential sensitivities. The meeting also allowed the researcher some initial insights on change from the Director of DRC.

Research at all times attempted to make sense of the change setting and interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings the ‘actors’ (students and staff) brought to processes of change.

Exploratory inquiry took place at the start of data collection. To some extent, the pilot staff interviews, and the student focus group (refer appendix A) discussions, provided ‘pointers’ and informed procedures for further data collection within interviews and focus groups. The inquiry in the main study commenced with individual discussions with key staff players, based around a series of open-ended questions of an exploratory nature that were flexible enough to allow participants to be able to reflect on past events and more recent issues. This allowed for spontaneity from individuals to talk about their own roles and possibly those of others. Given the

socio-political environment at DRC, it was decided during the staff pilot interviews not to pursue data in staff focus groups during the main study.

### **3.3.1 Interviews and focus groups (including staff and student)**

My research placed an emphasis on the evidence gathered from staff and students of the understandings and tacit knowledge that shaped their lived experience of change within DRC. Staff were interviewed individually, whilst students were interviewed individually, in pairs, or in groups ranging in size from three to six (refer appendix A). An interview, a paired interview and a focus group interview in this study are distinguished according to the number of students involved, and the distinct advantages each offered (Brotherson, 1994). Together, these different forms of interview, I believed, had the potential to generate desirably different reflective experiences, and change perspectives. The distinction and purpose of the student focus group before the main study, was to support participants to share their own examples of what they considered to be significant change experiences. The intention was to take advantage of dynamic student group interaction on the topic of leading change. Participants were also invited to explore and collectively map what they considered to be important change leader attributes. The observed support given to fellow group members in the form of prompts in Arabic, appeared to be helpful to some group members in articulating their thoughts. In contrast, subsequent student focus group interviews endeavoured to ascertain the students' point of view that may explain the relationship between a change stimulus and its effect (Brotherson, 1994).

My intention for subsequent student focus group interviews was to encourage a collective conversational style, with the questions being used as a guideline to gain both confirming and potentially contradictory data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In contrast, due to sensitivities uncovered in the pilot staff interviews surrounding the topic of change, individual interviews with staff seemed to better suit the socio political context. In my study, the relationship between myself and interviewees was critical to the nature of the data gathered. In seeking to uncover staff change experiences and meanings, I perceived individual interviews as more likely to provide opportunities to clarify and seek further depth where appropriate. Throughout interviews with staff it was evident to me that in common with other studies (Owen &

Demb, 2004), it was difficult to ask staff directly about leadership, and it was more productive to solicit context-specific change experiences and meaning. The good nature and trust with which students and staff appeared to view me was evidenced in the extent of their personal exposure, many of them provided in their interviews.

Recorded and transcribed interviews and focus groups were used for gathering data from students and staff. Initially the interview and focus groups schedule and distribution (refer appendix A) was constructed around the need to gain a broader understanding of change leadership. Support and teaching staff were chosen who, through their position in the institution, had broad interactions with students and staff across institutional departments. This facilitated the focusing on common themes emerging from the key research questions in subsequent interviews. Although interviewing, running focus groups and transcribing are time-consuming, it was felt that cumulatively they would provide a significantly more in-depth understanding than a quantitative method.

There are three reasons why interviewing and focus groups were chosen for this study. First, the ‘person-centeredness’ of both is perhaps necessary in order to begin to understand properly the complexity of students and staff reactions and attitudes to change. They are methods that are particularly appropriate to unravelling change reactions, providing a degree of “rich, thick descriptive data” (Merriam, 1988:27) that cannot be achieved through questionnaires. Both offer “access to participants’ ideas, thoughts and memories in their own words rather than in the words of the researcher” (Reinharz, 1992:19). In that sense, both interviews and focus groups had the potential to provide some insights and shared meanings (Wilson, 1997; Eisner, 2001) and also the potential to satisfy the criteria of research validity. A major strength of interviewing is the opportunity to probe for clarification and ask questions appropriate to the respondent’s knowledge, involvement and status (Merriam, 1998: 86). Given both the complexity and sensitivity of the area of inquiry, which includes staff and students attitudes, experiences and perceptions of change, these methods were appropriate to gather a data source sufficiently rich to enable the ‘teasing out’ of participants memories, thoughts and actions (Reinharz, 1992). These needed to be subjectively meaningful to the participants in this research, and part of their coherent world (Luke, 1997).

Secondly, they are both methods which get close to participants' identification and formulation of critical issues relating to change, including the circumstances of change and the difference these issues had made to them in their organisation role (van Maanen, 1979; 1992). In other words, the participants had a story to tell (Mishler, 1986; de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007). Both interviewing and focus groups offered the potential for revealing stories of change. Moreover, student focus groups differed from the interview in the sense that they were thought to offer group support to students, and provide opportunities for student exchange of ideas and opinions about change. To this end, relaxed participants were more likely to enhance the outcome and contribute to a willingness of participants, to articulate their reflective experiences and insights of change collectively. This was deemed important, particularly to students for whom English was a second language. I wanted to uncover what happens 'behind the scenes' in the day-to-day lives of participants through change (Trowler, 1998) to enable an understanding of situation-specific meanings (Van Manen, 1990; Richards, 2003) and stories (Carter, 1993; Johnson et al, 2005; Owen & Demb, 2004) that participants attribute to the leadership of change.

Finally, Richards (2003: 9) also highlights as a strength of this approach what he calls the "transformational potential for the researcher", which is an outcome of the interactive engagement with the participants. It is the presence of interactivity that allowed the researcher to gain relevant information and ideas. This proved to be both an uplifting and, at times, a troublesome experience. The effect of the interaction between the researcher and participants must, however, be recognized as an influencing factor in the responses, which can bring into question the validity of the data. For this reason, the data were validated by giving the participants the opportunity to read the transcriptions of their interviews and approve the conclusions that I had drawn, before they were included in the study.

The pilot student focus group and its setting were purposely set in a non-threatening environment, namely a 'majilis' (Arabic forum for interchange of opinions and ideas) class setting that students were very familiar with. This was, nevertheless, a socially contrived situation for the purpose of the pilot focus group (Wilson, 1997), which was to explore the issues relating to student experiences and perceptions of leadership of change. This led to students mapping what they believed were important

characteristics of leaders of change (refer appendix I). The issue of 'territory' for participant focus groups and interviews, and the influence of the setting on the information someone is likely to give, were considered important. The timing of the pilot focus group (refer appendix A) occurred before the main study and coincided with the timing of a class who were at the time studying leadership, with me as facilitator. In this position, I acknowledged that gaining agreement for the student focus group engagement required that the engagement was negotiated with the students concerned. In other words, as a researcher, and a part of the group being observed, the ongoing relationship with students on this course was particularly relevant. Observation in this sense is not "something that you can simply sit down and do" (Richards, 2003:119). Denzin (1989) suggested that a central feature of an ethnographic approach is that data are collected by a participant observer who is committed to adopting the perspectives of those studied by sharing their day-to-day experiences.

All twelve students participating in the pilot student focus group in the initial research phase, agreed to being recorded, and were aware of the nature of the inquiry. I recognised the possibility that my role as a teacher of 'leadership' on a degree level business course, while at the same time conducting a focus group with the same students, might have had the potential to influence the discussion that took place. There was also a potential for distrust of an Anglo-Saxon researcher delving into their non-Anglo-Saxon lives (Shah, 2004). However, I had developed a rapport and an open and trusting relationship with the group concerned evidenced by previous experiences with the same group and by student evaluations. This was significant to this initial pilot research inquiry and reinforced Shah's (2004:557) observation that "access is not just a question of getting in (physical access); it sets the tone for getting on (social access) as well" (Shah, 2004:557).

In the main study all student and staff interviews and the focus group, were recorded on audio tape and observations were made using field notes (refer appendix K). In order to get the best out of the interview, time was taken to "prepare the ground" (Richards, 2003:67), making sure the location was ready and the tape recorder set up. The location of the recorder was positioned to ensure recording clarity; nevertheless, I wanted it to be unobtrusive. To take away the emphasis of the recorder being



activated, the recording was started as soon as was practically possible. (On one occasion, I accidentally pressed the 'play' button instead of 'record', and as a result had to repeat the interview, resulting in the frustrating loss of data and time. Fortunately, the participant was able to give their time again, and the mistake was not repeated.)

An interview guide was utilised to assist the interview process (Kvale, 1996). A practicable hierarchy was established, which recognised that the important questions for the researcher were not necessarily questions that had significance for the interviewees. The questions selected initially were intended to 'open up' participants, in order to establish their views on the importance of change and their reactions to it. Prompts were prepared in advance to facilitate the interview procedure. They were used to help direct the interview where necessary. Participants selected for initial interviews were longer serving (minimum of 6 years) staff members in business, English, engineering and support departments. It was felt that initial interviews needed to be with those staff that had been at the case study site for a minimum of six years and had possibly experienced more change. Likewise, it was felt that students selected for initial interviews had possibly experienced more change, as they were in the final stages of their studies and had been studying at DRC for a longer period of time.

Interviews started with an engaging 'ice breaker' which took the form of an unrelated topic of discussion, initiated by the participant or me. This spontaneous, natural opening conversation was useful in adjusting both parties to each other's physical presence, and to what was to come. Topics were varied, including such diverse topics as teaching workloads and desert camping.

Initial staff interviews, structured around a series of open-ended questions of an exploratory nature. Such as, "can you talk me through the changes that have occurred at DRC?" Another question asked was, "can you give an example when leadership has been important for you during times of change at DRC?" Followed by, "why was a leader important when change occurred at DRC?" These questions allowed participants to take any direction they wanted (Seidman, 1991). The semi-structured open-ended interviewing was considered to best reflect the participants' experiences

of organizational change within DRC. Data gathering allowed the participants to reflect on past events and experiences of organizational change and to select what facets were significant to them. Investigations focused on the meanings and perceptions (Oliver et al, 2005) that individuals ascribe to interactions and change events (Rentsch, 1990) as well as how they reacted to these events (Helms & Stern, 2001).

The questions started with 'how', 'why', 'what', and 'when'. The main purpose of adopting an open style of questioning was to have a preliminary "look around" (Turner, 1981:243) the general area of change and leadership. My earlier attempts during the pilot interviews to elicit expressions of important change events commenced with questions such as "what changes have occurred while you have been at the college?" This proved to be too large a question at such a point in the interview. This was discovered during the pilot staff interviews. The intention was to allow participants to voice what were important change events or moments during change.

With the failed question there was a need to provide a starting point and momentum for participants' thoughts. Consequently, in the main study I introduced a 'mental scale' for participants, to elicit opinions on the scale of change at Desert Rose. Participants were asked to position the level of change that had occurred at the case study site, using a scale of change from one to ten, one signifying a low level of change and ten signifying a lot of change.

The platform of a scale elicited willing and informative responses, as well as stimulating participants to reflect directly on their own experiences of change and thereby allowing consideration of why they had rated the occurrence at this level; it provided a measurement that could be determined by the participant, which in turn acted as a prompt that revealed change events that were important to them. This was useful in providing a starting point for participants, enabling them to collect their thoughts on change occurrences, which in turn caused them to consider why they had given a particular rating. It also allowed reflection on change events from participants, allowing them to pursue and differentiate the importance of change over time at the college and to themselves, thereby encouraging "expressions of opinion or

belief” (Macoby & Macoby, 1954:499 in Denzin 1989) by students and staff, allowing use of their own words, to maintain the authenticity that they bring to this particular interpretive setting.

This flexibility proved useful for learning which words or phrases were used spontaneously. It also provided hints or suggestions of useful information which could then be pursued. This was contributory in finding out what was going on in the field, by gaining a footing from the collective voice (Goffman, 1981) of the participants of change, thereby allowing a tentative deduction of central concepts and constructs as guides for subsequent theory development (Turner, 1981).

Where permission for audio recording was not granted, extensive notes were made to facilitate the utilisation of illustrative quotations. Field-note diary entries consist of notes of interviews (refer appendix K), focus groups, observations and casual conversations.

Prior to the main study interviews, a series of unstructured questions derived from the research questions were developed, such as “who creates changes at DRC?” and “what creates change at DRC?”; “what changes have occurred at the college since you have been here?” and “when do you think staff and students feel uncomfortable with change?”. These were followed by ‘probe’ questions, such as “what changes do you feel have directly influenced you at DRC?” and “when have you felt a part of change?”. These types of questions not only provided a platform for further investigation but were also helpful in establishing an interview protocol (Yin, 1994) and as a first step in the theory-building process of the case study. I recognised the need to provide additional prompts to participants, and two in particular had started to emerge in conversation during the initial interviews. The prompts of ‘change sticking’ and ‘getting people on board’ in the context of the propensity of staff to engage with institutional change emerged from an early interview. They appeared to ‘resonate’ with a number of the participants, prompting them to reveal those experiences where they felt change and particularly leadership of change had occurred, and what had been accomplished. In this sense, probe questions were used as a stimulus for sharing ideas. They also led to a feeling of participant engagement and connection.

As the interviews progressed, the questions that were asked were refined as a result of themes emerging from the data. Initially, the interviews were transcribed (refer to appendix C and D) as soon as was practicably possible, sometimes immediately afterwards, in order to keep closely in touch with the experience, although this was to prove impossible at times, due to the considerable time needed for transcription and reflection.

As I became more adept at judging variations in what was needed in approach to my questioning and responses, I was able to judge the requirement to move from an informal style of questioning that was more conducive to more open revelations, to a formal style. In some instances, the latter approach appeared to provide some participants with reassurance that it was serious research and in turn warranted a serious manner and style. The main study interviews were adjusted to accommodate the different roles of the interviewees and cultural factors. I was sensitive to the variable degree of formality expected across participant's societal cultures (Dimmock & Walker, 1998) within the case study site. In this sense, there may be questions related to the effect on the participants' and the comparability of data collected. Most important was the need to "establish a relationship with people that enabled me to share in their perception" (Richards, 2003:50) of change leadership.

Fitting in with the time schedules of researcher and participants necessitated the use of casual coffee and tea breaks for interviews. This proved positive, helping establish a non-threatening climate, which appeared to put participants at ease.

The necessity of developing rapport and trust is something that I had noted from being interviewed. By utilising face-to-face interviews, it was hoped that issues of mutuality, commitment and trust through a sense of shared purpose could be established (Seymour, 2001). The most important criterion was to be seen to be impartial. This was achieved by stating the academic purpose and nature of the research. It was particularly important to ensure that participants did not feel as though they are being interrogated or exploited. I needed to create a comfortable and, above all, ethical environment which allowed participants to feel confident that their privacy was fully protected. Interviews and focus groups had to be held in a venue that the participants felt comfortable with and which were of their choice. This was

achieved largely by creating ‘safe spaces’ where the participants “feel free to explain potentially sensitive parts of their lives, without fear of repercussions their words might have” (Oliver et al, 2005:1280). Some participants actually reorganised the interview seating arrangement, to make themselves more comfortable. A research diary, in the form of accompanying notes (refer appendix K) was used to record informally events noticed during interviews and focus groups.

### **3.3.2 Participant observation**

Participant observation has been described (Merriam, 1988:89) as the technique of choice in an interpretive case study when behaviour can be observed first hand. In this case, I was working as ‘participant as observer’ (Merriam, 1988; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995); my research activities were known to the group but subordinate to my established role within the institution. In the observer role, I ‘kept an eye’ on change contexts, expectations and explanations that enabled interpretation of what was occurring and what meanings were perhaps being attributed to change events by those present.

As well as the many and varied student/staff and staff/staff interactions that were observed in my role of staff member/participant, I sought opportunities with the permission of the Director of DRC to observe staff meetings (refer appendix B), staff farewells, general presentations to students, graduation ceremonies and a college strategic planning session.

I took field notes that were later expanded around such headings as:

- Who did the talking
- What was said and what emphasis was given
- Language style and humour
- Who sat where and with whom
- Seating arrangements
- Behaviour patterns
- Comments of both public and private intent

I tried to be cognisant of what insights these practices and behaviours provided for understanding change leadership at the case study institution. I was always mindful that in my role as participant observer that there was an inherent responsibility on me to be trusted, and a personal awareness and commitment that I would continue to work for the same institution after the research is public.

### **3.3.3 Documentary evidence**

Documents including in-house publications were utilised to help gain information and insights of change leadership (Corporate author, 2004; 2005; 2006). The perspectives reflected in these publications were predominately sanctioned at a senior level and intended for corporate consumption. The themes emerging from the interviews and observations in the field guided the sourcing of documentary evidence to strengthen or challenge.

## **3.4 Data analysis**

Data analysis occurred concurrently with data gathering. Initially, data collection felt disorganised, as the data were not in sequence. There were no chapter headings, and no clear direction as to how to order the findings. Initial analysis led to the identification of recurring themes, unanswered questions, and issues which needed clarifying, and these all guided subsequent data collection. Thus, data collection and analysis were not linear or straightforward but more iterative and responsive (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Dey 1993). Analysis combined a ‘bottom up’ approach to obtaining data, relying on words from participants and guided by my knowledge of contextual factors. As the data grew from multiple data sources, the task of organising and finding meanings assisted in guiding me through the levels of analysis towards theory development and the answering of the research questions.

In this study, data analysis followed a systematic process of transcript-based analysis following a form of the iterative stage process outlined by Turner (1981), which entails the utilization of both inductive reasoning (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and comparative methods (Martin & Turner, 1986). Analytic notes were utilized as the interviews and focus groups progressed and data accumulated. Transcripts (refer appendix C, D and J) were then broken up into segments according to the individual

concepts that arose. This was achieved by assigning units of meaning to ‘chunks’ of varying size – words, phrases, sentences and entire paragraphs.

The meaning units were grouped (Rennie et al, 1988) to form categories which helped draw out themes and patterns (refer appendix F), thereby allowing the retrieval and organisation into ‘chunks’ relating to particular research questions. Patterns and threads were identified, enabling the construction of themes, and the gradual development of an emerging ‘picture’ of change. Interview transcripts (refer appendix C and D) and focus groups transcripts (refer appendix J) are numbered sequentially and by date. Data text is numbered sequentially by the main sections of data, and by data line number. This provided easier retrieval and comparison of data, which in turn contributed to the development of themes. Multiple readings of transcripts, annotated with potential themes and categories, were followed by a series of activities including ‘mind mapping’ categories and connections and contributing sources of evidence. A sample of which is provided in appendix F. At this stage, categories in the form of descriptive headings were transferred to index cards (refer appendix G and H). The organisational techniques were chosen to “allow relationships to be noticed and alternative arrangements to be tried and assessed” (Richards, 2003:274), thereby following an “iterative spiral” (Dey, 1993:53) by which lines of connection were explored across interviews and focus groups (refer appendix E, F, G and H). Although the magnitude of the data was significant, I was mindful of the “need to visualize processes of change” (Wolcott, 2001: 43). Despite the availability of computer software, a physical pile of paper and index cards was found to be “the best way of seeing and working the data” (Richards, 2003:275), so that the “unique understandings, positions and perspectives are not lost” (Shank & Vilella, 2004:54) and the stories (Owen & Demb, 2004; Johnson et al, 2005) and interpretations were not ‘coded away’.

The themes that emerged provided a guide to further collection and analysis of data, and raised my level of conceptual thinking. Initially three major themes emerged.

These were:

- Leaders are important to change.
- Change constructed leaders.

- Change is about the need for sharing and is influenced by the context.

Further searching progressively brought to the surface the theme of:

- ‘Champions’ serve a purpose through change.

The metaphor ‘champion’ was constructed by the participants in this research and was later to become the metaphor that pulled together change reactions and the influencers of change success. The metaphor acted to emotionally connect the research participants with change leadership, and as a “pattern-making device and a way of connecting findings to theory” (Miles & Huberman, 1984:221) and helped my search for ‘non-routine’ insights and perspectives in the data gathered. The narrative metaphor has also been an instrumental part of this study to explain complex facets of change at the case study institution.

The thesis is presented as a report presenting a set of themes that draw on running theoretical discussion and conceptual categories and their properties (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The narrative represents what underlies change in DRC. It contains multiple voices of participants and is interwoven with the researcher’s own voice, as I have asked particular questions, introduced and analysed the participants own words, written accompanying commentaries, selected some material and omitted other material. As “the focus is on presenting data in its natural environment, that is, objectively and precisely” (Oliver et al, 2005:1279), the transcripts are kept in their natural state, allowing the participants to speak for themselves (Schegloff, 1997). Information provided is as a result grounded in the participants’ reality and close to their lived experience (Smircich, 1983) of change. Only a few minor changes in transcripts were made on the request of participants. These changes were mainly points of expression. The main source of validity of this research is verification by the participants.

### **3.5 Ethical considerations**

The main ethical considerations of this case study research are informed consent, confidentiality and potential harm to the participants.



Informed consent was sought with respect to all data collection by providing all participants, by interview and focus groups, with a background to the research methodology, goals and objectives. They were provided with information regarding procedures that would be adopted to ensure confidentiality, including the secure storage of all research data, and gained their permission for excerpts from their taped transcripts to be used as evidence. Particular care was taken to preface specific enquiries and requests for informal feedback by acknowledging that I was adopting my role as researcher at that time. I did, however, disseminate preliminary conference papers to staff.

Every effort has been made to protect the identity and privacy of the institution and the research participants. Anonymity of the participants was especially important, and for this reason details of the participants are not included; they are identified using a code. One of the risks that participants face is that they “become visible through the words they use, the way they position themselves, or the way in which they are located” in the case study institution (Busher & James, 2006:7). With a need for this consideration, participants were able to see their own transcripts. To further preserve the anonymity of respondents, some details of interviews needed to be altered in terms of role identification.

Using my home institution as the case study had the potential to influence positively and negatively the willingness of individuals to agree to participate in this research, and to influence the role I took in this inquiry. The need to maintain the highest possible ethical standards at all times for insider research involved minimising the potential harm (Pring, 2000; Cohen et al, 2000) to participating students and staff members, and for this reason it was decided not to focus questions directly on aspects of leadership.

Every effort was made to protect anonymity and confidentiality throughout. This is in line with codes of practice (BERA, 2004) to protect the rights of participants (Cohen et al, 2000). The essence of my moral obligation (as a researcher) to the participants is as follows:

- to avoid undue intrusion

- to allow power of consent
- to protect the interests of subjects
- to preserve confidentiality
- to prevent disclosure of identities

Participants were advised in writing of the nature of the research undertaken and assured of anonymity and confidentiality throughout the duration of the research. Furthermore, there was a need to establish rapport at an early stage of data collection. The participants in the research would naturally have varying levels of attachment and self-interest towards organizational change, and some may feel vulnerable talking about sensitive issues relating to change. Although a written assurance of confidentiality was given, a face-to-face explanation was felt to be warranted, and this, on reflection, helped establish a trusting relationship that encouraged communication (French et al, 1989).

### **3.6 Validity and trustworthiness**

From the above discussion, it can be seen that the success of this chosen research method will be judged on the ability of the researcher to explain to readers issues of reliability and internal validity to the research process. Thereby, avoiding what Rowan (1981) calls “separating participants from their words” (Rowan, 1981:98). To this end, the qualitative method adopted by this study is guided by the development of theoretical accounts and explanations which conform closely to the situations being observed, so that the theory is intelligible to and usable by those in the situations studied, and is “open to comment and verification by them” (Turner, 1981:227). In these terms, “participant reflection can be invaluable to creating trustworthy data” (Oliver et al, 2005:1280).

Following an interpretive research paradigm it is important that theory emerges inductively from the data, and the demonstration of a clear chain of evidence to support findings and subsequent theory development (Miles & Huberman, 1984). This research thesis presents quotations designed to demonstrate the consistency of informants’ views and opinions (Harris & Crane, 2002:218). The quotes attempt to

avoid constructing or imposing on the participants a “fictional view of their reality” (Minichiello et al, 1990:94). Moreover, using the language of participants served as a “check against straying from the substance of the data” (Rennie et al, 1988:143). The research does not aim to generalize the findings to a broader population, but to maximize the discovery of themes and patterns of change that occur in the particular context under study.

As a means of constructing trustworthiness, a pilot focus group of students was facilitated, and a number of staff were interviewed before the major data collection for the research (refer appendix A). Each was instrumental in establishing their appropriateness for informing the main study, and in turn, developing a procedure for the inquiry. Similarly, it was thought useful to ‘get a feel’ for face-to-face inquiry in both interview and focus group settings. It was also felt the use of a focus group as a first stage in the research would encourage and utilise group interactions (Perry, 1998) and “provoke opinions” (Clancy, 1993:88), in order to “sensitise myself to the emerging issues” relating to leadership and change (Wilson, 1997:216).

Case studies using ethnographic methods are built from multiple sources of evidence known as triangulation. Methodological triangulation allows cross checking and presenting data to provide a reliable and valid outcome (Bush, 2002, in Coleman & Briggs: 68-70).

The decision to explore leadership of change by means of a student focus group was primarily opportunistic. When combined with staff interviews, they proved to be important in shaping decisions for further data collection. It became evident that the subject of the leadership of change was politically sensitive, and it was more productive to solicit context-specific knowledge around change events, practices and behaviours, letting attitudes and beliefs emerge from this context (Whyte, 1984). There was a clear need to situate the research in its socio-political contexts, to enhance the design of this interpretative study and its links to validity, while recognising that organizations are intrinsically political, in the sense that “different people attempt to advance specific interests” and that “politics and politicking may be an essential aspect of organizational life and not necessarily an optional or dysfunctional extra” (Morgan, 1986:142). The ethical complexities and the

sensitivities that are associated with micro-politics and its link to validity informed this study, so, for example, some potentially interesting questions were not considered practical given the circumstances at the case study site.

From the student pilot focus group, I learnt that in order to elicit change perspectives from students whose English was not at an advanced level, a focus group serves a useful purpose. It reduces the ‘pressure’ of a one-on-one interview, by allowing and facilitating group discussion, rather than placing an emphasis on an individual’s response. Frequently in the focus group, a reaction from one student would provoke a response from another. I felt this was important in encouraging communication and thereby allowing the group to articulate experiences, opinions and perceptions of change.

During the main study, I was aware that it would be difficult to develop the same level of trust prior to interviews and focus groups, as I would not be able to spend as much time with students and staff as before the pilot study. The age difference between us (an average of about 30 years) was also a potential factor; the nature and extent of the potential to ‘influence’ is something revealed in the pilot study which informed the approach to interviews and focus groups throughout the inquiry and analysis processes. It is not only pertinent to creating a ‘safe’ environment for research in a UAE context but may also inform views of leadership and change.

### **3.6.1 Sampling**

A fundamental characteristic of qualitative inquiry is that it seeks a “depth of understanding” (Richards, 2003:249) and generates a sufficiently rich description (Geertz, 1973). To this end, this research utilised multiple sources of information.

Within this study, making use of multiple sources of evidence assisted in the “development of converging lines of inquiry” (Yin, 1994:92) and enhanced reliability and validity of data interpretation, with the aim of gaining the “subjective understandings of individuals, the emic view” of change (Marshall, 1985:357).

As the inquiry progressed major issues and themes emerged that informed the data collection. There was a need to involve an element of theoretical sampling. Sampling allowed for the inclusion of perspectives from a variety of individuals including staff (faculty and administrators) and students. Status of the staff includes academic and support supervisors, support staff and faculty. DRC departments include English language, engineering and civil construction, information and communication technology, business, technology support, student services and learning resources.

The sample was a vertical 'slice' of staff (16 teachers and support staff/administrators) and students (22). All the student sample were either past or current students of the researcher, and were at different levels within the case study institution. The profile of student participants is that they are all Emirati males studying business and information technology at diploma and degree level. Their ages range from 17 to 28 years of age and comprise both full time (non-working), and part time (working) students. The staff views were collected through face-to-face interviews lasting between forty five and fifty five minutes. Students' views were collected in both face-to-face interviews lasting between forty and forty five minutes and focus groups lasting between fifty minutes and sixty five minutes. The criteria for participant inclusion were broad enough to encompass both staff from teaching and administration, and students at different levels. The choice of students as witnesses in this study was important. As participants of a community of practice (Wenger, 2007), they were subject to, and shared, change that was occurring in their lives. They had a 'story' of change, from an Emirati male student perspective.

As contact with different aspects of the field of change unfolded across the case study site, advantage was taken of opportunities to collect data as they arose (Burgess, 1991). The process of exploration and discovery in the research evolved through 'snowball sampling', which draws on the knowledge of informants and allowed movement from one participant contact to another. This approach was utilized as an expeditious means of finding participants (Burgess, 1991; Richards, 2003) and to "minimize ethical problems of talking with people about others without permission" (Busher, 2005:464). "Following through on the differences" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:109) did, I believe, increase the probability of variation in the data, and therefore contributed to its density.

There was a need to achieve a fair representation from the population sampled. This was, however, influenced by the fact that research was ‘single-handed’ and time-constrained. Moreover, it was influenced by the ‘window of opportunity’ for this research and the increasingly sensitive nature of the inquiry. To ensure different perspectives, initial participants of varied status, gender, ethnicity and experience and participants known to hold opposing or alternate viewpoints were identified. In these terms data triangulation was supported through purposeful sampling (Merriam, 1988; Patton, 1990).

One limitation of the data collection is the lack of contributions by some senior management. Given the socio-political environment at the DRC, it was decided not to pursue further data from these people at this time.

In selecting the research design and methodology for this research, every effort has been made to satisfy the four main criteria of validity and trustworthiness for qualitative research which includes a) credibility b) dependability c) transferability and d) confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). These were achieved by:

- Making transparent my position relative to the group, the basis for selecting participants, and the context in which the data were collected.
- Allowing theory to emerge inductively from the data, in conjunction with acknowledged background and experience in education.
- Bringing to the surface the shared meanings, tacit knowledge and lived experience of those experiencing change at the case study site.
- Ensuring transparency in the data collection and analysis processes to provide a clear chain of evidence to support findings and subsequent theory development.

### **3.7 Summary**

This chapter has outlined the use of an interpretive case study approach using ethnographic methods to collect data directly related to the research questions. It has provided an account of the procedures used for collection and data analysis, together with discussion at each stage relating to issues of trustworthiness, and ethical considerations. A conceptual model (figure 2.1) was proposed in Chapter 2, to enable the findings to be used in succeeding chapters to answer the research questions (referred to at the beginning of this chapter), and to construct a theoretical model of change leadership that may provide insights from which issues of practical significance to organizational change can be applied to managing change interventions.

## **Chapter Four**

### **Findings, Analysis and Discussion**

#### **4.1 Purpose and outline of the chapter**

This chapter is an account of a collection of themes that emerged from interviews; focus groups and observations conducted at the case study site. The themes that emerged from this research are illustrated in the form of quotations from the participants. Emergent themes have also been utilised to construct the subheadings of the rest of this chapter and they are linked to the research questions. My findings follow in sections 4.4 to 4.8 (all questions relate to the case study institution). The first research question (section 4.4) relates to who and what are perceived as change leaders by staff and students. The second research question (section 4.5) relates to why staff and students respond as they do to change leaders. The third research question (section 4.6) relates to whether change constructs leaders. The fourth research question (section 4.7) relates to how leaders may construct change. The final research question (section 4.8) relates to what might shape change leaders. This is accompanied by interpretation, explanation, and discussion in the light of the literature reviewed earlier. Participant quotations are coded as follows: S1-S16 identify teachers and support staff members, and L1-L22 identifies students.

The participants (students and staff) in this study are drawn from most of the departments referred to on page 66 and 67 of this thesis. The profile of student participants is that they are all Emirati males studying business and information technology at diploma and degree level, ranging from 17 to 28 years of age and comprising both full time (non-working), and part time (working) students. As such, there is potential for gender related trends emerging from the male student perspective and stories of change. Staff participants are mixed gender and nationality, ranging from 38 to 63 years of age, and comprising of both teaching and support staff from English language, technology support, student services, learning resources, engineering and business departments. The profile of student and staff participants matches the population profile of the college in terms of the institution being an all



Emirati male student college, and teaching and support staff of mixed nationality and gender.

The major thread that emerged from the study is the need for a champion or champions to facilitate change at the case study site, and this has become the major theme of this thesis.

In this chapter, the ways in which champions actively work in the case study institution are explained. Firstly, the context for the study is described, including the nature and frequency of change. The second section introduces the relevance of the “champion” and its meaning to organizational change. The third section relates to how champions’ champion change. The fourth section reflects on how champions are constructed through change. Lastly, a synthesis of the findings is provided and a model for change leaders proposed.

## **4.2 Context for the study**

Desert Rose College (DRC) was established fourteen years ago. It is one of a group of federal government colleges in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) providing professional and vocational tertiary level education to Emirati female and male students.

DRC is a college for Emirati male students (2,100 approx). The expatriate teaching and support staff (212) are of mixed nationality and both genders. Expatriates consist of 64% native English speakers, such as those from USA, UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand, and 36% non-native English speakers, including a large proportion from India and the Lebanon (source; DRC human resource department).

The expatriate teaching and support staff at DRC represents a group of internationally mobile employees (Richardson & McKenna, 2002) which may be regarded as a hybrid group, in that they tend to be traditional full time workers but the international assignment represents a temporary, contingent work relationship (Welch, 2003). Students at DRC are part-time or full-time. They come from both private and

government schools and from employment in private and government sector organizations.

For most of its history DRC was located in temporary premises. The college was re-located to modern, permanent facilities two years ago. The relocation of the campus coincided with a change in senior management at the college.

### **4.3 Context of change**

The changes for students entering the college they said were significant for them. Firstly, the way of teaching is very different to what students have previously experienced at school.

“The nature of the courses is different and the nature of applying it is different. For example, there are lots of lab work here and some research activities they don’t do at school, so when they come here it is a completely different environment for them. The English language is the main change that they face, and they face different people from the West: er, you know I don’t see any problem with that myself, it’s just change that happens to the students”. S16.

In addition, the requirement for students to speak and write in English, while studying specialist subjects was a considerable challenge to students. Several students referred to this:

“Also, one more thing, a big change the language. In the governmental school they must speak Arabic. Most of the teachers speak Arabic; they don’t speak English unless it was in the English class, but here all English. That had a big influence on us”. L2.

Both students and staff recognise that they are subject to change pressures either from an external source or with an internal focus. The rates of change at the college and the external workplace environment were perceived by students and staff as an issue:

“I think now the work environment has become more competitive, unlike maybe five years ago when somebody leaving the college – it was easy to get a job, you could just pick, people when I travel can’t believe you could just pick a job, it’s not happening this year, this year we are seeing big changes”.

L1.

The different contexts described by participants are shown to have an influence on views in the college of change:

“There are other things which we may not expect to change, or to change very infrequently, which are changing much more rapidly, so this of course pulls everything into uncertainty, which creates a lot of chaos, which results in a lot of stress”. S8.

The rate of change directly impacts on the individual by creating uncertainty and pressure. Furthermore, change also impacts on DRC, which in turn attempts to respond to change. From a staff point of view, the response to the need for change was a central administration mandate:

“Central levels that exist cause changes to be generated in a number of different levels and I think that makes it even more difficult on people like the faculty, because while they are being affected about changes they don’t always understand where those changes are coming from, or why, hence that us and them nameless, faceless people up there who suddenly tear up their life and make everything under them, well”. S10.

In contrast the response to change varied from student to student:

“I think we changed a lot in order to keep up with the environment outside, so we won’t be seen as backwards, or something like that”. L3.

“For me I think it’s easy to handle, since, you know, in this Emirate and the UAE changes are coming frequently so you don’t feel it”. L2.

Students compared their responses to change occurring in their college lives with those that were occurring outside of the college. In this sense, external changes that were occurring appear to provide a reason, and in turn an acceptance of the need for individual change. For many participants the rate of change had different meanings:

“You could almost say in one sense there’s so much change at so many levels, organisational, inter-departmental, you know the nature of expat life is one of flux, it’s almost so much change at so many levels it’s, a constant thing you know. So, it’s almost like you don’t really notice a lot of it and the fact that so many things change before the last thing was completed, seems to be a theme here, if that makes sense”. S7.

“Everything is new every day, everything is changing”. L16.

Many students and staff thought the rate of change was unrelenting and fast-paced. This appears to be significant to students and staff in terms of their perceptions of change, and the ability to respond and adjust to change. For some participants, change emphasises the erosion of a social system as indicated below:

“I think there’s been a big change; when we changed director. I think that was a key personnel change, and I think, um, a lot of people that I valued, liked or got on with personally have left, and I am not sure that has been filled. Professionally I have also changed role in the college and the personal role I’ve taken on has changed, and it will change again when I leave it, and that obviously impacts on me”. S2.

Several of the staff and students referred to the importance of social systems and human relationships at work. This coincides with Bolman and Deal’s (1991) view, referred to on page 18 of this thesis, that organizations are inhabited by individuals, who have needs and feelings. Change emphasises the social aspects (Mills et al, 2005) of institutions (discussed on page 16 of this thesis), and provide insights to individual learning anxiety (Schein, 2004), and stability (Morgan, 1986) that is associated with having to change role and group membership, referred to on page 17 of this thesis. Consequently, this might disrupt the nature of relations and

interconnections (discussed on page 19 of this thesis), through which individuals produce and organise their environments (Morgan, 1986).

The different contexts described by participants are shown to have an influence on views in the college of change. In summary, the students' perception of change appears to be linked to the need for change in them, as a result of what was happening in the external environment. In contrast, staff perceptions of change, appear to be linked to change occurring within the institution and have more of an internal focus. Both students and staff recognise that they are subject to change pressures, either from an external force, or with an internal focus.

The relevance of the champion and its meaning to organizational change will be discussed in the next section.

#### **4.4 Who and what are perceived as change leaders by staff and students?**

This section sets out to answer the first research question. What emerged in this research is that individuals and organizations need a person or something to guide them, to rely on, give direction and to reassure them on each step of the way to change:

“He make a path so others can follow it”. L3.

As students and staff explain during individual interviews, champions' serve a useful purpose:

“I would like to see more of a team leader for what we're trying to do, and for getting support for what we want to do. That would mean fighting in our corner, not coming out against us”. S5.

The champion, as described above is somebody who fights on behalf of another. In this sense champions appeared to be valued. Being a champion is about being a hero and a winner:

“They find a change path”. S15.

The champion is also a promoter and conveyor during change:

“Champions need to carry things forward”. S9.

The actions of an individual during student acceptance for the institution can be pertinent in becoming a champion:

“He’s ‘mashalla ya’ani (a way of protecting without the eyes falling on him), I was looking at the students’ names that could not come in. There were at least hundreds; somehow he managed to squeeze them in”. L9.

The status of the champion, and how they are perceived by others, is shaped by his or her actions during change and the champion’s ability to respond positively to change. For example, at an operational level their actions can be interpreted by others, which, in turn, provide meaning and reassurance to students and staff, in terms of the champion’s ability to accomplish change. In the above context, the champion of change has specific qualities and attributes. In this sense, a requirement of the champion is that they have an ability to challenge and represent a cause during change:

“It is crucial to the improvement of the whole college to make positive changes, its all about leadership”. S3.

Above all, the champion is a protector during change. Student champions are those who can protect and support them from the difficulties of change:

“Protection is important. The leader giving protection will help”. L19.

Frequently used by a number of staff, words like “fight” signify the importance to staff of the champion’s ability to fight for and lead change at DRC. The word “fight” used by staff also signified the importance for staff of the champion’s ability to fight on behalf of them, and defend them during change. Frequently used by a number of

students, words like “protect” signifies the importance of the champion’s ability to provide safety, support and reassurance for students during change.

Protection in the context of students being exposed to change is seen by students as important:

“He should make the people involved feel as one big team, and he is actually with them, not against them, you know, protective, supportive, these ideas, giving you know, helping them get through the next phase”. L11.

Protecting and helping are important in the context of students’ making change.

“He or she will demonstrate and explain the changes to followers”. L2.

The champion is viewed as an organiser of change:

“The leadership has to try and find the common path if you like, or come up with a change path, if I can put it correctly, so everybody more or less adheres to it, which is very difficult, um... but then again it has to be communicated from, from leadership to faculty and faculty to leadership what we are trying to do”. S15.

The champion has a capacity to organize and to compete against others to bring about a particular kind of change, on behalf of others. Their role is:

“To make change easier and easy to follow”. L2.

Being appointed as a champion by students and staff appears to reflect a confidence in the ability of a person to lead them during change. In this way, the champion oversees change, by making change easier and safer, as evidenced above. Thereby, allowing students and staff to feel less vulnerable to change, and provide with a greater confidence and security during change. This appears important in the context of group and individual change.

Many participants held a certain view that leading change is linked to momentum, and the notion of going forward into the future. Followers are provided with a path for change.

Sometimes the champion of change is crowned at a senior level and is credited with introducing change:

“He’s been quite a champion in cultural change”. S9.

The type of champion referred to above appears to be able to gain impetus for change. The champion’s role is to harness the efforts and competencies of those around them, to accomplish change:

“He’s worked on trying to make it collaborative as far as decision-making; he tried to make it an organization where if you are competent in your job just get on with your job, people share in the decisions”. S7.

The way change is introduced is important to those subject to change:

“Because you need someone who is competent in what he or she does, at the same time familiar, very familiar with the community we operate in. This is not a simple or easy community. This is multi-dimensional, and that adds to the complexity I think, of that role as the utmost leader of an institution like ours”. S3.

When the champion of change is crowned at another level of the institution there is recognition of them leading change:

“I think there’s been some leadership there, kind of an ability to get change done”. S2.

The champion is referred to after change, and is recognised and valued as someone who has somehow accomplished change.



The notion of crowning a champion as a way of confirming his or her arrival was evident in this research. This is a point at which the champion is recognised as introducing change and is able to influence those around them in the change process:

“Change gets identified with people, accreditation is an Alex thing, accreditation is a Sam thing, as soon as they’ve gone it will be gone too, rather than accreditation is an institutional goal”. S12

The champion’s influence can be temporary. However, during their tenure they are seen as maintaining the cause of change (Weiner, 1988) as discussed in section 2.3.1. Referred to above, the change champion is able to get change done. This seems to be in agreement with the assertions (as mentioned on page 24) of Kerber and Buono (2005: 24), who refer to “leading change in ways that are appropriate to the situation”.

For students and staff, champions give form, to what Denhardt and Denhardt (2006:157) propose is “especially meaningful and significant in the lives of people for whom they interact” referred to earlier on page 21 of this thesis. In this capacity they remove the threat of ambiguity and stress (Korten, 1968), as discussed on page 22 of this thesis. Additionally, this also relates to the work of Ribbins and Gunter (2002:361), referred to on page 22, who have proposed that “being a leader, is about what people do and not what they are”.

#### **4.4.1 Symbols of change**

This section is about the ability of the champion to symbolise change. The symbols that champions’ use in their role as a champion, or are seen to carry, are important to students and staff in managing and shaping change. In this way, a champion is a person or symbol that best represents the characteristics or qualities students and staff value.

The different types of change can influence the needs of those subject to change. To this extent, when student needs are satisfied there is recognition of gaining some benefit from change, as evidenced in the following comments:

“The changes I get at college, first in English, and the second is computer skills, and, er... my life skills so big change when I came and till now, er so many changes I have gained”. L22.

From individual and group interviews it would seem that buildings, surroundings and new initiatives are an important part of feeling that change is occurring. They represent a cause for change:

“When we came to the new building, transferred to the new building the classroom felt, we felt the change in the classrooms, they had smart-boards”. L11.

“I remember that me as student, when I joined the DRC I was the type of student who’s not - don’t like to use the computer and don’t like to use the online courses, hard copy is better for me, but after DRC forced this change I get the chance to learn what is the online courses and how they are - can be helpful for me, and really nowadays my total idea changed”. L9.

For some students, their perception of change appeared to be enhanced by experiencing a sense of newness in the classroom:

“In the previous campus I didn’t feel like I am studying in such a place which I need to study, I have to study. It was a temporary place. I feel that. There was nothing that feel you are in a college, in a campus of a college, but nowadays in this college no, everything has changed. When you come to the college, you are feel that this is a college. I think a big change the new campus”. L4.

Feeling change, by means of visible manifestations such as buildings, that symbolise change, seems important to those subject to change. There appeared to be a perception by several students that new buildings and surrounds signal seriousness about what occurred in the new buildings. In addition, new buildings signal the extent of change:

“Well, what I believe, sir, changing our location has influenced the number of the students increased the staff and the new staff bring the new ideas, new things for the college. This was the big element, a big factor of the change we have seen when we changed location, bigger place, more students, more ideas”. L2.

New buildings and new initiatives can set the tone and prepare people for change. As such, they bring into existence a new reality that appears to frame the context within which new interpretive frames and behaviour are formed (Weick, 1995), as referred to on page 23 of this thesis. Most important, for those experiencing change, buildings and new initiatives signal the status and extent of change. The extent to which somebody senses they are gaining from change, appears important in the process of legitimising change (Pondy et al, 1983; Humphreys & Brown, 2002), as discussed on page 16 and 23 of this thesis. It also points to the need to engage with, and experience change (Senge, 2001). Furthermore, buildings become part of developing, or hindering, a sense of belonging, referred to on page 28 of this thesis, that in turn guides actions and reaction (Godfrey, 2003).

#### **4.4.2 Feelings of the individual during change**

The following observation helps to reinforce one of the themes in this study. The movement, from a ‘homely kitchen environment to a more formal dining room’ analogy provided by a staff participant during a one on one interview, indicates the importance of feelings of individuals during change:

“There has been a change after moving campus, from a family environment to a more professional structured organisation that has moved from the kitchen of a home which is more familiar and more comfortable, into the dining room, which is kind of a more formal environment; that kind of takes away from, I think, the fun and the family closeness, which is a shame but that’s what’s happened. The change in campus to this location and the building structure has had quite an impact on the employees and changed the culture”. S9.

There appeared to be a perception of seriousness and formality associated with the new campus. The following quotations from individual interviews illustrate the importance of physical space:

“We went through a transitional phase which had difficulties for us, but we came through to have benefits on the other side, um, however, I think many of us, myself included, accepted that there would inevitably be a change in the culture as a result of the move; we were in a fairly compact campus before that, somewhat dilapidated, here we have a much more spacious campus but a lot less interaction between staff as a result, we see colleagues far less frequently and there’s less of a community feel as a result; that’s inevitable, perhaps”. S8.

The space that people are given appears to influence their views of the culture. From a staff point of view, this has implications for cultural formation as a collective whole:

“We are less cohesive than we used to be because of the buildings; the buildings are dispersed compared to the previous campus. Obviously we now don’t, er, see each other as often as we used to, um, I believe that has created, you know, a reduction in the cohesiveness of faculty. Cohesiveness is not eroding its disappearing”. S15.

The championing of change is through physical space. It is important to the extent that those experiencing a change of space are able to make their space comfortable. People shape spaces they are given to suit themselves. Giving rise to comments such as follows:

“The biggest thing has been the change in campus location, um, which I think changed lots of things about the college, about the feeling in the college, about going to work generally, about arriving at work and how central we were. I was thinking about this recently. You know, we really changed our relationship with the outside world, which has changed the relationship for me as well. You can’t pop out of the college, which I think has had a big impact on the kind of social nature of the college. I don’t think it has responded; I

don't think it has been recognised that was an effect and, therefore I think it has impacted negatively on our, the way we get on at college". S2.

For several staff that had experienced the old campus there was a perception of isolation in the new campus. This seems to have implications for cultural formation (discussed on page 30 and 31 of this thesis) as a 'collective whole' (Hannerz, 1992) and can be influenced by "individuals attempting to cope with new experiences" (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005:202), mentioned on page 33 of this thesis. So, in this way shared understandings (Feldman & Pentland, 2003) and perceptions that emerge from shared experiences (referred to earlier on page 36 of this thesis) of students and staff vary.

As evidenced above, the new campus provided challenges to the existing internal culture and perceptions of college community. It would also seem it has been enhanced by the social nature and opportunities of its previous location. In these terms, adaptation to the new college internal environment and location might be considered part of a change need. Although, the comments above expose the individuals need for social relationships (McAleese & Hargie, 2004), mentioned on page 20 of this thesis.

Many people held a view that feeling comfortable with their physical environment was important during change. Championing of change is something internal to the building. It relates to the energy and value attributed by those subject to change and who occupy the space of a building. The findings expose a need for those experiencing change, to feel a sense of benefit, belonging and togetherness.

#### **4.5 Why do staff and students respond as they do to change leaders?**

This section sets out to answer the second research question. A champion's purpose can be particularly salient in times of change. Champions' look after others and provide reassurance:

“He look for the future, like, he just doesn’t, he doesn’t like plan for now. He can see the future what is going to happen, if in fact he makes a decision or a change in future he will not face any problems, or if they are problems like they can be solved. I think that, and also he should be respected and have charisma in order to make the like, a team or group under him, like a committee, they will follow him easier because if it is expected he’s known for his good life, those kind of things”. L3.

The expectations of a champion and the ability to meet these expectations appear important in the context of change, and the champion’s purpose. In these terms, the expectation of a champion can be determined by the nature and consequences of change. As part of their role during change, champions’ give direction to those subject to change:

“She can explain it in a way that management understand it and can give reason for that and what in future so I think it’s very important”. L4.

For a number of staff, reducing their sense of isolation was important when change occurred:

“Having things in place is important. When I first came here we had structure, we had good communication, that is very important to me, but the thing is communication to me is very, very important, but that has gone completely”.

S1.

When change occurs, it appears evident that there is a student and staff need of clear communication connected with the change, thereby, allowing those who are subject to change, to be represented during change. In this sense, organising and providing a structure to the change. What seems to be important for students and staff is the need for champions, which, in turn, reduces the feeling of being lost in, or vulnerable to change:

“He would adopt strategies so things didn’t become a problem - like I said about filling in the learning outcomes. And in a sense you could argue that realistically that was about leadership”. S6.

When faced with potential problems, leadership is viewed by some staff as the ability to solve their problems. So, when administration calls for a change in completing course reporting requirements, the champion is able to respond. In this way, the champion appears to participate in administrative change on behalf of others. Thereby, the champion as illustrated above can be nominated to represent some staff and their desire not to change.

The appointment of a champion at DRC appears to be closely linked to their ability to protect and represent staff, so things do not become a problem.

Champions can be appointed by those experiencing change, or may assume the role, allowing others to follow. Champions’ develop a presence through change. They can be displayed:

“He was somebody who knew how to lead people and he got, he knew how to get people to work for him, he had that look beyond what’s happening, you know, there’s better things ahead of us, uh if you just get on board with this it’s good for everybody. Kind of a way of pulling people along with, and he was a change addict – he loved to be in the middle of it, he loved to be where things were changing and he always believed there were better things coming out of all of these changes, that it was gonna be new challenges and new adventures and new exciting things”. S12.

The champion can be a person that operates at a senior level in the institution and displays what others view as a passion and a sense of excitement towards change. In contrast, the champion can emerge at an operational level of the institution:

“You see it all the time really, people just coming up with innovative ideas and pushing ahead with them, and you know fighting for whatever bit of support they need for it to happen, you know”. S4.

The attraction held by students and staff for champions in the above context, appears to be based on their ability to come up with new ideas, and the extent to which they are prepared to represent and fight for the support of change. In this sense, the way that champions set about supporting and ultimately securing change can be admired and copied:

“He’s leading it the other way, and so the buying in comes later. So there doesn’t appear to be so much change going on, its maybe more of a sticking change, if it’s led that way, rather than being pulled by the nose, being kicked up the arse, kind of thing”. S2.

The commitment and style of those leading change appears important to several staff:

“Leadership is important every time, whether it’s times of changes or in other times, a leader is a leader, a leader he is creative, should be leading the whole organisation, should, er, be giving the opportunities not to be more productive, to have new ideas, even though we don’t need to be afraid of changes whether it be curriculum, whether it be responsibilities in different areas this is where the leader can be a real leader, creativity, changes, it’s very important”. S16.

It appears from the preceding data that being a champion to some staff rests on the champion’s ability to meet their expectations. In this sense, the championing of change revolves around notions of legitimacy and the management of meaning (Pondy et al, 1983; Stewart & Kringas, 2003), discussed on page 23 of this thesis. Champions of change have the capacity to influence (Havelock & Zotolow, 1995; Buchanan & Badham, 1999; Kaltenbach, 2002) in different ways as described on pages 22 and 23 of this thesis.

In the context of change in the case study institution, champions compete for change and lead in a manner which appeals to students and staff and their propensity for change. From these findings, fighting, enthusing, being creative or making the future clearer are attributes that make a champion influential. However, as referred to earlier on page 21 of this thesis, the extent to which they are influential, hinges on their ability to ‘anchor’ those subject to change to new concepts of reality (Morgan, 1986).



For instance, what seems to be prevalent in the perception of students and staff, is that the champion is able to provide symbolic meanings (Trompenaars & Wolliams, 2003) during change, with the ability to juxtapose the links between change content, process and context (Kerber & Buono, 2005; de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007) referred to on page 23. In this way, it seems the champion defines the reality of others during change, as mentioned on page 21 of this thesis.

#### **4.5.1 Being close to others in change**

Throughout this study, it was apparent that the physical closeness of the champion to the implementers of change was indeed an important ingredient of organisational change. Champions' draw people closer to change:

He had an open door, er, he would walk the floor a lot. Twice, three times a week. Talk work or talk diving, whatever, he walked the floor". S5.

"When he's approachable the followers will respect him and he will be loved".  
L2.

This allows others to feel comfortable about change:

"He is a very good spokesperson for change, he's visionary, he's happy to dialogue with you, giving you chance to get alongside him". S12.

The champion is able to tap into shared values:

"Leadership is more of managing the minds, rather than the outward things of change, so you get a contract". S2.

As identified previously champions' can emerge at different levels of the institution. In their role as champions they help to resolve questions about the future:

"Basically we had this meeting, and as we talked we kind of, oh, if we did this, and then we started thinking about courses, went away and looked at learning

outcomes, you know on this course we could do this as an assessment, we actually started changing things, so what enthused us, they having been empowered to make the changes but the other thing was that we genuinely felt that the result would be an improvement in student learning activities. That's why we come to work, that makes our job more enjoyable, and I think a lot of the change that happens, management either haven't thought about that or they don't think that the reason for the change isn't about improving the student learning experience, so they don't try, there's no thought given to why, if this is good for students, then faculty should be enthusiastic about it. So, I think that's why a lot of change doesn't stick, because there's no thought given to changing long-term habits of faculty; the long-term habits of faculty won't change, because there's no intrinsic motivation to do it". S6.

The championing of change appears to be aided by teachers that value, and in turn, champion improved student learning. Moreover, in their role as champions, teachers manage and shape change (Smircich & Morgan, 1982) and appear to act as catalysts for change. In this way, the champion is motivated by being able to see the outcome of their efforts. In the context described above, the level of championing and group enthusiasm for change appears to provide connective links to intrinsic motivation and perceptions of accomplishing change. Values appear to be a critical element of this groups' well being. This is supported by Senge et al, (1994), referred to on page 27 of this thesis, who argue that values become part of what is attributed to a collective sense of an organization's underlying purpose.

It is important that change is shared. The group becomes instrumental in securing change. This can bring into question the sustainability and value of change. This is illustrated in the following comments:

"Technology, it's easy to bring in, easy to overcome, because there's no underpinning, there's no foundation, and that makes things liable to faddishness. I think the technology situation we're in here is a very clear example of that". S2.

“I think often at times rather than putting our energies into teaching to maintain what was happening in the classroom better, we were competing and dealing with change and implementing change that at times we didn’t even need to implement, but somebody thought it was a good idea, and it’s another new initiative”. S12.

The way change is introduced has a bearing on how the change is received:

“Some of the change is sort of mandated on us. You will be told it’s e-learning and this will be the flavour of the month, so we all do e-learning, which is not bad necessarily, but it might not be what we had been planning to do”. S1.

“Someone decided e-learning was going to happen and that was the start of change”. S7.

The expectation is that change needs to have a foundation for improvement. In other words, it should, over a period of time, have some measurable benefit.

The different forms of leading described by participants are shown to have an influence on the perceived closeness to leaders of change, and the propensity for a number of staff and students to engage in change. In this way, as described on page 24, leaders can be what de Graaff and Kolmos (2007:37) explain are often “good colleagues with their employees”.

In the contexts described above, and mentioned on the previous page, the level of championing and group enthusiasm for change appear related to intrinsic motivation and perceptions of accomplishing change. It would seem that values are placed as a critical element of this group’s well being. Also supported by Senge et al, (1994), who argue that values become part of what is attributed to a collective sense of an organization’s underlying purpose. The championing of change appears to be aided by teachers, that value and, in turn, champion improved student learning. Moreover, in their role as champions, as referred to on page 23, teachers manage and shape change (Smircich & Morgan, 1982) in a way that energizes them and causes them to act (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006), which appears to provide catalysts for change, as

discussed on page 24 of this thesis. In this sense, the champion is motivated by a cause that is driven by being able to see the outcome of their efforts. The accomplishment of change, referred to earlier on page 24, necessitates a match between the requirements of the situation and the approach to change that is being implemented (Kerber & Buono, 2005).

#### **4.5.2 Carrying change forward**

The ability to witness accomplished change appears to be an important factor in how people perceive change:

“Graduate outcomes came and went and now are coming back again, you know; we become cynical, and there is a clean-out every year or two, and the new people come in and before you know it they have been sacked, and there is nobody carrying them forward and we are left with these old ideas and they fade out, and then somebody new comes in. It’s lack of continuity and credibility as well”. S1.

Several of the staff to whom I spoke regarded staff changes important to their experiences and resulting views of change:

“My own personal perspective of change has been affected by the changes, by the type of changes; you know, personnel changes that have happened”. S2.

The transient nature of some staff is associated with the lack of change continuity:

“Because people move and change regularly; er, so do the ideas and influences, for example, if you get an American in charge, or a Canadian in charge is, or a local in charge, everything seems to permeate from that, whatever their background is. So that the problem is lack of stability, and this is in the institution, and this is an environment where there is lack of continuity”. S1.

“So at a senior level, not at the most senior level, it’s at the implementation level, nobody seems to be around long enough to follow through. That person’s power and influence is just gone”. S6.

This leads to questions concerning credibility of change:

“He won’t be here long and they’ll be gone, it doesn’t lend itself to times of change”. S12.

“When he left, the theme wasn’t completed. Now somebody coming in, for a variety of reasons, might feel it is not in their interest to implement that change, or to follow that through because a) they may not be interested in it b) might not agree with it c) won’t get any plaudits if they just follow it through. So what they do is, right okay, this is what I think should happen, and they don’t finish up, and somebody else comes and says oh no, no, no, no, this is what we should do”. S6.

Securing change is one of the roles of a champion:

“Champions need to carry things forward”. S5.

The notion that change is led and needs to have a conclusion appears important to those subject to change.

## **4.6 How does change construct leaders?**

This section sets out to answer the third research question. Having someone to lead change is important for those subject to change:

“I think we are kind of lacking in something by way of leadership at the moment. I think we’re a little bit adrift, sort of on the high seas without a rudder or whatever, and I don’t think we quite know where we’re going”. S4.

“It’s like being a cork tossed around in the ocean”. S8.

Providing a common path for change is important for those subject to change:

“So we are floating in little islands, now we are actually on our own, but before we felt like we were interlinked as a system, and that was, um, er, sharing, and more quality control, and I think that’s been lost”. S1.

Champions are people, initiators and symbols that others can hold on to while sharing change. Those experiencing change feel the need for an anchor to change. A champion satisfies this need:

“Because somebody represent us in top management in the college”. L4.

The champion becomes a feeder of change, by ‘walking and talking’ change:

“If I didn’t get her on my side. So from the point of view of moving something forward, you have to have their approval. I mean it’s down to people like the ordinary Josephs like myself. You have to fight for something like that, and maybe not get it at the end”. S7.

Competing to bring about a particular change becomes an integral part of championing:

“People coming up with support from the students, from their colleagues and then from their line manager. I mean, to me that is where most of the action is at the moment, rather than higher up”. S4.

Champions’ provide meaning to those around them. Champions’ ‘do battle’ on behalf of change. The battle takes on a different form:

“There has been a heightened competitive environment where faculty members, supervisors, heads, directors are all sparring and fighting to see who would come up with the biggest, brightest idea”. S12

Thus, champions are key when change is needed. Champions create an identity for people and the initiatives they represent. The champion is sometimes recognised as a winner of change, particularly when change has occurred rapidly. Those experiencing change feel the need for an anchor to change. They need to have a sense of where and what the future may be. As discussed on page 23 of this thesis, the champion, through their actions appear to personalise change, providing powerful symbolic means of communication, which in turn manages and shapes change (Peters, 1978; Smircich & Morgan, 1982) for others.

#### **4.6.1 Champions' help others change**

Throughout change, both students and staff adopt coping or defence mechanisms in response to anxiety. This appears to support the contention of the Tavistock Institute, in their analysis of group behaviour (Bion, 1948), that groups often regress to childhood patterns of behaviour to protect themselves from uncomfortable developments. Bion (1959) suggested that such anxiety-provoking situations direct groups into a number of styles of operation that employ different kinds of defences against anxiety.

Some students explain in focus groups and interviews how their future may be changed:

“You can say the big door opening for us to go, to start the new life now”.  
L21.

“This college has a very important role to prepare those students for society unlike other universities for example I would say teaches the subjects and give you a degree and you go, but here is different, I mean it's like the fifty-fifty er thing you have the academic side and you have the social side or leadership side; you are trying to make them ready for the work environment and society, so it's a challenge, I think, for the college, and the rate is very high; I mean I would prefer it's slower so people can catch up, as you are seeing big changes and not everybody can run that fast”. L1.

Student champions are those who can protect and support them from the difficulties of change. Change involves champions. Champions' become leaders who "are crucially situated at the moments of change, right at the crossroads as those involved in change move from the past through the present and into the future", (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2006:158), as described on page 22 of this thesis.

#### **4.6.2 Champions of practice and change**

Both students and staff are costumed for their parts and this became evident during observations and subsequently recorded in ongoing field notes (refer appendix K). Students wear 'dishdashas' (body gowns), head covers (either 'kandoras' or baseball caps), with sandals. Male and female staff wear suits, semi-formal trousers, shirts and ties, dresses and blouses. A person's role can be identified by their attire. Wearing a suit denotes a staff member's position in the college. This is evidenced at staff meetings when comparable attire and level in the hierarchy are more noticeable. Those in management positions, besides being identifiable from their physical position (generally the first row of seating) are also identifiable by their clothes; they wear businesslike suits, while non-management staff wear more informal attire and occupy seating behind them, and choose to sit with their colleagues. When awards are presented at staff meetings, recipients are invited to approach the stage (refer appendix B). It is at these times that attire, and sometimes title, signals to others your level at DRC. Consequently, those staff members that make the change from teaching or support staff positions to management positions are expected to follow the same patterns of behaviour.

Practices of the group (Morgan, 1986; Lukes, 1974), discussed on pages 29 and 30 of this thesis, occur when teaching staff and students enter the computer labs, instruction rooms, library, cafeteria and staff offices. For example, when students enter the classroom they greet their fellow students collectively, but then greet male members of staff individually with a handshake. Some also choose to press noses with colleagues (Deary, 2005). It is inappropriate for students not to return the greetings publicly, even at the expense of interrupting the lesson. From evidence gathered by the author's extended observations, as a staff member you have to allow for this (Deary, 2005). Students greet staff in the corridors or office areas with expressions



such as 'hi sir', 'hi Mr John', or 'hi Miss', 'hi Miss Carol'. It becomes an accepted part of a performance. Over time it becomes part of what Bolman and Deal, (1991) referred to earlier on page 18 of this thesis, attribute to a continuing social construction for students and staff. That is, creating an understanding that is susceptible to variation and change. As discussed on page 31 of this thesis, this allows meaning to be interwoven through organization practices (Foucault, 1977), providing an opportunity to create meaning and shape interpretations (Peters & Austin, 1985; Smircich & Morgan, 1982).

Some male staff choose to shake hands with their students as they enter the classroom, and often talk about football. It is important to be 'up with' the most important international and local football news. A lot of recognition is to be gained from knowing who scored at important games. In this way, students and staff participate in a team activity, which in turn brings complimentary skills to the learning process:

"A week ago I did a survey in the room where we were actually asking the students what they will eat when they went home. Not one student knew, not one, what the meal would be that night. And when I asked why, all but three of the students said either the housemaid or the mother would do it and so they didn't know what it would be, and the other three simply said, "Well, I will have fast food, but I haven't made my mind up." They hadn't even made a decision like that, whereas you and I probably know what we're eating tonight. So everything's done, and they're quite happy to accept that, you know, if you said look guys, on Saturday, or Sunday, I don't want you at this time, I need you at that time, once they've known for five minutes, they'll all do it. They're used to being led". S5.

What is emerging is an orientation of the skills that are needed in communities of practice (Wenger, 1998; Wenger et al, 2002), as discussed on page 35 and 36 of this thesis. In the above staff member's experience there is an attempt to introduce students to facets of planning and decision making. The intention is to stimulate change. It would seem that for change to occur there is a need for mutual understanding of each other's underlying reasons for, and reactions to change. In this

sense, it may be necessary for both student and staff to ‘tune in’ to get the right ‘wave length’; by recognising and learning each others underlying motivation for change:

“It might be difficult for us to feel, but we are changing”. L3.

In some cases as illustrated previously, students and staff recognise that they learn from each other. This emphasises the social aspects of human behaviour and the ability to learn new behaviour:

“I don’t think that’s made it difficult, because I think it’s interesting to have a multiculture teachers who we have to co-operate differently with each of them. I think, for me it was easy to co-operate with almost all the teachers that, who taught me”. L6.

Neither staff nor students have a single identity; nevertheless, by interacting and engaging in practices that recognises each other’s differences, they define themselves. Thus for students and staff it is a co-creation of change, resulting from an iterative process of meaning construction:

“We learn at college how to be free. It opens our minds”. L8.

Several students referred to a sense of opening up their minds, and conveyed enthusiasm when discussing their experiences of college life and relationships with their teachers. This in turn has the potential to provide cohesion, trust and safety, which creates change:

“It’s like a father and son: when you talking to your teacher in the school like you must be silent, and you should say a few words, you must think what you are saying not anything you know. Now, at the college, you know it’s kind of I make my teacher like a friend, you know we are friends, we can talk to each other, and we can say anything, but in the school, no, it’s not like that”. L21.

“After a while it gets normal, we learn as well”. L16.

Reaching the point at which ‘it gets normal’ relates to the relevance of establishing what Schein (1992:1) considers to be a pattern of shared basic assumptions, described on page 28 of this thesis. The group learns as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. This allows for practices that have worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems. In turn, it becomes part of the development of a history of experiences for students and staff, which provides stability through change. More important, for students and staff it provides a conduit for shared knowledge and meanings, through which practices and behavioural norms guide choices and actions of the group. In this context, as discussed on page 31 of this thesis, the relationship between staff and students appears to become infused with shared practice and values that turn sectional orientations into collective orientations (Astley & Van de Ven, 1983).

Neither staff nor students have a single identity; nevertheless, by interacting and engaging in practices that recognises each other’s differences, they define themselves (van Maanen & Barley, 1985; Pratt, 1998;) and jointly fulfil psychological needs such as self enhancement, safety and affiliation (Pitzer & Hartel, 2004), referred to on page 26 of this thesis. Shared context and shared language facilitates access to people and their information (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1988), as well as elements of mutuality. As a consequence, (discussed on page 35 and 36 of this thesis), sharing practice, students and staff “build a relationship, that enables them to learn from each other” (Wenger, 2007:3).

‘Doing your homework’ as a teacher becomes part of connecting with your students. Most important, being liked by your students creates friendship which is important for students. Being ‘loved’ by students, as referred to on page 87 of this thesis, signifies the extent to which the teacher is approachable and respected. The word ‘love’ appears to be used by students to convey closeness. Love is their term of endearment for defining a student relationship with their teacher or supervisor. That is, someone who connects with students emotionally, they can feel close to, who protects them and guides them through change. It is important for staff to be liked by students. This provides a catalyst for students to make an effort to learn. When students identify a staff member as their ‘best teacher’, it is in part a way of signalling a sense of

closeness and safety. In addition, it becomes what Denhardt and Denhardt (2006) explain is “the part of a leader’s communication that makes the leaders and makes others want to follow is that which connects them emotionally” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006:80).

Students and staff engage in a process of interaction and collective learning, from which, shared understandings emerge, that creates bonds between them (Wenger, 1998, 2007). Most important is that when students and staff share experiences, stories, and ways of addressing recurring problems, they are building and using relationship capital (Stewart, 1997). That enables them to learn from each other (Wenger, 2007) and in turn, facilitates change. In this way the champions of change are students and staff. They become part of a mutual change process that involves learning (Wenger, 1998; Wenger et al, 2002), as discussed on page 36 of this thesis.

#### **4.7 How do leaders construct change?**

This section sets out to answer the fourth research question. In reacting to change, the phrase ‘bringing people on board’ has been used by some staff participants when describing a desired result. Bringing people on board conjures up images of a yacht race:

“What we try to do is anticipate change. We try to become masters of change, what we try and do is try to stay abreast of the changes that are taking place; that puts us in a position of authority with regard to our colleagues who do not often understand very much of what is happening at all, so we try to stay up to date of it and stay ahead of it, so we are more confident and comfortable with it”. S8.

Being ‘on board’ has different meanings for those on the yachts, depending on their reasons for participating. Likewise, change has different meanings and reasons for those participating:

“There are multi-layers sort of hierarchy we have, it also means that academic services as the academic side of the institution has to lead the change so that the divisional deans, and heads, supervisors and teams have to again help people understand why that change is coming, and that’s probably I think the biggest challenge here, moving people from the old models to the new models”. S13.

To extend the seafaring analogy, providing meaning, in the form of champions at least minimises sea sickness, giving participants of change something to sail towards, which allows them to compete in the race:

“Whoever is leading comes with their baggage of what they understand, and when these people are older they are bringing change to us which is 20-30 years out of date probably, they are not cutting edge, um if we think that change that is being requested is something that will, uh, do the organisation good, will do our department good, do the college good and is genuinely something new and innovative, I think we will genuinely buy in. It’s somebody’s PhD thesis from twenty years ago and has just been unearthed and is totally out of date and totally irrelevant to what we are doing now, and that’s the problem, that’s the problem, the change isn’t dynamic in that respect, it’s being led from the back, you know”. S1.

The extent and nature of change appears to influence the power of the champion. That is to say, when there is an increase in change, there is an expectation and a need for more championing:

“We need to win people over so that they now feel agreeable to change, and that change will then begin to grow, and I think it’s got to start at the grass roots, we’ve got to start convincing people, the leaders have to start convincing people that there’s a reason for doing this and it’s more than just for the glory of the system”. S12.

The extent, to which change is accomplished, appears to be aided by the calibre of the champion. For some staff, the accomplishment of change is considerably aided by

persistence of the champion in convincing people of the need for change, and ultimately winning them over. To this extent the champion competes on behalf of change. Some champions explain how others are recruited for change:

“We’ve got to start looking for things that drive individual people, because if we don’t start winning the battle person by person, we’re not going to win”.

S14.

“The change champion needs to be able to see clearly what the vision is, and they need to convince the stakeholders or the people affected by the change, the value it could add to their lives and the organisation, and how it could be better for them and the organisation and everyone concerned”. S9.

The above comment illustrates a view, that the contribution of a change champion was that of representing the benefits behind the cause for change:

“I think what happens is, at the individual level, the person themselves thinks that it’s either because of personal enjoyment or interest, or because of their perspective of what might advance their career, they get involved with things, and then you just happen to become the person, and, you know, that can satisfy a number of needs”. S6.

In this way, the championing of change can also allow others to approve of the actions of those leading change:

“You’ve got to have that feeling of the team spirit when you are leading people through change”. L20.

To this end, there was a common staff belief that change takes place through champions and as a result of championing:

“It won’t work unless you have a champion to drive change, but depending on who that champion is determines how well adjusted people are affected by that change. That really depends on the champion, because you need somebody to

move it forward. Now you can move change forward by pulling and, er, screaming bunch of people behind you, and pushing them, getting them through that process into the change, or you can get them to come along willingly, laughing and happy through the change, that's where the change champion is so very important". S9.

For a number of staff there was clearly a need for change to be championed at a senior level:

"Change has to come from the top. We have a director at the moment who is trying to involve the whole faculty and in my opinion doing a good job of it, and giving faculty ownership and being transparent in decision making. That's one form of change, when it is collaborative effort by the college as a whole led by an approachable and transparent leader". S1.

The contribution of champions in managing change is important to change, as evidenced in a staff members comment:

"It's one of my criticisms. I feel that there isn't much management of change in a place like this, where, and I think it's a particular skill. I'm particularly aware of that at the moment, being in a committee where we can see the effects of the need for effective management of change at a supervisor-up level if it's going to be inclusive and effective". S2.

There appeared to be a perception that managing change involved a need to organise change, if change was to be effective. In this way, the champion is able to define what the future should look like, and provide the vision:

"The leadership has to try and find and find the common path if you like, or come up with a change path, if I can put it correctly, so everybody more or less adheres to it, which is very difficult – umm, but then again it has to be communicated from the leadership to faculty and faculty to leadership". L18.

The data suggests that the actions of champions in this context are important to individuals and groups during change. To this extent (referred to on page 22 and 23 of this thesis), the champion competes on behalf of change (Havelock & Zotolow, 1995), and manages and shapes change (Ribbins & Gunter, 2002). As discussed in section 2.3, the champion is able to define what the future should look like for students and staff, and provide the vision (Kotter, 1995; de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007). This view reinforces Ribbins and Gunter's (2002) belief (referred to on page 22), that being a champion is bound to context, and is more about what the person does and not what they are.

#### **4.7.1 Change and the need for champions**

Champions' are able to represent continuity through change, thereby helping others move from old to new:

“We are doing QA and I hated it when I first did it, because nobody led it, nobody led it, it was like we were going around like headless chickens and we hadn't a clue and we were told you must do this by March, put it in a report. No one told us what report was and how to write a report. We have now done the sensible thing; put one person in place that knows what they are talking about, and it's, change has happened and it is now something that people buy into”. S1.

The champion allows others to get closer to change. A champion can provide some connection to change and sometimes it is from a distance. Realising the benefits of change necessitates that people live through change. The benefits of change emerge if participants are allowed to live through it; however, this requires people to be actively engaged in change:

“Change is needed from both sides, from the leader's side or director, staff side, and from the students' side, so it would require support from both sides”.

L22.



“I think, I think there’s a sense that when change comes, it comes from above you, but without necessarily a conviction behind it, because of what I said earlier about the ‘top-downness’ of where it’s coming from, so I think quite often it will be change of kind of an attitude ‘we need to do this’. You know, it’s a given, we’re going to do this. This is the kind of change to make, and can you help? kind of thing. I think that’s a generalisation, but I think change tends to operate in that kind of way”. S2.

Change relies on those participating having a sense of “shared repertoire for their practice” (Wenger, 2007:2). This not only conveys change but also enacts change, allowing it to permeate the organization.

#### **4.7.2 Champion styles**

Champions energize, and energy brings about change:

“He was somebody who knew how to lead people and he got, he knew how to get people to work for him, he could, he had that look beyond what’s happening you know there’s better things ahead of us, uh, if you just get on board with this it’s good for everybody, kind of a way of pulling people along with, and you could walk in, you know, and you could be 20 hours to the max and pulling your hair out and he’d walk in and ask you to do one more thing and you would just do it. Because you got that infectious sort of enthusiasm that, and he was a change addict, he loved to be in the middle of the fire, he loved to be where things were changing, and he always believed there were better things coming out of all these changes, that it was going to be new challenges and new adventures and new exciting things”. S12.

Those who appoint their champions are able to draw on the legacy and stories of success and heroism. The style of the champion appears significant to several staff during change, and their perceptions of what the champion represents. The personal qualities of the champion are important in the context of connecting with those who are exposed to change:

“Well he certainly had a sort of charisma about him which people liked. He liked the camaraderie you know”. S4.

“So if the leader is, like, confident, or has confidence in himself, and he’s like respected one, people will easily follow him, so the change will come easier”.

L3.

Described above, during change, the champion has a capacity to connect with people. There needs to be a sense of a champion being able to help others through change:

“And also if I hate English, maybe the teacher can help me to love English”.

L19.

“Maybe because an experience he has, or some knowledge that he has, more than other people, so he will become the leader”. L3.

The identification by students and staff with the champion figures coincides with what Schein (1990), considers to be part of internalizing values and assumptions, mentioned on page 24 of this thesis. Described above, during change, the champion has a capacity to connect (as referred to on page 24 of this thesis) with several students and staff “in a way that energizes them and causes them to act” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006:23). For several students and staff, it would appear, a champion personalises change in the contexts described above.

#### **4.8. Why and how are change leaders shaped?**

This section sets out to answer the fifth research question.

The existence of champions can be particularly salient:

“It’s very difficult to make change happen here and make it happen effectively, and make it stick, or make it last, what do we do because whenever people come in they put their own spin on it, or review it, and say why are we doing this?” S8.

Champions can be ‘switched on and off’ to illuminate change when it was needed:

“They become ‘leading lights’ in things, and are held up as the main person for certain initiatives”. S6.

“You would have thought he had conquered Everest, he was responsible for bringing the International Computer Driving Licence here, and every time we had a staff meeting we were reminded of it”. S2.

The champion can also be employed from outside the organisation to create a set of expectations that powerfully influence behaviour throughout organizational change. The nature of change appears to influence the power of the champion:

“Our whole role was being questioned, and we weren’t quite sure where we would fit in the organisation, and, er, she actually took the whole team away on a weekend retreat, and she led it through, hired a professional who led the group through a change management seminar where we talked about what was going on and what had happened in the past, and we were helped to actually move from where we had been to where we were going to go, and did strategic planning, and took control of the change, and made it our own; where we said fine, if we’re going to be forced to change we’re going to decide what and how we’re going to change, and what we will become, we’re not just going to simply sit here and let the winds of change buffet us, we’re going to grab a hold and we’re going to sail our own ship”. S12.

My observation was that the consultant’s role appears to be to fit together the parts of change, allowing others to take the action needed. That is to say, it appears the consultant gains ease of access for those experiencing change, thereby allowing others to move into the unknown territory of change. In the context of this case, the consultant seems to be someone that not only has the ability to rescue those in change, but also becomes a hero during change. The role of the consultant in this process is that of facilitator, supporter, nurturer, organizer and supplier of meaning. The consultant has to get these things right to be a champion. Similarly, senior managers who are trying to become established and introduce change to the institution employ

consultants to go to battle on their behalf. The consultant constructs the senior manager as an internal champion by gaining recognition for him or her.

Champions can sometimes emerge to become facilitators of organizational change:

“I like to be part of, I have ideas that I feel are worthy of consideration for change, so, I’m various things. In my own subject I was part of a change towards more independence, particularly a different use of independent resources would be one example. Also changes in terms of the way people perceive their jobs. I’ve got an interest in the way the content teachers are perceived, the role of their job, compared to their English teachers, and I’ve been involved in various attempts at changing that”. S2.

“There weren’t clubs before but now there are clubs and have been successful, so that’s been satisfying what we are doing as a team at the moment is part of a college plan but it’s turning out we are actually enjoying it, um we think we are going to deliver some good products and I feel part of that, eh, change”.

S1.

A key requirement of champions is that they develop a shared sense of purpose:

“The most effective organism of change within, for teaching and learning, is the section group of teachers. You know, the four or five teachers who are teaching the students, because I think that’s an organism that there’s a dynamism there, where people seem to open to best practices, receiving constructive feedback, trying new things in a kind of peer environment, um that the management can’t replicate and can’t dictate, and because the nature of education is that you spend all your time either preparing for the class or being in the class, that seems to me to be pretty unmanageable. The way it seems to me that long lasting change happens is because of peers talking to each other, sharing ideas, did that work? Or did that work? Sharing materials, saying oh God that didn’t work! I had a real problem with this student, all that kind of stuff, so for me that’s the most dynamic organism and I think it can then ripple out”. S6.

The above comment is an illustration of how champions can be perceived as being part of the team that competes for, organises and supports change. In the conditions referred to, leadership of change is shared and learnt by the group. In doing so, the group appears to personalise change, allowing others in the group to see how it works, and by allowing individuals in the group to demonstrate their commitment to change (Kanter, 1983), as referred to earlier on page 16 and 23 of this thesis. This seems to, as evidenced above, build consensus in the group and manages the associated tensions that come with change (Austin et al, 1997). Thereby, providing inspiration for the group and individuals during change, discussed previously on page 21 of this thesis.

In the context above, leadership has a determining effect (Bass, 1990; Mills et al, 2005), in as much as those who champion change, appeal to, and eventually mobilise group beliefs and values (Weiner, 1988; Mitchell & Willover, 1992) as discussed on page 27 and 28 of this thesis. As described on page 21 of this thesis, it points to the champion's ability to give form and impetus through change, to what Denhardt & Denhardt (2006:157) claim "is especially meaningful in the lives of people for whom they interact". In de Graaaf and Kolmos (2007:33) it is stated that "values are an important part of educational change as change processes entail both a systemic and value oriented change if superficial change is to be avoided".

The champion is sometimes recognised as a winner of change, particularly when change has happened rapidly:

"You know he had friends in high places who had helped, you know, him bring the college as far as he did". S4.

Those around the champion share a sense of admiration towards the champion. They serve as models, who have gained support, to represent, and sometimes defend those in the organisation from change:

"I think change in the college, most of them for benefit of students and staff. Like, they are all made to make the standards higher of the reputation of the college. So I think students should follow the changes. I mean, changes are not done, like to harm the students but to make their life better for future". L3.

“It seems like previously there was a border between the staff and the students, especially because there was no student council, something like that previously. You can now access the admin department and ask for your rights or whatever and speak freely about what you feel, and about what you can develop with the college. And really it become that they listen to you, and trying hard to apply whatever you are saying”. L5.

A champion is somebody who others can rely on:

““It is important that somebody represents us in the top management in the college. He must show us he is bigger than us and he can do anything for us, and he should take care and attention to us, after that he can come as a friend again”. L21.

When support through change is not forthcoming individuals develop a sense of insecurity of what will happen in the future:

“We are on our own”. S1.

“I think people don’t like change if they think it’s a waste of time, because they’ve been there already. I think that’s one of the things I’ve noticed in this environment. I think there’s maybe been a lot of talk on lots of things without much change over the years, and it’s resulted in a discomfort with what actually might be changing, or a lack of belief in it, or not a lack of belief, a lack of confidence that anything would change if you change, so teachers don’t, terrible, that’s not true some teachers are wary of – I think there’s a protectionist attitude to what they do, a conservative attitude which I think is probably very healthy in lots of ways. There’s a feeling that why would you change something that works, or that you’ve worked on, to get, say a teaching method or whatever, why would you replace it if you found a way of working that appears to work reasonably well. So people are uncomfortable with change which is imposed without them understanding or feeling that it’s necessary. And change which takes away their rights and freedoms, they feel uncomfortable with, naturally. I think there may be a sense that changes in

that direction generally and a lot of the changes are you can't do this anymore, you can't do that anymore, and that obviously makes people feel uncomfortable". S2.

The lack of consultation during change felt by some staff, as indicated above, leads to the suggestion that staff change interventions referred to on page 18 of this thesis, can "result in a vicious circle in which each new initiative strengthens the resistance to further change" (Ahn et al, 2004:114). In some cases, resistance can be disguised by "ritualistic compliance" (Licata & Morreale, 2002:9) with change, referred to on page 18 of this thesis.

The future might be secured by appealing to a higher level champion:

"I think the bigger part of it is that you always have to go to the top, because we had a problem with the – a programme, the bachelors part-time and, er, we tried to solve it, it was a good leadership on the part of the students I guess, but there was financial problems in the college but it didn't help, it was no good just talking to the staff because they don't have much, er, influence, even the supervisor, so they had to go directly to the government and the government's office, and I think that's the only problem we have, if there is a problem you have to go up". L1.

"Since there's a large amount of people who went to the Sheikh in order to develop that point, then the rule came to start study at night as an evening student. So this was a major change". L5.

The power of some champions lies in their ability to command change (French & Raven, 1959), as discussed on page 24 and 25 of this thesis. Change occurs without question, and is accepted by followers as a legitimate demonstration of power (Hofstede et al, 1990). One such context relates to the view of power distance and higher or lower levels of acceptance (Hofstede, 2001) during periods of uncertainty and change. The expectation is that the champion will mandate change when it is needed:

“On top of that they changed the grading system to make a B lower and changed the, not only the B grade but the GPA [Grade Point Average] so they really tried to help the students, so it really does impact in a very positive way”. L12.

Alternatively, the power of the champion can manifest itself in other ways. Champion teachers demonstrate their experience, build on their past and provide reassurance to their students:

“I haven’t learnt much from the books and stuff but from their experience, because they have been working before and that’s very important to me to apply when I start work. They always use really live examples from their experiences, but their experiences is very important because anybody at the end of the day can memorise a book or notes, but experience is the most important; they know how to communicate that”. L1.

Appointing a champion therefore becomes a coping mechanism for those involved in change. The adoption of a champion appears to fall into the “dependency and pairing mode of coping” (Morgan, 1986:217). Attention is diverted from the problem on to a particular individual who defines the reality for others (discussed on page 21 of this thesis) during change. A champion portrays characteristics that are idealised and can fulfil the group’s need for a saviour who will deliver it from fear and anxiety. This reinforces Korten’s (1968) view (described on page 22), that where there is lack of clarity, there is a greater compulsion among group members to give power to a central person, who in essence promises to remove the ambiguity and stress:

“It’s important, you know if you have any problem you can always go towards her, because otherwise you close down the problem and it grows and grows and gets worse but she just finishes up and fixes the problem. She never rejects us so she’s very helpful so you feel very comfortable with faculty as a whole and with that type of leadership, she always wants to help the students, er, so it’s a shame she’s leaving, so that is one kind of leadership and she cares about the students”. L1.



The special contribution of a champion is to help resolve questions about the future. The perception is that the champion knows all about change, and how it will work, and that he/she will make things better. Thus champions' have in principle the ability to shape and influence the future. Morgan makes the point that as "human beings who are able to make choices, we have in principle the ability to shape and influence the future, at least to some degree" (Morgan, 1986: 272). There is a reciprocal relationship between the champion and the follower, not one that is necessarily characterised by domination, control or induction of compliance by the champion.

Champions have a life span, and are relegated to institutional history after they have represented and fought for change:

"But I am not sure, you know, because of his style of leadership, which was more sort of, kind of matey, kind of friendly sort of, I'm not sure he could have gone much further you know. I suspect that he'd really gone as far as he could when he moved on". S4.

Those who champion change are sometimes seen as knights in armour, who ride off into the sunset, to be remembered as advocates and, eventually heroes of change:

"She will be missed when she leaves; she has been an advocate of change. You need somebody like that". S1.

They are made of 'the right stuff' and referred to as being behind change.

It is interesting how champions perceive themselves. The emphasis is on being committed to a cause; it is a motivation for behaviour. This also illustrates the champion's belief in stoutly maintaining and fighting for the cause, thereby gaining recognition and a sense of achievement:

"I've championed myself personally lots, I wanted to change in this college, I worked really hard on the quality assurance but although somebody else was in charge of it, ur, if you speak to her I worked very closely with her, and I have worked closely with quality, I've basically championed the strategic

planning for the last two years, and basically been given personal responsibility for performance indicators and make sure that happens until I leave. Because I like a person who can have the vision, there has to be a leader that knows where we need to go and that change champion needs to be able to see clearly what that vision is, and they need to convince the stakeholders or the people who's affected by the change the value it could add to their lives and the organisation, and how it could be better for them and the organisation and everyone concerned; if they can see that it is not going to negatively affect them as an individual within their jobs, they're going to come along". S9.

Some champions draw on the legacy of the institution and choose to represent themselves as pioneers of change. They wish to be remembered as having helped create something, and are leaving a worthy cause behind. At their farewell when leaving the organisation they relate back to the 'early days' of the institution. Recollecting institutional events is important to some champions. By 'going back', there is a sense of working through, organizing and securing change. When a champion leaves the institution they wish to leave a reminder:

"I am leaving this book for the library. I hope you remember me".

(Staff meeting)

The notion that change needs to appeal to the predisposition of the champion, as well as to others participating in change, appears to be a fundamental ingredient of creating change:

"Support for teaching is an important responsibility of mine". (Staff meeting)

"He or she must start adopting change as a person and make everybody see how this change is impacting the leader himself in a positive manner. If he can't show it in a positive manner, it's a lost case. He has to be the role model of change. He or she has to be understanding to people's fear of change". S13.

Leading in this context is part of what Middlehurst (1999) suggests is a process of social interaction. The champion provides powerful symbolic means of communication; his or her very existence provide evidence of the potential to manage and shape change (Peters, 1978; Smircich & Morgan, 1982), mentioned on page 23 of this thesis. In this way, how a champion introduces and manages change influences several staff perceptions of the champion's ability to successfully lead change:

“No change can be straightforward, because you cannot expect or you cannot foresee how people will react to that change. You have to test. You have to introduce change as a small instance at a time. I can't give examples, but it's like testing the water with your toes one inch at a time and see the reaction. And there will always be a prominent opposer, and if you can control that person or that group everything will go smoother, because these are the people that will always raise the biggest problems, and they will search for the cons of that change and make a big deal of it. So if you can't manage that group, everybody else that is already seeing the cons will just follow the lead”. S13.

From a staff point of view, the effectiveness of a leader of change appears to be about “what people do, not what they are about” (Ribbins & Gunter, 2002:361), referred to earlier on page 22. As indicated above, the perception of several staff members is that introducing change can require, by necessity, that the champion is able to engage in the exercise of power, politics and interpersonal influence (Buchanan & Badham, 1999:615) as discussed on page 23, to control others and their actions during change, in this way, securing and maintaining the course of change (Weiner, 1988). The process of change appears to hinge on what Morgan (1986) argues is the perspective of mutual causality. As a consequence, (discussed on page 19) the process of change is always dependent on complex patterns of reciprocal connectivity that cannot be predicted or controlled.

The influence of the champion can be harnessed. However, by allowing them freedom to mobilise and channel the energies of organizational members they enthuse and provide motivation when leading others:

“I want to see some enthusiasm, that's important to me, I need to be led”. S2.

Those who have experienced change have taken on their basic character under the “tutelage of a very special person” (Alder, 1993:173). The champion represents a very special person for several students, in terms of their ability to support them during change:

“When we first came to the college, like, you know, it’s a new environment, the students are still not use to the place, he came to us and we were a big group like about fifteen students, new students and I think it was funny, he came and did some magic things. We couldn’t figure it out how a manager like did that, can do that. L2: He did that for us as well. L3: He got two strings, I think, pulled them together and put them together. Also when I had some problems with math, and I still do have them, he didn’t, he never refused to help us. For example, even he wasn’t our teacher and he was the manager so even though we were not his students, but he didn’t, he never refused to help us”. L2 .

In other words, champions are able to ‘guide’ and sometimes ‘push’ change.

“There are some followers who refuse change. There are some people who don’t like change. So the leader, he might put it in a different perspective”. S15.

“The new idea or the change you need a strong leadership to be able to lead the way or push the idea through”. L22.

The way that a champion presents change appears important in the context of change. In this way, as referred to previously in Chapter 2, by connecting with people in a way that energizes them and causes them to act (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006). Morgan makes the point that as “human beings who are able to make choices, we have in principle the ability to shape and influence the future, at least to some degree” (Morgan, 1986: 272). Leading in the above contexts is part of what Middlehurst (1999) suggests is a process of social interaction. In this way, (as discussed on page 21, and referred to earlier in this section 4.8), leadership builds consensus and manages the associated tension that comes with change (Austin et al, 1997).

#### **4.8.1 Shielded from change**

The notion of somebody being between those subject to change and those mandating change is important to those exposed to change:

”My experience is that it all comes down to what your manager or supervisor is doing, and how much power that person has in the organisation. For example, if you are, let’s say, very close to the centre of power, you are probably creating stuff and you are kind of shielded from this thing, but if you are away, let’s say in a branch, you feel you are more vulnerable to change. Even though the policies might be very positive you have a feeling of discomfort if you are away from the decision centre”. S11.

“We had a director here who was well established politically speaking with the highest levels, and so I always feel that mitigates the big changes coming down from above. If we get a director that is well established he can resist things he doesn’t like and make sure it doesn’t come down to our level, unless he wants it to, whereas if we have a director that is fairly new to the system, as we have now, he has a lot more trouble resisting change”. S7.

Most important is that the champion’s behaviour will be motivational to the extent that it helps subordinates to cope with the environmental uncertainties, threats from others, or sources of frustration:

“If you are advocating for change and then, for whatever reason, it stops, then all your that person’s power and influence is just gone. There are an awful lot of cases I can think of, of people leaving before their time was up, having previously been held up as the main people for certain initiatives”. S6.

Continuity and life span of those leading change, appear to be important to those subject to change. In other words, when change occurs, those experiencing change feel a need for it to be accompanied by leaders ‘who see things through’. Those around change need to see evidence of and a conclusion to change. This is important, as change that is viewed as incomplete breeds a collective resignation that other

changes will follow the same pattern. This, in turn, decreases the propensity of others to engage with change.

#### **4.8.2 The role of the champion**

The champion's role is particularly salient to students and staff during change:

“In order to develop the standard of education at the college, so they implement the changes whenever it is needed to keep up in the education market. I think this is the main reason behind change. This is what motivates them”. L3.

“Because we are a buffer between students and management, and if you act as a professional, and most of us do, otherwise we shouldn't be here in the first place, then you shouldn't transfer negative things from change, you keep it at that level and try and deal with it, unless there is a change in the classroom size, perhaps that impacts on the students”. S15.

The ability to remove uncertainty appears to be an important facet of champions. Participants in change need to 'feel safe' and the emergence of a champion can fill this need:

“You can go to him if you have any problems, he protects others”. L10.

Staff who champion students are those who are able to demonstrate to students important characteristics. These are explained by students in the following ways in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Summary of student responses to champion characteristics.

<b>Student Champion Characteristics</b>	<b>Student Participant</b>
“Make it informal and friendly”.	L17.
“Breaks the gap and are reachable”.	L1.
“Are friendly”.	L16.
“Cares for us”.	L4.
“Interacts with us”.	L6.
“Fixes problems”.	L11.
“Because the teacher is the first way that we learn, they explain to us how we do project, they explain us the books, the paper, anything we learn, we just ask him and he answer us and we get new words”.	L8.
“Keep’s promises”.	L3.

Student-teacher interaction and the development of a relationship create change; it has a potential to create safety. At the same time, it can provide a context for joint practices, which lead change.

Champions are prized:

“He put his stamp on the institution”. S12.

“She was an advocate of change”. S1.

They lead the process and maintain the cause of change:

“Because they have to lead these changes, they have to carry on for improvements, so without leaders I don’t think there would be any improvements”. L2.

“He has been significant to the processes of change”. S9.

My perception from these findings is that those in change situations do exhibit an underlying degree of insecurity, and welcome the presence of somebody who can be referred to as a champion. Additionally, it is a natural phenomenon that can be compared to models of success in society in general. A champion is sought for reassurance, for passion, for hope and for meaning. Champions’ demonstrate their commitment to change by personalising change, so others in the organisation can see how it works:

“From the outside that feels like a changed department, in the way that people interact, the goals they set. And that looks from the outside like a successful change, from a very stagnant to a much dynamic situation, I would say”. S2.

“The biggest one was having the new supervisor who has a vision actually to put this department together and give it an identity that was lacking before. People now who work as part of the business department, for example, can identify themselves as business, as part of the business department; they talk to each other as one group, one entity. That wasn’t there before. I think that’s the biggest change, and it was a positive change, and that could be attributed directly to the new supervisor”. S3.

Bass observed that (1990:13) “leadership exercises a determining effect on the behaviours of group members and on activities of the group” referred to on page 21 of this thesis. It appears in the above contexts leadership builds consensus and manages the associated tension that comes with change (Austin et al, 1997).

A synthesis of the findings is provided in the next section.



## **4.9 Synthesis of findings**

This thesis has reported on a study that provides a contribution to the theory of change leadership. The study, which was carried out in the UAE, brings to light the importance of champions in processes of change; interestingly, throughout this study the championing of change has emerged as an important facet of change. The champion is somebody that serves a purpose through change. In their capacity as champion they are instrumental in providing meaning to others throughout change. The champion represents change, and by choice, as evidenced on page 85 and 86, represents others through change.

Understanding organizational context and its influence over peoples' behaviour (Katz & Kahn, 1978) is an essential factor to consider when introducing and managing change successfully in organizations. Based on the findings from this study, the data suggest that the retention of specific values, shaped by the characteristics of teaching and learning, needs to be understood and built in to programmes of organizational change in academic institutions. Change is fundamentally a collective, collegial exercise in which sensitivities to the particularities of context are important.

In the context of this study, leadership can be viewed as an individual activity that provides meaning and frames the experiences (Johnson et al, 2005) of others throughout change, as evidenced on pages 103 to 106 of this thesis. Alternatively, leadership can be viewed as a collective activity, carried out by groups of individuals, who share work (Drath, 2001) as evidenced on page 87, 88 and 106. Leadership is seen as the outcome of interactions between groups of people (Martin & Ernst, 2005). In this sense, the student-teacher relationship is an adaptive solution in which each takes responsibility for the problematic situations that face them. For example, the ability to lead means developing the ability to learn from each other. The teacher-student relationship is built on a foundation that both need to change, to collectively move forward, to create a path for change. Part of the process of change is that of sense-making in situations that are complex (as discussed on page 31 of this thesis), such as the case study setting. Viewed this way, sense-making is a continuous

process that sustains the possibility for organizational flexibility and change (Weick, 1995).

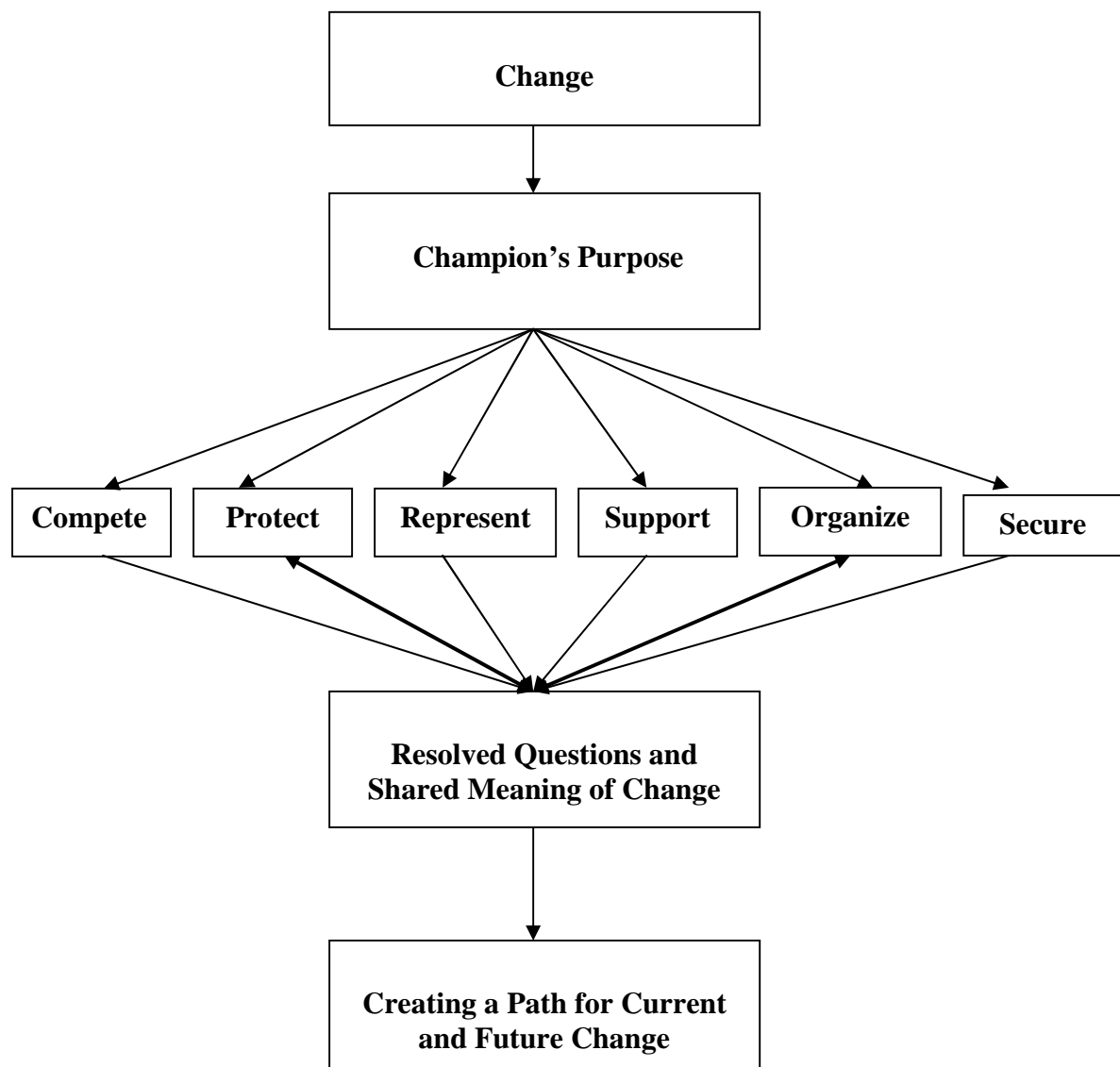
The findings indicate the importance of champions as ‘helpers’ throughout change. In the case study institution, where high levels of perceived changes are evident, the champion makes it safer for others through change. In other words, champions of change provide meaning to those around them. This appears important in contexts of turbulent change and uncertainty.

Collectively, these findings indicate that appointing a champion (or champions) is a protection mechanism, a coping mechanism or, arguably, a way of organising change. The champion contributes in resolving questions surrounding change. That is, as referred to earlier on page 29 of this thesis, the “actions or inactions of social actors, is always and at every moment confronted with specific conditions and choices” (Tsoukas & Chia, 2005:198). The choices that students and staff make in appointing their champions of change rest on what Morgan (1986:113) believes (discussed on page 29 and 30), is the ability for “numerous skilful accomplishments” in organizations. The findings here highlight the importance of a champion’s ability to satisfy skilfully the needs of others through change.

Collectively, these findings also indicate that champions are not always deliberate instigators of change. Rather, champions emerge through change, to represent change, as evidenced on page 85, 99 and 100, and by choice to represent groups and individuals through change, as evidenced on page 86 and 109. In this way champions also allow groups or individuals to observe change, and willingly engage in change, or distance themselves from change. Consequently, champions allow change to be legitimised by those subjected to change, as evidenced on page 112, 113 and 114 of this thesis. In this way, change processes occur between people, and allow those who are experiencing change to share change. It is groups of people that act to facilitate change.

These findings lead to the proposal of the following model (figure 4.1) for processes of change and its interactions with change leaders.

**Figure 4.1      Change Champion Dependency Model**



The different steps in the model above (figure 4.1) relate to my findings, and signify the champion's purpose in creating a path for current and future change. The model above (figure 4.1) illustrates the stronger influence of the champion's ability to be able to protect others during periods of uncertainty, and organize change for students and staff. Similarly, champions compete on behalf of students and staff, in as much as they represent their cause; help resolve their needs and support them through change. In the context of this study, a champion of change competes in terms of their ability to strive to moderate imposed change, which sometimes mitigates the effects for those subject to change. In this way, champions serve a number of purposes. In

their capacity as a champion they are sometimes expected to ‘fight’ for, or to ‘mandate’ and ultimately secure change. In securing change, champions demonstrate an ability to accomplish meaningful change. Furthermore, in pursuit of change, champions display important characteristics that can be admired by others, which in turn can influence acceptance of change. Alternatively, champions have the ability, by sharing and learning to change, of providing consensus and building support, which organizes change. In their capacity as champions, they are instrumental in providing meaning to others throughout change. In this respect, the champion contributes in resolving questions surrounding change. By satisfying these important requirements champions influence group members by their own example. They serve as models for followers. In this study, there is support for Weick’s (1995) claim that leaders bring into existence a new reality that frames the context, within which new interpretive frames and behaviour are formed. From these findings, the champion of change is a way through which the realities of change are shaped and structured as a process of enactment. For students and staff, a champion plays a proactive role in (consciously or unconsciously) creating their world.

The processes by which champions are formed and sustained as a leader of change, hinges on their ability to create and represent a shared sense of reality (Morgan, 1986). This arises around shared expectations and shared learning, through leaders of change. Moreover, these findings indicate the importance of the role of change champions in social construction of change processes and the reality of change. The findings also give support to Denhardt & Denhardt’s (2006:157) assertion that “leaders give form to what is especially meaningful and significant in the lives of people for whom they interact”. The champion provides a point of convergence during change, and it appears to be important in the process of change and the championing of change.

The existing literature on the topic of change leadership, are predominately based on linear models. This places emphasis on formal structure and rationality of organizational change, rather than the dynamic and socially complex nature evidenced in this study. The extent of the literature used for this study (but by no means exhaustive) overlooks contextualised processes of why and how others respond to change as they do, and the causes and effects of change. In contrast, the findings of

this study reveal the central importance of the realities of context, human psychology, and the processes of change. Furthermore, these findings indicate a need to understand the flux and complexity of change processes, and the vital roles of change champions in processes of change.

Consequently, anchoring change to something important to those involved becomes imperative. This links with the suggestion by Senge et al, (1994) that there is a need to gain commitment-based effort, in which people have to make the choice to participate, because they believe it is right for them and the institution. Whether or not it is right is influenced greatly by the nature of the values that participants in change can hold on to. If we accept the importance of maintaining key values, then appointing champions with experience and respect in the organization would appear to be a fundamental ingredient of institutional change.

Institutional change takes place as a result of championing. It is the champions that secure change, by remaining in touch with institutional realities. Change constructs champions, who in turn construct change. They make change real, and they make change mean something to those around them. Moreover, champions announce change to groups of people, making clear the need for change in others. Champions provide a stimulus to others. This has been a distinguishing feature of the results of my study.

Actions of champions, through students or staff, provide the stimulus for change. A champion possesses the skills that relate to content, context and processes, three interrelated dimensions of change. These specific dimensions of change have been reinforced through this study. That is to say, the more the turbulent levels of perceived change, the greater the need for champions.

As identified in Chapter 2 virtually all parts of the expatriates' daily life are open to employer influence (Guzzo et al, 1994), and within this influence the leader/follower relationship is situationally dependent (Rost, 1990). Similarly, students face similar uncertainties as they contend with learning a new language, while coping with the requirements of various academic disciplines in an unfamiliar learning environment.

In the context of this study, there is evidence of turbulent levels of change experienced by students and staff, as evidenced on pages 72 and 73 of this thesis. The crux of why champion behaviour is motivational to followers appears to lie in the extent to which it helps in coping with environmental uncertainties, threats from others, or sources of frustration. In the case of the expatriate, the lifestyle experienced is uncertain and linked to continuous employment. This strong sense of expatriate vulnerability to change (refer page 73) and the need for a champion throughout institutional change is plausible, given the temporary nature of expatriate employment and with this a temporary lifestyle. As such, the context impacts upon the type of person chosen as a change champion which is evidenced on page 108 of this thesis.

The findings from this study suggest a distinctive sort of change champion is called for. The change champion is distinctive in terms of their ability to ‘shield’ others from the physical process of change as evidenced on page 108 and 109 of this thesis. Discussed in Chapter 2, the data in this study suggests that in response to greater stress, and less clarity and general agreement on goals and paths, there is a correspondingly greater compulsion among group members to give power to a ‘central person’ who in essence promises to remove the ambiguity and stress (Korten, 1968). In the context of the case there is a need for expatriates to establish a level of certainty in a context that is characterised by uncertainty (refer page 73). So the champion serves this purpose. Alternatively the change champion can be appointed to represent others and act as a coping mechanism for a fear of change (refer page 77 and 110), or a desire not to change (refer page 85). In this way, the type of change champion chosen by expatriate staff is influenced by the ability to lessen their vulnerability to change (refer page 75, 108 and 109) and to manage what Austin et al (1997) suggest is the associated tensions that come with change.

A strong theme running throughout the data was that change is made easier with champions. Champions become necessary and important to those subject to change. For student participants in the study, champions give form to what Denhardt and Denhardt (2006: 157) propose is especially “meaningful and significant in the lives of people with whom they interact”. Most importantly, champions give a sense of control through change, and “as human beings who are able to make choices, we have in principle the ability to shape and influence the future, at least to some degree”

(Morgan, 1986: 272). For these reasons, champions serve a useful purpose and when that purpose is satisfied they can be relegated to institutional legacy. Champions appeal to those experiencing change and can be used to demonstrate and exhibit to others. They can be referred to as an example and are retained for future use to represent the institution and change.

Based on my personal observations (described on page 59) at the case study site, the speed of change can be enhanced when:

- Talk is matched with doing, to agree with Jick (1995) who asserts that it encourages experimentation (refer page 106). Champions ‘walk the talk’ of change, and in turn gain attention from their audience. In this sense, the style of the champion and their personal qualities appear important (refer to pages 86,103 and 104) in connecting with those who are exposed to change.
- ‘Getting people on board’ requires helping them understand why there is a need for change. It also prepares people for how to change, and champions demonstrate this to their audience.

The success of institutional change hinges on its ability to create a shared sense of reality (Morgan, 1986) which has the potential to harness shared commitment and trust (Iverson, 1996; Urch-Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Weeks & Galunic, 2003; Crawford & Strohkirch, 2002) and in turn provides a motivation for collective effort that responds to organizational change (Lincoln & Guillot, 2004). This type of approach encourages a community reflected in, and enhanced by cultural forms (Durkheim, 1933) that are built on shared dependency (Sergiovanni, 2000). A shared dependency is developed around a shared understanding, a unifying theme that “provides meaning, direction and mobilization, and can exert a decisive influence on the ability of the organization to respond to the changes it faces” (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003:364).

The findings of this study support Tsoukas and Chia’s (2005) observations, that although managers aim to change established ways of thinking and acting through implementing particular plans, change in organizations can occur without purposed

managerial action (referred to on page 100 and 106). They also can occur as a result of individuals trying to reconcile new experiences and accomplish new possibilities. The findings of this study show that what the leader is or does is important in institutional change. In the context of this study, DRC has its own champions. These have emerged from the continuously mutating character of the case study institution.

This study has revealed the processes of change leadership, and the dimensions that are attributed to change leaders. It is felt the findings are an important contribution to future research into change leadership in changing higher education environments and settings.

One aspect of the theoretical significance of the study lies in the accessibility of the model for future research. Other institutions may reveal the dimensions proposed in figure 4.1 (page 121) in unique and characteristic ways. Some features of processes of change in the case study institution may be unique, in relation to the need for specific characteristics of change champions.

What has been identified in this study parallels similar conclusions in other research that champions are needed for understanding the need for change, referred to in Chapter 2. Thus, they are instrumental in leading change (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Havelock & Zotolow, 1995). In the context of this study, students and staff construct and use champions to represent and create change. Champions become necessary for those exposed to change, particularly in the light of findings from this study. It can be argued, based on findings in this research, that making change in UAE higher education could be made more effective by greater formal recognition of champions of change. This assertion is tempered by the recognition that a significant number of changes at the case study institution are in fact mandated. Nevertheless, championing change to establish sustainable change, rather than ritualistic compliance which breeds temporary change, should be of importance to those managing change interventions.

It is clear from this research that, where change is taking place, the change initiatives include group decision making, teamwork, motivation, communication and people management skills. Change is being championed. Those institutions that ignore the



context of an institution during change, and move too far away from what has evolved over a lengthy period can damage the foundations of the institution and threaten the very reason for the existence of the institution. The reason for existence is an important factor for those operating within a climate of institutional change. An institution needs a solid understanding of itself in terms of which aspects of the organisation culture and structure they have built that are critical, and which could be profitably and safely changed (Kanter, 1983).

Changes that are not grounded in the institution's realities tend to be viewed as unsustainable or temporary. As a result, the need to be mindful of the reason for the institutions existence has to be inclusive of Kirkpatrick's (1992) assertion of the three key principles to get the support of change: to put yourself in the shoes of the people required to change; to actually communicate the expected change and the reasons for it; and to engage the individuals in the management of change. Those institutions facilitating change can integrate all these key principles through champions who create the internal conditions that empower institutional change.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Conclusion**

#### **5.1 Purpose and outline of this chapter**

The purpose of this final chapter is to present a summary of the whole study and a synthesis of its outcomes. In addition, the significance of the findings for future research and change interventions are discussed.

This chapter begins with a brief overview of the study (Section 5.2). Section 5.3 provides a review of the findings and analysis of the formation of change champions as evidenced in the study. Section 5.4 continues with a discussion of the findings and their implications for change leadership at the case study institution. Section 5.5 considers the theoretical and practical significance of the study. Next, Section 5.6 highlights some areas of the study which may be useful to explore in future research. Additionally, it includes a learning reflection from carrying out this study. Finally, Section 5.7 concludes with suggestions to change management practices that have potential to enhance change interventions within UAE higher education.

#### **5.2 Overview of my study**

The purposes of the study as set out in Chapter 1 were to make visible the ways that organization processes impact on change and by which change arises, especially in a specific UAE higher education setting. The goal was to analyse and explain change and the associated processes of change, because its effects are important for students, staff and for change management in UAE higher education. There is a need to take sufficient account of the dynamic and socially complex nature of change leaders and activities, if we are to enhance our understanding of organizational change.

Ultimately, there is a need to face up to the complex underlying challenges of change to create any practical and useful conclusions.

Chapters 1 and 2 referred to a substantial body of research, which spanned organization change, leadership and culture. Drawing on this literature, a conceptual

framework was developed that provided a vehicle to better understand change, in particular the processes of change in a specific UAE higher education setting. After formulating research questions to uncover the processes of leading change, an interpretive case study was conducted, using primarily ethnographic methods of data collection. Through this research design and subsequent methods of analysis, I was able to bring to the surface student and staff shared meanings, tacit knowledge and lived experience of change at the case study institution. These findings in answer to the research questions are now reviewed.

### **5.3 Review of findings**

The first research question is:

- Who and what are perceived as change leaders by staff and students in the case study institution?

A ‘change leader’ as discussed earlier (refer to pages 22-23) is someone who provides direction through change. The data suggest that a leader has influence, to the extent that they serve a useful purpose for those subjected to change. In the context of this study, change is associated with individuals making the change. Alternatively, the findings also indicate that those who lead others through change are not always instigators of change. Champions represent change (refer to pages 86 and 102). They also represent others through change (refer to pages 76-77). Champions introduce change, fight for change and defend others through change. In turn the champion can be viewed as representing a cause and conquering change.

It is identified that students and staff share the need for change to be organised. In this sense, champions provide a potential change pathway to follow. In doing so, they give direction to change. As observed also by earlier researchers (Stewart & Kringas, 2003; Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006), the findings here highlight the importance of a leader’s ability to “connect with people in a way that energizes them and causes them to act” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006:20).

The champion's role is defined in the context of their relationship with a specific constituency. In the context of this study, nominating a champion is contingent on the level to which the champion is able to make change clearer and more predictable for those being led. For some, new buildings and offices provide meaning, order and status to change, while for others, buildings represent obstacles to communication during change.

It is clear in the context of this study that there is a need for a central figure, someone or something for those being led, to 'anchor' to in uncomfortable or difficult states of change. Champions provide something to 'hold onto' for students and staff throughout organization change. The need for those involved in change to be at ease with change cannot be underestimated.

The findings highlight that champions symbolise change, to the extent that they provide reassurance to followers. Further, a champion's actions need to be beneficial to those being led. In effect, the champion needs to provide a sense, for those being led, that there is a positive outcome from change.

The second research question is:

- Why do staff and students respond as they do to change leaders?

A champion's purpose (refer to page 22 and 23) can be particularly salient in times of change; for instance, securing change is one of the roles of a champion. Also, the notion that change is led and needs to have a conclusion appears important to those subject to change. Champions look after others, provide reassurance, give direction and reduce the sense of isolation. This, in turn, reduces the feeling of being lost, or vulnerable through change.

The findings highlight the importance to students and staff of a champion's identity and presence during change. They can be displayed, admired and copied. However, the extent to which champions influence lies in their ability to provide meaning through change and their ability to solve questions about the future. In this sense, the

vision is provided by a champion, who in turn communicates the vision to students and staff (Kotter, 1995; de Graaff & Kolmos, 2007).

Similarly, champions provide direction for change and become ‘sense givers’.

In the context of this study the findings suggest that sharing change is important to fostering change. The group (students and staff) becomes instrumental in securing change. Thus, change is a natural process that allows students and staff to champion and co-construct symbolic meanings, and juxtapose the links between change content, process and context. As observed also by earlier researchers (Kerber & Buono, 2005), the findings in this study suggest that accomplishment of change necessitates a match between the requirements of the situation and the approach to change that is being implemented.

The third research question is:

- How does change construct leaders in the case study institution?

In the context of this study the champion of change is constructed and positioned in terms of what he or she is expected to do, and the role he or she plays in the institution (refer to page 21-23). Leadership is the outcome of interactions between groups of people (Martin & Ernst, 2005). Having somebody to lead change and provide a vision, while providing a common path for change, is important for those subject to change. Throughout Chapter 4, the findings illustrate that the championing of change has actively constructed champions as a means of solidifying change and making change safer. “Champions keep people moving in the right direction, despite major obstacles to change, by appealing to basic but often untapped human needs, values and emotions” (Kotter, 1998:41). The emergence of a champion can fill these needs. As observed by earlier researchers (Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Kanter, 1983; 1995) champions are recognised and appointed to create meaning and shape interpretations. A champion provides sense during periods of change.

The findings from this study suggest that in their own way students and staff need their champions. Nevertheless, when operating in a group they co-create championing, as each contributes to the process of change.

The fourth research question is:

- How do leaders construct change in the case study institution?

Kotter (1998: 48) suggests that “good leaders motivate people in a variety of ways”. Therefore, champions become facilitators of change and develop a shared sense of belonging (refer to page 20 and 22). Those around the champion share a sense of admiration towards the champion who has gained support to successfully defend the institution.

Introducing change and allowing individuals to be engaged in change is made possible by attaching the need for change to a group process. The findings of this study support the importance of the group in championing change, as evidenced on page 87 and 88 of this thesis. Champions can be recruited to engage with institutional change, insofar as championing takes place in the form of group practices and actions, and improvisation and adaptation that legitimise change. In turn, the creation and dissemination of change becomes part of what Davenport and Prusak (1998) consider to be the use of knowledge, which refers directly to people, since knowledge lies within people and is created and used by people.

The championing of change is a co-construction by all involved and forms part of a group’s change process, by providing a new identity that emerges from the interactions of those involved in the organization. As a result, change can evolve in the course of a process that reflects divergent interests and accommodates new experiences. The champion does not bestow change on members of the group; rather the group has a shared responsibility for championing change. In so doing, students and staff undertake a change journey that defines the self through the challenges faced. This becomes a source of value to effecting change collectively.

The fifth research question is:

- Why and how are change leaders shaped?

A strong theme running through the data (discussed in Chapter 4) is that change is enhanced with the help of champions. Providing meaning for those engaged in organization change by appointing champions is a key requirement. In this sense, champions actively construct change (refer to pages 20-26). Their pace of championing also sets the pace of change. Champions of institutional change not only convey change but also enact change, allowing it to permeate the organisation. Where a change initiative is accompanied by champions over a prolonged period of time, there is a sense of understanding of change. The champion provides meaning. In one respect, the findings reaffirm the importance of the 'heroic leader' and the diffusion of change, while at other times they indicate that the successful implementation of change will also partly rely on co-option, rather than the compunction of the led. These factors are particularly noticeable in this case study.

Institutional change requires the actions of champions at different levels. The data suggest that there are variations of being a champion, or being perceived as a champion. Those who succeed for the institution develop a presence for DRC and become champions by representing a worthy cause. Events such as open days, inter-college technology competitions, teaching and learning initiatives, are all potential initiatives for champions to be recognized and thereby prized.

The findings highlight the need for appropriate championing and links with Lewin's (1947) model of unfreezing, freezing and refreezing of organizational change. Those instrumental to change, champion change to exploit opportunities (Mintzberg, 1994). Throughout this study, the champion of change ranges from champions as pioneers of change to champions that protect others during change. This has been influenced by context and stage of the institution change cycle. As this case shows, student champions need to protect but also satisfy the basic human needs that other researchers (van Maanen, 1992; Kotter, 1998) have identified for achievement, a sense of belonging, recognition, self esteem, a feeling of control over one's destiny.

Weiner (1988) describes this holding together as a 'central value system'. The ability to recognise shared values in different contexts is a key to implementing change. Collectively, champions tap into these values to mobilise and diffuse change.

## **5.4 Implications for change leadership**

The findings of this study provide several contributions to the study of change leadership. Numerous previous studies have investigated the influence of leadership on change but little work has been done on the interaction between leaders and change. Making sense of these ongoing processes of change contributes to an understanding of what is going on throughout change. Additionally, the findings provide a platform for further theoretical development which has the potential to inform change interventions. In this respect, the traditional (mechanistic) paradigm of change has its conceptual and practical faults.

The present study reveals and examines the ways in which organizational processes impact on change and by which change arise, especially in a particular UAE higher education setting. The results of this study add to the work of others (Ribbins & Gunter, 2002:361) who have proposed in different contexts “being a leader, is about what people do and not what they are”. Not fully exploiting championing and a champion’s contribution to complex processes of change are analogous to driving in first gear to negotiate difficult terrain. It is easier to change into second gear at times, and the same applies to change in the case study institution; champions make change easier for those experiencing turbulent levels of change. Thus, change champions are integral to processes of accomplishing change. They create a sense of meaning in a situation that is characterised by uncertainty and a lack of direction. This finding is important because it supports the findings of previous studies referred to in previous chapters that champions provide meaning throughout change.

Developing change is difficult and managers need guidance. Beare et al, (1989) argue that creating an excellent school requires consideration of underlying values, philosophy and ideology. The same could be said of higher education change in the UAE, where change will continue to be a feature of teaching and learning. To better understand change there is a need to identify clues that provide meaning. This is of great importance to the management of change, because it could lead higher education institutions to develop a much better sense of what aids or inhibits change.



Administrators who list characteristics of effective institutions and try to impose them on their own institutions are falling into what Hoban (2002:18) describes as “the parts of a mechanistic view of educational change”. Rather, “a complex environment needs complex solutions” (Askling & Stensaker, 2002:123) to accomplish change. As Boden (1994:46) perceptively points out, this “relies on social order that is organized from within”. In the context of this study champions are instrumental in organizing change from within.

## **5.5 Limitations of the study**

Despite the contributions, this study has certain limitations.

First, the findings of the study are specific to the situation and may not be transferable to other higher education settings; other groups may not have the same need for a champion or champions to facilitate change in the way they do to those studied. For example, the relative frequency of change experienced by participants in this study may not be evident in other higher education institutions.

Also, the transient nature of staffing in DRC (refer to pages 37-39) adds to the complexity of change. The findings derived from this study may not be applicable in an environment with a less turbulent level of change circumstances.

A further limitation on the potential generalisation of this study is that the scope of the study is small, with the inquiry focusing on a single site.

Also, the student samples were all UAE males and therefore subject to gender influence. This may limit the transferability of findings from this case study, to a higher education setting. For example a mixed gender or a mono-female student sample. For instance, a female student sample may differ in their interpretation of change and their perceptions of a champion. Another limitation in this study is that the student sample includes students for whom English was a second language. This, the author recognises, limits students’ ability to express their more complex thoughts and feelings.

Finally, due to the diversity of national cultures, in this study the findings may not be applicable in a more homogeneous population and in different countries, which have cultural dimensions of collectivism and power distance different from those in the UAE. In other words, the cultural and institution dynamics may be quite different and as a result shape how and why champions can be characterised. According to Ticehurst and Veal (1999:24) the findings of any research “relate only to the subjects involved at that time and place the research was carried out”; therefore, the generalisation of these findings and the championing of change may be limited by the specifics of this particular setting.

## **5.6 Implications for future research and practice**

The findings from this study raise a number of additional research questions, three of which appear to be of particular note.

First, while this study focuses on a single site and uses the perceptions of UAE male students and mixed gender teaching and support staff, future research could gain valuable insights through the study of championing change from a variety of diverse perspectives, such as UAE female students and teaching and support staff at a similar institution. Also, different ethnic student bodies at other UAE higher education institutions could be studied. A comparison across higher education institutions would be useful to establish variations in championing. While this study argues a case for champions in a single UAE higher education institution context, the question that could be asked is whether this case is transferable to a British, Malaysian, Chinese or other cultural groups in a higher education setting, for example. This question is not answered in this study, due to the limitations listed in 5.5 above.

Secondly, an especially interesting avenue for future research is the investigation of specific characteristics of championing, at various stages of an institution’s development. This could be useful for those institutions needing to accelerate the development of the institution as a result of increased competition. Similarly, it could be useful for newly created institutions in higher education in the UAE. The institution featured in this study is not impacted greatly with regard to competition as

it continues to be free for students attending and entry is restricted to UAE nationals. However, there is a heightened emphasis on budget constraints and improved outcomes and performance.

Thirdly, although the findings derived from this study are important for both theory and practice, a direction for future research would be to examine communication processes. In this instance, these would be the communication processes that take place between staff and students through change, such as the one studied, which is a mixed national culture higher education institute. In particular, this may shed more light on how and why interactions assist or hinder change.

## **5.7 Reflection on research from this study**

What has been learnt about research from carrying out this study is that research undertaken in a turbulent socio-political environment places additional demands on the sensitivities of the researcher. Gaining insights into people's feelings of change can be stimulating; however, it can also be troublesome. Dealing with the precariousness of being an insider researcher in such sensitive environments, while trying to uncover the participant stories provided additional challenges for the researcher.

Being an insider researcher has certain advantages. For example, in this research access to participants and a relatively flexible demand on participants time has been advantageous to conducting the research. Nevertheless, conducting research in conjunction with being a full-time educator has demanded the optimum utilisation of time available and has challenged the ability of the researcher to switch between being a researcher and being a full-time educator.

Uncovering people's feelings, emotions and challenges during change are a complex process. Consequently, this has required a continual alertness and a need to take stock of elements that may impact on gaining the rich data needed to explain change. Moreover, the delicate nature of the research questioning and research context needs

to be thought through carefully. This brings with it a need for the researcher to negotiate the terrain of organizational life.

For most staff the UAE is not their natural habitat, in that their experience has been gained in different settings. However, as expatriates they have a lot to lose from being misjudged. Such is the nature of this employment; an employee who loses his or her job forfeits the legal right to remain in the UAE. This results in the disruption of children's education, and the family loses their home. Being mindful and sensitive to these factors has created a personal sense of gratitude for the time people made for this research.

As a researcher, this research has installed a deep respect for people in the case study institution and a reassurance in human nature that people are willing to give their time and opinions freely, especially given the levels of staff vulnerability in an unpredictable work environment. Student participation has also been overwhelming and satisfying. The contribution students and staff have made to this study has instilled a confidence in the possibility and practicality of further research.

Most important from this study is that it relied on students and staff and their willingness to express their emotions, feelings and lived experience of change. In this respect, as a researcher, a rich data is gained by investing in sensitising oneself to the context. The value of doing this cannot be overstated and has become more evident to the researcher as this study progressed.

## **5.8 Conclusions**

The findings of this study largely support the view that sustained change can only be achieved if it is allowed to seep into the consciousness of the people involved. Also, the study supports the importance of championing and the role of champions throughout institutional change.

Higher education institutions are complex and sometimes contradictory organizations. Such features often surface in processes of change. This thesis seeks to provide new

insights into organization change and change theories by exploring processes of change at a particular higher education setting in the UAE.

This study lays the foundation for future work on the interactive nature of change. Particularly, student and staff attitudes and perceptions of leading change at different states of change. The findings of this thesis will, the author hopes, serve as a useful basis for future explorations into the dynamic and interpretative processes of organization change and resistance to change. Of particular interest is that of local adaptations to change. The results of this study indicate that higher education institutions need to consider processes of change, in particular championing, that may never acquire the status of formal institutional practices and standard procedures, but which are no less important.

This study identifies and discusses potential impediments to change. The need for diffusion of change, greater self-motivation, and self-leadership within a team context offer some potential routes by which it may be possible to champion change. Hence, there is a need for greater formal recognition of the activities of champions and the part they play in the dynamic and socially complex nature of institutional change.

To those leading the changes in higher education in the UAE, change interventions and organizational transformation processes will become an increasingly important consideration in improving organizational performance. Needless to say, higher education institutions that understand change are better placed to anticipate and build a capacity for change. However, understanding its complexity, and anchoring that understanding to effective organization interventions, remains a challenging task.

Those people that understand championing are in a better position to capitalise on changing priorities, by allowing change to be linked and diffused through processes of change. While change may be implemented in the form of structured rationalisation and mission statements, it is the champions that secure institutional change. Whatever strategies institutions may seize on, everything returns to change by championing. Institutional change takes place as a result of championing, and it is the champions that lead and secure change.

## References

- Abdelkarim, A. (1999). *Change and development in the Gulf*. London: Macmillan.
- Abdelkarim, A. (2001). *UAE labour market and problems of employment of nationals: An overview and policy agenda*. Dubai: UAE National Human Resource Development and Employment Authority.
- Achtenhagen, L., Melin, L., Mullern, T., & Ericson, T. (2003). Leadership: The role of interactive strategising, in A.M. Pettigrew, R. Whittington, L. Melin, C. Sanchez-Runde, F.A.J. Van Den Bosch, W. Ruigrok and T. Numagani (Eds.), *Innovative forms of organizing* (pp. 49-71). London: Sage Publications.
- Agyris, C. & Schon, D. (1978). *Organizational learning: A theory of action perspective*. Reading, Mass: Addison Wesley.
- Ahn, M.J., Adamson, J.S., & Dornbusch, D. (2004). From leaders to leadership: Managing change. *Journal of Leadership & Organisational Studies*, 10(4), 112-124.
- Alder, H. (1993). *The right brain manager*. London: Piatkus Publishing.
- Alvesson, M. (2002). *Understanding organizational culture*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Anon. (2006). *Schools will be a magnet for pupils*. Gulf News, UAE. June 3, 2006. p4.

- Anon, (2004). *Keeping pace with the times*. Gulf News, UAE. November 27, 2004. p8.
- Arlinghaus, P, B. (2006). Public accounting needs good followers. *The CPA Journal*, 76(1), 6-9.
- Ashforth, B., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 20-39.
- Askling, B., & Stensaker, B. (2002). Academic leadership: Prescriptions, practices and paradoxes. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 8(2), 113-125.
- Astley, W.G., & Van de Ven, A.H. (1983). Central perspectives and debates in organization theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28, 262-263.
- Austin, M., Ahearn, F., & English, R. (1997). Guiding organizational change. *New Direction for Higher Education*, 98, 31-57.
- Bahous, R., Busher, H., & Nabhani, M., (2006). *Case Studies in Education in Beirut: Why did one School Engage Students from Socially Disadvantaged backgrounds in Learning?* Paper given at the European Conference on Educational Research, Geneva 13-16 September.
- Barney, J.B. (1986). Organisational culture: Can it be a source of sustained competitive advantage? *Academy of Management Review*, 11, 656-665.
- Bass, B. M., (1990). *Bass & Stogdills handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial application* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York: Free Press.

- Bassey, M. (1999). *Case study research in educational settings*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Bates, S.P. (1994). *Strategies for cultural change*. Oxford: Butterworth - Heinemann.
- Baumann, G. (1996). *Contesting culture*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bean, J. P. (1998). Alternative models of professional roles. *Journal of Higher Education*, 69, 496-512.
- Beare, H., Caldwell, B., & Millikan, R. (1989). *Creating an excellent school*. London: Routledge.
- Becher, T. (1988). Principles and politics: An interpretive framework for university management, in A. Westoby (Ed.), *Culture and power in educational organisations*. Milton Keynes, UK: Open University Press.
- Becher, T. (1989). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the cultures of disciplines*. Milton Keynes, UK: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.
- Beer, M. & Nohria, N. (2000). Cracking the code of change. *Harvard Business Review*, 78(3), 133-141.
- Bion, W. R. (1948). Experiences in groups. *Human Relations*, vols. 1-4.



- Bion, W. R. (1959). *Experiences in groups*. New York: Basic Books.
- Block, L. (2003). The leadership-culture connection: An exploratory investigation. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(5/6), 318-335.
- Boden, D. (1994). *The business of talk*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1982). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Boglarsky, C.A., & Kwantes, C.T. (2004). Do occupational groups vary in expressed organizational culture preferences? *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 4(3), 335-354.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1991). *Reframing organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass Inc.
- Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. C. (1977). *Reproduction in education, society and culture* (R. Nice, Trans.). London: Sage Publications.
- Bourdieu, P., Passeron, J.C., & de Saint Martin, M. (1994). *Academic discourses*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2004). *Revised ethical guidelines for educational research*. Southwell: BERA.

- Britzman, D. (1995). Beyond innocent readings: Educational ethnography as a crisis of representation, in W. Pink, G.W. Noblit (Eds.), *Continuity and contradiction: The futures of the sociology of education* (p. 133). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton.
- Brotherson, M. J. (1994). Interactive focus group interviewing: a qualitative research method in early intervention. *Topics in early childhood special education*, 14: 101-18.
- Brouwer, N., & Kourthagen, F. (2005). Can teacher education make a difference? *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(1), 153-225.
- Buchanan, D., & Badham, R. (1999). Politics and organizational change: The lived experience. *Human Relations*, 52(5), 609-629.
- Burgess, R.G. (1991). Sponsors, Gatekeepers, Members and Friends: Access in Educational Settings', in W.B. Shaffir and R.A. Stebbins (eds) , op cit., pp. 42-43.
- Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis*. London: Heinemann.
- Busher, H. (2001). The micro-politics of change, improvement and effectiveness in schools, in N. Bennett & A. Harris, A. (Eds.) *School effectiveness and school improvement: Searching for the elusive partnership*. London: Continuum.
- Busher, H. (2005). The project of the other: Developing inclusive learning communities in Schools. *Oxford Review of Education*, 31(4), 457-477.

Busher, H., & James, N. (2006). *Ethical issues in on-line research: authenticating voice, sustaining privacy*. Paper given at the 8<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Education, Athens Institute for Education and Research, Athens, Greece, May 25-28, 2006.

Busher, H., & James, N. (2007). Ethics of educational research: An agenda for discussion. In A. Briggs, & M. Coleman, (Eds.), *Research in educational management* (2nd Ed.) London: Paul Chapman.

Carter, K. (1993). The place of story in the study of teaching and teacher education. *Educational Researcher*, 22(1), 5-12.

Cartwright, D. (1965). Influence leadership control. In J.G. March (Ed.), *Handbook of organizations*. (pp. 124-128). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Child, J., & Rodrigues, S. (2003). Social identity and organizational learning. In M. Easterby-Smith, M. Lyles (Eds.), *The blackwell handbook of organizational learning and knowledge management* (pp. 535-56). Malden, USA: Blackwell Publishing.

Clancy, K. (1993). *The marketing revolution: A radical manifesto for dominating the marketplace*. New York: Harper Row.

Clarke, M., & Otaky, D. (2006). Reflection 'on' and 'in' teacher education in the United Arab Emirates. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 26 (2006), 111-122.

- Coakes, E., Willis, D., & Clarke, S. (2002). *Knowledge management in the sociotechnical world: The graffiti continues*. London: Springer.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education: Fifth edition*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Coleman, M., Briggs, A.R.J. (Eds.). (2002). *Research methods in educational leadership and management*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Collinson, D. L., (2005). Dialectics of leadership, *Human Relations*, 58(11), 1419-1442.
- Collinson, D. L., (2006). Rethinking followership: a post-structuralist analysis of follower identities, *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(2), 172-189.
- Conger, J.A., Spreitzer, G. M., & Lawler, E.E. (Eds.). (1999). *Leading change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Cooke, R.A., & Szumal, J.L. (1993). Measuring-normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations in organizations: The reliability and validity of the organizational culture inventory. *Psychological Reports*, 72, 1299-1330.
- Craig, C. M. (2004). Higher education culture and organizational change in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. *The Community College Enterprise*, 10(1), 79-90.

- Crawford, C. B., & Strohkirch, C, S. (2002). Leadership education for knowledge organizations: A primer. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 1(2), 1-16.
- Davenport, T. H., & Prusak, L. (1998). *Working knowledge: How organizations manage what they know*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Dawson, P. (1994). *Organizational change: A processual approach*. London: Paul Chapman.
- Dawson, P. (1996). Beyond conventional change models: A processual perspective, *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 34(2), 57-70.
- Deal, T., & Kennedy, A. (1982). *Corporate cultures*, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Deary, J. F. (July 2005). Determinants of organizational culture in UAE higher education. *Proceedings of the European Conference on Information Systems Management, Leadership and Governance*. University of Reading, UK. 1, 33-41.
- Deary, J. F. (July 2006). Linking leadership, culture and change. *Proceedings of the European Conference on Management Information Systems, Leadership and Governance*. Ministry of Research, Paris. 2, 11-20.
- De Graaff, E., & Kolmos, A. (2007). *Management of change, implementation of problem-based and project-based learning in engineering*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

- Delamont, S. (2002). *Fieldwork in educational settings*. London: Routledge.
- Denhardt, R. B., & Denhardt, J. V. (2006). *The dance of leadership: The art of leading in business, government and society*. Armonk, New York: M.E. Sharpe Inc.
- Denzin, N. (1989). *The research act* (3rd ed.). Chicago: Aldine.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y., (Eds.). (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research in education*. London: Sage Publications.
- Desert Rose College. (2004). *Policy on strategic planning and institutional effectiveness*.
- Desert Rose College. (2005). *College goals*.
- Desert Rose College. (2006). *Today's students, tomorrow's entrepreneurs*. Annual Conference.
- Detert, J., Louis, K.S., & Schroeder, R.G. (2001). A culture framework for education: Defining quality values and their impact in U.S. high schools. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 12, 183-212.
- Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis: A user-friendly guide for social scientists*. London: Routledge.

- Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (1998). Towards comparative educational administration: Building the case for a cross cultural school-based approach. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 36(4), 379-96.
- Drath, W. (2001). *The deep blue sea: Rethinking the source of leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Inc.
- Durkheim, E. (1933). *The division of labour in society*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Durkheim, E. (1966). *Suicide: A study in sociology*. New York: Free Press.
- Easley, A. E., & Alvarez-Pompilius, F. (2004). A new paradigm for qualitative investigations: Towards an integrative model for evoking change. *Organization Development Journal*, 22(3), 42-59.
- Eccles, R. G., Nohria, N., & Berkley, J. D. (1992). *Beyond the hype*. Boston, Mass: Harvard Business School.
- Eisner, E. W. (2001). Concerns and aspirations for qualitative research in the new millennium. *Qualitative Research*, 1(2), 135-145.
- Erickson, D. (1967). Foreword. *Review of Educational Research*, 37 (4), 417-32.
- Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Alien, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

- Etzioni, A. A. (1975). *A comparative analysis of complex organizations: On power, involvement and their correlates* (Revised Ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Evans, R. (2001). *The human side of school change: Reform, resistance, and the real life problems of school change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and social change*. Padstow: Polity Press.
- Fairclough, N. (2001). Critical discourse analysis as a method in social scientific research, in R.Wodak & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Methods of critical discourse analysis* (pp. 121-138). London: Sage Publications.
- Farkas, C. M., & Wetlaufer, S. (1996). The ways chief executive officers lead. *Harvard Business Review*, 74,110.
- Farnham, D., Horton, S., & White, G. (2003). Organizational change and staff participation and involvement in Britain's public services. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 16(6), 434-445.
- Feldman, M. (2000). Organizational routines as a source of continuous change, *Organization Science*, 11(6), 611-629.
- Feldman, M., & Pentland, B. (2003). Reconceptualizing organizational routines as a source of flexibility and change. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 48, 94-118.



- Feldman, D.C., & Thomas, D. C. (1992). Career management issues for expatriates. *Journal of International Business*, (Second Quarter), 271-293.
- Findlow, S. (2005). International networking in the United Arab Emirates higher education system: Global–local tensions. *Compare*, 35(3), 285-302.
- Flores, J. (1993). Special theme edition: Challenges of diversity. *The Journal of the Association of Mexican American Educators*. Association of Mexican Educators.
- Fombrun, C.J. (1992). *Turning points*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Ford, J., & Ford, L. (1995). The role of conversations in producing intentional change in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 541-570.
- Foucault, M. (1977). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison*. New York: Vintage Books.
- Francis, H. (2002). A bias for talk, HRM reconstruction of employee relations. *Personnel Review*, 13(4), 432-448.
- Francis, H. (2003). HRM and the beginning of organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 16(3), 309-38.

- Freed, J., Klugman, M., & Fife, J. (1997). *A Culture for Academic Excellence: Implementing the Quality Principles in Higher Education*, in *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report*, (Vol. 25(1).) Washington, DC: The George Washington University, Graduate School of Education and Human Development.
- French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. H. (1959). *The basis of social power*, in D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in Social Power* (pp. 150-167). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research).
- French, W. L., Bell, C. H., & Zawacki, R. A. (1989). *Organization development* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). Homewood, Illinois: BPI Irwin.
- Fullan, M. (2001). *The new meaning of educational change* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). US: Teachers College Press.
- Gayle, D., Bhoendradatt, T. & White Jr., A.Q. (2003). *Governance in the twenty-first-century university: Approaches to effective leadership and strategic management*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gioia, D., & Thomas, J (1996). Identity, image and issue interpretation: Sense making during strategic change in academia. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(3), 370-403.

- Glaser, B.G., & Strauss, A.L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New York: Aldine Publishing Co.
- Godfrey, E. (2003). *The culture of engineering education: A case study of a New Zealand university*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Curtin University of Technology, Perth, Western Australia, Australia.
- Goffman, E. (1981). *Forms of talk*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Gomm, R., Hammersley, M., & Foster, P. (Eds.). (2000). *Case study method*. London: Sage Publications.
- Gray, B. (2004). Informal learning in an online community of practice. *Journal of Distance Education*, 19(1), 20-35.
- Greenfield, T., & Ribbins, P. (1993). *Greenfield on educational administration*. London: Routledge.
- Greenwood, R., & Hinings, C.R. (1988). Organizational design types, tracks and the dynamics of strategic change. *Organizational Studies*, 9(3), 293-316.
- Greenwood, R., & Hinings, C. R. (1996). Understanding radical organizational change: Bringing together the old and new institutionalism. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(4), 1022-1054.

- Grugulis, I. (2003). Organizational culture: Organizational change? *Management Learning*, 34(1), 143-48.
- Guest, D. E. (1997). Human resource management performance: A review and research agenda. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(3), 263-278.
- Gumport, P., & Snyderman, S. (2002). The formal organization of knowledge. *Journal of Higher Education*, 73(3), 375-409.
- Gundry, L. K., Kickul, J. R., & Prather, C. W. (1994). Building the creative organization. *Organizational Dynamics*, Spring, 22-36.
- Gunter, H. (2004). The purposes and practices of intellectual work: A reply to Galbraith. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42(1), 29-39.
- Guzzo, R.A., Noonan, K. A., & Elron, K. A. (1994). Expatriate managers and the psychological contract. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(4), 617-626.
- Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (1995). *Ethnography* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). London: Routledge.
- Hampden-Turner, C. (1990). *Corporate culture: From vicious to virtuous circles*. London: Economist Books.
- Handy, C. B. (1993). *Understanding organizations* (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Harmondsworth: Penguin.

- Hannerz, U. (1992). *Cultural complexity: Studies in the social organisation of meaning*.  
New York: Columbia University Press.
- Hargreaves, A. (1991). Contrived collegiality: The micro politics of teacher collaboration,  
in J. Blasé (Ed.), *The politics of life in schools: Power, conflict and cooperation*.  
(pp. 46-72). London: Sage Publications.
- Harris, C.L., & Crane, A. (2002). The greening of organizational culture: Management views  
on the depth, degree and diffusion of change. *Journal of Organizational Change  
Management*, 15(3), 214-235.
- Hartel, C. E. (2004). Towards a multicultural world: Identifying work systems, practices and  
employee attitudes that embrace diversity. *Australian Journal of Management*, 29(2),  
189-201.
- Havelock, R.G., & Zotolow, S. (1995). *The change agent's guide* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Englewood  
Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.
- HH Sheikh Mohammad Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice-President and Prime Minister of the  
UAE and Ruler of Dubai, (2006). *Schools will be a magnet for pupils*. Gulf News,  
June 3, 2006. p4.
- HE Sheikh Nayhan Mabarak Al Nayhan, Minister of Education, (2006). Today's students,  
tomorrow's entrepreneurs. *19th Annual Conference of the Higher Colleges of  
Technology*, Madinat Jumeirah Conference Centre, Dubai, UAE August 30, 2006. p2.

- Helms, M. M., & Stern, R. (2001). Exploring the factors that influence employees' perceptions of their organizations' culture. *Journal of Management in Medicine*, 15(6), 415-429.
- Henriksen, L.B., Norrelit, L., Jorgensen, K.M., Christensen, J. B., & O'Donnell, D. (2004). *Dimensions of change, conceptualising reality in organizational research*. Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Heracleous, L., & Hendry, J. (2000). Discourse and the study of organization: Towards a structurational perspective. *Human Relations*, 53(9), 1251-1286.
- Hitt, W. D. (1995). The learning organization: Some reflections on organizational renewal. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 16(8), 17-25.
- Hoban, G. F. (2002). *Teaching and learning for educational change: A systems thinking approach*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Hodson, D., & Hodson, J. (1998). Science education as enculturation: Some implications for practice. *School Science Review*, 80(290), 17-24.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Cultures consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organisations: Software of the mind*. New York: McGraw- Hill.

- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (2003). Images of Europe: Past, present and future, in M. Warner & P. Joynt (Eds.), *Managing across cultures: Issues and perspectives*. (pp.103-123). London: Thomson.
- Hofstede, G., Neuijen, B., Ohayv, D. D., & Sanders, G. (1990). Measuring organizational cultures: A qualitative and quantitative study across twenty cases. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35(2), 286-316.
- Holliday, A. (1996). Developing a sociological imagination: Expanding ethnography in international English language education. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(2), 234-55.
- Holliday, A. (1999). Small cultures. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(2), 237-64.
- Holliday, A., Hyde, M., & Kullman, J. (2004). *Intercultural communications: An advanced resource book*. London: Routledge.
- Hopkins, D. (2001). *School improvement for real*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Hoyle, E. (1986). *The politics of school management*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

- Humphreys, M., & Brown, A. (2002). Narratives of organizational identity and identification: A case study of hegemony and resistances. *Organization Studies*, 23, 421-447.
- Hunt, J. W. (1986). *Managing people at work* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). London: McGraw Hill.
- Israel, S. M., & Kasper, B, B. (2004). Reframing leadership to create change. *The Educational Forum*, 69(1), 16-27.
- Iverson, R. D. (1996). Employee acceptance of organizational change: The role of organizational commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(1), 122-149.
- Jick, T. D. (1995). Accelerating change for competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics*, Summer, 77-82.
- Johnson, R. G., Aitken, J. A., & Steggerda, R. (2005). Emotions and educational leadership: Narratives from the inside. *Planning and Change*, 36(3-4), 235-253.
- Jones, S. (1985). The analysis of depth interviews, in R. Walker (Ed.) *Applied Qualitative Research*, (pp. 56-69). London: Gower.
- Kaltenbach, P. (2002). Managing the weight of change. *Catalyst*, 50-55.



- Kanter, R. M. (1983). *The change masters: Innovation for productivity in the american corporation*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Kanter, R. M. (1995). Agent of change management. *Management*, 34-35.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organization* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Keeney, B. P. (1983). *Aesthetics of change*. New York: Guildford
- Kerber, K., & Buono, A. F. (2005). Rethinking organizational change: Reframing the challenge of change management. *Organization Development Journal*, 3(23), 23-39.
- Keup, J., Walker, A., Astin, H., & Lindholm, J. (2001). *Organisational culture and institutional transformation*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 464521). Retrieved August 24, 2006, from ERIC.
- Kezar, A., & Eckel, P. (2002). The effect of institutional culture on change strategies in higher education: Universal principles or culturally responsive concepts. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73(4), 435-460.
- Kilman, R. (1984). *Beyond the quick fix*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1992). The power of empowerment: How much empowerment is too much or not enough. *Training & Development*, 46(9), 3-8.

Knights, D., & McCabe, D. (2002). A Road less travelled, beyond managerialist critical and processual approaches to total quality management. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 15(3), 235-254.

Kogan, M., Bauer, M., Bleiklie, I., & Henkel, M. (Eds.). (2000). *Transforming higher education, a comparative study*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Kogut, B., & Zander, U. (1996). What firms do? Coordination, identity and learning. *Organization Science*, 7(5), 502-518.

Korten, D. C. (1968). Situational determinants of leadership structure, in D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds.), *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*. (pp. 351-361). New York: Harper Row. pp.351-361.

Kotter, J. P. (1995). Leading change: Why transformation efforts fail. *Harvard Business Review*, March/April 59-68.

Kotter, J. P. (1996). *Leading change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kotter, J.P. (1998). *Harvard business review on leadership*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Labaree, R. V. (2002). The risk of going observationalist: Negotiating the hidden dilemmas of being an insider participant observer. *Qualitative Research*, London: Sage Publications.
- LaClair, J., & Rao, R. (2002). Helping employees embrace change. *The McKinsey Quarterly*, No 4.
- Lakomski, G. (2001). Organizational change leadership and learning: Culture as cognitive process. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(2), 68-79.
- Lang, J. C. (2001). Managerial concerns in knowledge management. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 5(1), 43-57.
- Lee, J, S, K. (1992). Quantitative versus qualitative research methods- two approaches to organisation studies. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 9(1), 87-95.
- Lesser, E., & Prusak, L., (1999). Communities of practice, social capital and organizational knowledge. *Information Systems Review*, 1(1), 3-9.
- Levinson, B. A., Foley, D.E., & Holland, D.C. (Eds.). (1996). *The cultural production of the educated person: Critical ethnographies of schooling and local practice*. NY: State University of New York Press.
- Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics: Concepts, method and reality in social science. *Human Relations*, 1, 5-41.

- Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science*. New York: Harper Row.
- Licata, C. M., & Morreale, J. C. (Eds.). (2002). *Post -tenure faculty review and renewal: Experienced voices*. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.
- Lincoln, J. R., & Guillot. (2004). Durkheim and organizational culture. *Institute of Industrial Relations Working Paper Series*. University of California, Berkeley.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lines, R., Selart, M., Espedal, B., & Johansen, S. T. (2005). The production of trust during organizational change. *Journal of Change Management*, 5(2), 221-246.
- Linstead, S. (1993). Deconstruction of the study of organisations, in J. Hassard & M. Parker (Eds.), *Postmodernism and organisations*. (pp. 49-70). London: Sage Publications.
- Lofland, J., & Lofland, L. (1984). *Analysing social settings: A guide to qualitative observations and analysis* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Lorsch, J.W., & Lawrence, P.R. (1970). *Studies of organizational design*. Homewood, IL: Irwin Dorsey.
- Luke, A. (1997). The material effects of the word: Apologies, 'Stolen Generation' and public discourse. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 18, 343-368.

Lukes, S. (1974). *Power: A radical view*. London: MacMillan.

Lutrin, Carl E., & Shani, A.B. (1998). Reinventing in the public sector: Some lessons and limits, in R.R. Sims (ed.), *Accountability and radical change in public organizations* (pp. 71-96). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.

Mahoney, R. (2000). Leadership and learning organizations. *The Learning Organization*, 7(5), 241-243.

Martin, A., & Ernst, C. (2005). Leadership, learning and human resource management: Exploring leadership in times of paradox and complexity. *Corporate Governance*, 5(3), 82-95.

Martin, J. (1992). *Cultures in organizations: Three perspectives*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Martin, J. (2002). *Organizational culture: Mapping the terrain*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Martin, Y. P., & Turner, B. A. (1986). Grounded theory and organizational research. *Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 22(2), 141-57.

Marshall, C. (1985). Appropriate criteria of trustworthiness and goodness for qualitative research on education organizations. *Quality and Quantity*, 19(198), 353-373.

- McAleese, D., & Hargie, O. (2004). Five guiding principles of culture management: A synthesis of best practice. *Journal of Communication Management*, 9(2):155-168.
- McKinney, E., & Gerloff, E. (2004). *Interorganizational Systems Partnership Effectiveness*. Retrieved November 20, 2006, from <http://hbs.baylor.edu>.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Merton, P., Froyd, J., Clark, C., & Richardson, J. (2004). Challenging the norm in engineering education: Understanding organizational culture and curricular change. *Paper presented at the 2004 American Society for Engineering Education Annual Conference & Exposition*. Retrieved October 26, 2005, from <http://www.foundationcoalition.org/events/news/conferencepapers/2004>
- Middlehurst, R. (1999). New realities for leadership and governance in higher education? *Tertiary Education and Management*, 5(4), 307-329.
- Miles, M.B., & Huberman, M.A. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods*. London: Sage Publications.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, M. A. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded source book* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Mills, M., & Bettis, P., Miller, J. W., & Nolan, R. (2005). Experiences of academic unit reorganization: Organizational identity and identification in organizational change. *Review of Higher Education*, 4 (Summer), 597-620.
- Minichiello, V., Aroni, R., Timewell, E., & Alexander, L. (1990). *In depth interviewing: Researching people*. La Trobe University: Longman Cheshire Pty. Ltd.
- Minister of Education, Dr Hanif Hassan. *Education must keep pace with development*, Gulf News UAE, 12 October 2006. p6.
- Mintzberg, H. (1979). An emerging strategy of direct research. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 582-589.
- Mintzberg, H. (1994). Round out the managers job. *Sloan Management Review*, (Fall), 11-26.
- Mishler, E. (1986). *Research interviewing: Context and narrative*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Mitchell, T., & Willover, D. J. (1992). Organizational culture in a good high school. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 30(6), 6-16.
- Mittendorff, K., Geijssels, F., Hoeve, A., Latt, M., & Nieuwenhuis, L. (2005). Communities of practice as stimulating forces for collective learning. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 18(5), 298-312.

- Morgan, D. E., & Zeffane, R. (2003). Employee involvement, change and trust in management. *International Journal Human Resource Management*, 14, 55-75.
- Morgan, G. (1986). *Images of organisation*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mulder, N. (1996). The common cultural construction of social life in inner, littoral south-east Asia. *South East Asia Research*, 4(1), 41-61.
- Mullins, L. J. (1996). *Management and organisational behaviour* (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.). London: Pitman Publishing.
- Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1988). Social capital, intellectual capital and the organizational advantage. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(2), 242-66.
- Nelson, L. (2003). A case study in organizational change: Implications for theory. *The Learning Organization*, 10(1), 18-31.
- Newstrom, J.W., & Davis, K. (2002). *Organizational behaviour: Human behaviour at work* (11<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New York: McGraw Hill/Irwin.
- Nieminem, H. (2005). Organizational receptivity- understanding the inter-organizational learning ability. *The Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 3(2), 107-118.
- Nohria, N., Joyce, J., & Robertson, R. (2003). What really works. *Harvard Business Review*, 81(7), 43-52.



- Oliver, D. G., Serovich, J. M., & Mason, T. L. (2005). Constraints and opportunities with interview transcription: Towards reflection in qualitative research. *Social Forces*, 84(2), 1273-1290.
- O'Neil, M.A., & Palmer, A. (2004). Importance-performance analysis: A useful tool for directing quality improvement in higher education. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Education*, 12(1), 39-52.
- Osborne, D., & Plastrik, P. (1997). *Banishing bureaucracy: The five strategies for reinventing government*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Owen, P. S., & Demb, A. (2004). Change dynamics and leadership in technology implementation. *Journal of Higher Education*, 75(6), 636-666.
- Patterson, G. (1999). The learning university. *The Learning Organization*, 6(1), 9-19.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pentland, B. T., & Reuter, H.H. (1994). Organizational routines as grammars of action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39(3), 484-510.
- Perry, C. (1998). Processes of a case study for postgraduate research in marketing. *European Journal of Marketing*, 32(9/10), 785-799.

- Peters, T. J. (1978). Symbols patterns and settings. An optimistic case for getting things done. *Organizational Dynamics*, 7, 3-23.
- Peters, T. J., & Austin, N. K. (1985). *A passion for excellence, the leadership difference*. New York: Warner Books Edition.
- Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. (1982). *In Search of Excellence*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Pettigrew, A, M. (1985). *The awakening giant: Continuity and change in ICI*. Oxford/New York: Blackwell.
- Pettigrew, A. M., Ferlie, E., & McKee, L. (1992). *Shaping strategic change*. London: Sage Publications.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981). Management as symbolic action, in L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behaviour* (Vol.3 pp. 1-52). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pfeffer, J. (1994). *Competitive advantage through people: Unleashing the power of the workforce*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Pitzer, M., & Hartel, C.E.J. (2004). For better or worse: Organizational culture and emotions, in C.E.J, Hartel, W.J. Zerbe, N.M, Ashkanasy (Eds.), *Emotions of organizational behaviour* (pp. 478-510). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Plowfield, A. L., Wheeler, C. E., & Raymond, E. J. (2005). Time, tact, talent, and trust: Essential ingredients of academic- community partnerships. *Nursing Education Perspectives*, 26(4), 217-221.
- Politis, J. D. (September, 2003). The impact of interpersonal trust and power on attributes of knowledge acquisition: What is their predictive power? *Proceedings of the European Conference on Knowledge Management. Oriol College, Oxford University*. 749-758.
- Politis, J. D. (2003). The effect of managerial power and relational trust on the skills and traits of knowledge acquisition: Evidence from the United Arab Emirates. *Electronic Journal on Knowledge Management*, 1(2), 147-158.
- Pondy, L.R., Frost, P., Morgan, G., & Dandridge, T. (Eds.). (1983). *Organizational symbolism*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pounder, J.S., & Coleman, M. (2002). Women – better leaders than men? In general educational management it still all depends. *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal*, 23(3), 122-134.
- Pratt, M. (1998). To be or not to be? Central questions in organizational identification, in D. Whetten & P. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in organizations: Building theory through conversations* (pp. 17-31). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pring, R. (2000). The false dualism of educational research. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 34(2), 247-260.

Reddin, W.J., (1970). *Managerial effectiveness*. Maidenhead: McGraw Hill.

Reinharz, S. (1992). *Feminist methods in social research*. New York:

Oxford University Press.

Rennie, D. L., Phillips, J. R., & Quartaro, G. K. (1988). Grounded theory: A promising approach to conceptualization in psychology. *Canadian Psychology*, 29(2), 139-150.

Rentsch, J.R. (1990). Climate and culture: Interaction and qualitative differences in organizational meanings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 668-681.

Ribbins, P. (1999). Foreword, in P.T. Begley, & P.E. Leonard (Eds.), *The values of educational administration*. (pp. 1- 4) London: Falmer Press.

Ribbins, P. & Gunter, H., (2002). Mapping leadership studies in education: Towards a typology of knowledge domains. *Educational Management & Administration*, 30(4), 359-385.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke, Hampshire:

Palgrave MacMillan.

Richardson, J., & McKenna, S. (2002). Leaving and experiencing: Why academics expatriate and how do they experience expatriation. *Career Development International*, 7(2), 67-79.

- Richardson, P. M. (2004). Possible influences of Arabic-Islamic culture on the reflective practices proposed for an education degree at the Higher Colleges of Technology in the United Arab Emirates. *International Journal of Education Development*, 24, 429-436.
- Robbins, S.P. (1996). *Organizational behaviour* (7<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Rollinson, D., & Broadfield, A. (2002). *Organisational behaviour and analysis* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Rost, J.R. (1990). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. New York: Praegar.
- Rousseau, D. (1990). Quantitative assessment of organisation culture: The case for measures, in B. Schneider (Ed.), *Frontiers in industrial and organisational psychology* (vol 3, pp. 153-92). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Rowan, J. (1981). A dialectic paradigm for research, in P. Reason & J. Rowan (Eds.), *Human enquiry* (pp. 93-112). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Schegloff, E. (1997). Whose text? Whose context? *Discourse & Society*, 8, 165-187.
- Schein, E. H. (1985). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Schein, E. H. (1990). Organizational culture. *American Psychologist*, 45(2), 109-119.

- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). San Francisco CA: Jossey Bass.
- Schools will be a magnet for pupils. (2006, June 3). *Gulf News*, p. 4.
- Schubert, W.H. (1989). Reconceptualising and the matter of paradigms. *Journal of Teacher Education*, Jan-Feb, 27-32.
- Schwandt, T. A. (1994). *Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry*, in N.K. Denzin & Y.S Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 118-137). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2000). Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructionism, in N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 189-213). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Seidman, I. E. (1991). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Senge, P. (1999). *The fifth discipline. The art of the learning organization*. London: Random House.

Senge, P. (2001). *The dance of change: The challengers to sustaining momentum in learning organizations*. Doubleday: New York.

Senge, P., Roberts, C., Ross, B.R., Smith, B.J., & Kleiner, A. (1994). *The fifth discipline fieldbook: Strategies and tools for building a learning organization*. New York: Currency and Doubleday.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1995). *The principalship: A reflective perspective*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (2000). Standards and the life world of leadership. *School Administrator*, 57(8), 6-13.

Sergiovanni, T.J. (2001). *Leadership, what's in it for schools?* London: Routledge Falmer.

Seymour, W.S. (2001). In the flesh or online? Exploring qualitative research methodologies. *Qualitative Research*, 1(2), 147-168.

Shaffir, W.B., & Stebbins, R.A. (Eds.). (1991). *Experiencing fieldwork: An inside view of qualitative research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

- Shah, S. (2004). The Researcher/interviewer in intercultural context: A social intruder. *British Educational Research Journal*, 30(4), 549-575.
- Shah, S. (2006). Educational leadership: An Islamic perspective. *British Educational Research Journal*, 32 (3), 363-385.
- Shank, G., & Vilella, O. (2004). Building on new foundations: Core principles and new directions for qualitative research. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 98(1), 46-56.
- Singh, J. (2006). Employee disempowerment in a small firm (SME): Implications for organizational social capital. *Organization Development Journal*, 24(1), 76-87.
- Smedlund, A., & Poyhonen, A. (2005). Intellectual capital creation in regions: A knowledge systems approach, in A. Bonfour & L. Edvinson (Eds.), *Intellectual capital for communities- nations, regions and cities*. Burlington, USA: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Smircich, L. (1983). Studying organizations as cultures, in G. Morgan (Ed.), *Beyond method: Strategies for social research* (pp. 160-172). Beverley Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Smircich, L. (1985). Is the concept of culture a paradigm for understanding organizations and ourselves?, in Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg & Martin (Eds.), *Organizational culture*. (pp. 55-72). Beverly Hill: Sage Publications.



Smircich, L., & Morgan, G. (1982). Leadership: The management of meaning. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18(3), 257-273.

Smith, M.E. (2003). Changing an organisation's culture: Correlates of success and failure. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 24(5/6), 249-264.

Stake, R. E. (1994). Case studies. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 236-247). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stephenson, T. (1985). *Management: A political activity*. London: Macmillan.

Stewart, J., & Kringas, P. (2003). Change management-strategy and values in six agencies from the Australian public service. *Public Administration Review*, 63(6), 675-691.

Stewart, T. A. (1997). *Intellectual capital - the new wealth of organizations*. New York: Doubleday.

Stonehouse, G. H., & Pemberton, J. D. (1999). Learning and knowledge management in the intelligent organization. *Participation & Empowerment: An International Journal*, 7(5), 131-144.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Ticehurst, G. W., & Veal, A. J. (1999). *Business research methods, a managerial approach*.  
: Sydney: Addison Wesley Longman Australia Pty Limited.

Tichy, N.M. (1983). *Managing strategic change: Technical, political and cultural dynamics*.  
New York: Wiley.

Tierney, W.G. (1988). Organizational culture in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education*, 59(1), 2-21.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1993). *The cultures of work organizations*. Englewood Cliffs,  
NJ: Prentice Hall.

Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture*. London: Nicholas Brealey.

Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (2002). *21 leaders for the 21<sup>st</sup> century*.  
London: Capstone.

Trompenaars, F., & Woolliams, P. (2003). A new framework for managing change across  
cultures. *Journal of Change Management*, 3(4), 361-374.

Trowler, P.R. (1998). *Academics responding to change: new higher education frameworks  
and academic cultures*. Buckingham, UK: Society for Research in Higher Education  
and Open University Press.

- Tsoukas, H., & Chia, R. (2005). On organizational becoming: Rethinking organizational change, in H. Tsoukas (Ed.), *Complex knowledge: Studies in organizational epistemology* (pp. 181-209). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Turner, B.A. (1981). Some practical aspects of qualitative data analysis: One way of organizing the cognitive processes associated with the generation of grounded theory. *Quality and Quantity*, 15, 225-47.
- Tushman, M., Newman, W.H., & Romanelli, E. (1986). Convergence and upheaval: Managing the unsteady pace of organizational evolution, *California Management Review*, 1(Fall), 29-44.
- Tushman, M., & Romanelli, E. (1985). Organizational evolution: A meta-morphis model of convergence and reorientation, in L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behaviour* (pp. 355-389). Greenwich, Conn: JAI.
- Urch-Druskat, V., & Wolff, B, S. (2001). Building the emotional intelligence of groups. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(3), 81-90.
- Van Maanen, J. (1979). Reclaiming qualitative methods for organizational research: A preface. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 520.
- Van Maanen, J. (1992). Displacing Disney: Some notes on the flow of culture. *Qualitative Sociology*, 15(1), 5-35.

- Van Maanen, J., & Barley, S. (1985). Cultural organisations: Fragments of a theory, in P.J Frost, L.F. Moore, M.R. Louis, C.C. Lundberg & A.J.Martin (Eds.), *Organizational culture* (pp. 31-54). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. London: State University of New York Press.
- Wallace, R., Engel, D., & Mooney, J., (1997). *The learning school: A written guide to vision-based leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Warren, J.W. (2004). Predicting and enhancing client success, in A.F. Buono (Ed.), *Creating consulting: Innovative perspectives on management consulting* (pp. 345-372). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Weeks, J., & Galunic, C, A. (2003). A theory of the cultural evolution of the firm: The intra-organizational ecology of memes. *Organization Studies*. 24:1309-53.
- Weick, K. E. (1979). *The social psychology of organizing*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Weiner, Y. (1988). Forms of value systems: A focus on organizational effectiveness and cultural change and maintenance. *Academy of Management Review*, 13, 534-545.

- Welch, D. E. (2003). Globalisation of staff movements: Beyond cultural adjustments. *Management International Review*, 43(2), 149-162.
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Wenger, E. (2007). Communities of practice: A brief introduction. Retrieved March 12, 2007, from <http://www.ewenger.com/theory/communities>
- Wenger, E., McDermott, R., & Snyder, W. M. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice-learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge, UK. Cambridge University Press.
- Wergin, J. (1994). *The collaborative department: How five campuses are inching towards cultures of responsibility*. Washington DC: The American Association for Higher Education.
- Whyte, W. F. (1984). *Learning from the field*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Wilson, V. (1997). Focus groups: A useful qualitative method for educational research. *British Educational Research Journal*, 23(2), 209-224.
- Winograd, T., & Flores, F. (1987). *Understanding computers and cognition*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Wolcott, W. H. (2001). *Writing up qualitative research* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Wood, M., & Johnsrud, L. (2005). Post-tenure review: What matters to faculty. *Review of Higher Education*, 28(3), 393-422.

[www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint\\_misc](http://www.uaeinteract.com/uaeint_misc) United Arab Emirates Online (2007). Retrieved June 18, 2007, from <http://www.uaeinteract.com>

Yin, R.K. (1989). *Case study research: Design and methods* (Rev. Ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Yin, R.K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

## Appendix A

### Distribution for Interview and Focus Groups

<b>Participants Role</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Method</b>
Students (12)	Male	<i><b>Pilot</b></i> Focus group
Staff (2)	Male & Female	Interviews
		<i><b>Main Study</b></i>
Staff Supervisor	Female	Individual interview
Staff Supervisor	Male	Individual interview
Staff Supervisor	Male	Individual interview
Staff Supervisor	Male	Individual interview
Librarian	Female	Individual interview
Learning Support staff	Male	Individual interview
Technical Support	Male	Individual interview
Academic Coordinator	Male	Individual interview
Faculty	Male	Individual interview
Faculty	Male	Individual interview
Faculty	Male	Individual interview
Faculty	Male	Individual interview
Faculty	Male	Individual interview
Faculty	Male	Individual interview
Faculty	Female	Individual interview
Faculty	Female	Individual interview
Student	Male	Individual interview
Students (2)	Male	Paired Interview
Student	Male	Individual interview
Students (3)	Male	Focus Group Interview
Students (2)	Male	Paired Interview
Students (4)	Male	Focus Group Interview
Students(6)	Male	Focus Group Interview
Students (3)	Male	Focus Group Interview

The student (22) participants came from Business and IT.

An interview, a focus group and a focus group interview in this study are distinguished according to the number of students involved, and the distinct advantages each offered (Refer to page 51 of this thesis).

## Appendix B

### Observation in the field

Staff Meeting, 13 Sept 2006. Venue, College Cafeteria.

- 1 MC starts with a warm up (humour) which includes reference to history and college events that have had significance to college history- history provides something to anchor to-where we have come from. In other words it seems it is utilised to provide a reference point to where the college is. Champions are referred to “Well Alex use to be close to the people with power-he had their confidence and that allowed him to manage the college. The college was getting too big for him at the end”
- 2 Introduction of New` Staff “Credentialising” Alex `has a first degree in Journalism and a Masters in Education. When each Head finishes – Thank You Dr A (first names used with Dr) mimics an influence (students call staff by their first names but preface it with Mr), it’s the done thing to call people Mr J or Mr N and Dr B or Dr A.

New Staff returning – Welcome back Dr Ba steps back into the arena-“he has returned to the college” Heads proceed to the podium to announce their charges-it is the time to ‘announce position’- Position is important.

- 3 MC starts by reminding staff of the Directors early start “There is 1 black car that is in the car park at 06-30 daily” Dr B takes the podium “ I only need 6 hours of sleep each day” Director makes reference to reading and the need for it-you are reminded of a scholarly thing (Noise-noise chatter, cutlery chairs scraping-sliding). Director makes reference to “special people” meaning the faculty “Respect” “I want to make sure you know how special it is to be a Director at this college”
- 4 Reference to new classifications- Directors (Positions) “Heads to Deans” “Supervisors to Chairs” position seems important (background chatter and distractions) how can such important things be said in so distracting circumstances?

Dr B announcement that colleges will be “Rated” you can be assured that there is support for teaching “It is an important responsibility of mine ‘Value’ ‘Respect’ ‘Responsibility’

- 5 Staff member death announcement (compassion outpouring of emotions – sadness).
- 6 Alex –Planning part-“raise your hands if you have contributed” and again, after first request for a response was low.
- 7 Training is linked to establishing your position at Desert Rose College-Awarded by Director. Making an award at DRC means ‘you have been accepted’ Self aggrandisement is also important –it needs to be done. You



now have an IDL or ICL. 'Going up to' receive your certificate has status-It means something.

Appendix C

Student interview transcript

**Interview Number** ...S2..... **Date**.....18/12/06.....

**Setting description:** Study room smaller room with U shaped seating arrangement.  
We were seated facing each other with recorder at the end of the table.

**Background and reflections:** I felt concerned that this interview would not flow however the 2 participants requested that they complete the interview together and this was to prove useful in stimulating reflections. As the students concerned had requested a joint interview I saw the merit in them being able to provide prompts and support each other. This proved to be helpful in initiating responses, and allow participants to feed off a line of thought. At times this also initiated different perspectives and reflections on change that were stimulated by each other.

**Student x 2** / Admin/ Faculty/ Sup/ Head/Dir      Department.....

**Male/Female**      Nationality... ..**U.A.E**.....

01 J. (John) Thank you for taking part in this research, guys. I know you're busy, but I hope it will be a useful piece of research that we can use. Let's start at the beginning. I'll pose this question to you, and it'll be interesting to hear your response. On a scale of (1) to (10) – (1) being not a lot of change and (10) being a lot of change – where might you position DRC in the time that you've been at the college? So, (1) is not a lot of change and (10) is a lot of change. Where might you position DRC in the time that you've been at the college?

02 P1. (Participant 1) Well, I think (6) maybe. Almost above the medium.

03 P2. (Participant 2) Because we have several things. The biggest change was when moved out from the old place to the new place.

04 J. Yes.

05 P2. You know, between old campuses, now here in Al Oraya, that was a big change for us. We are used to go there.

06 J. Yes.

07 P2. Now we get used to it.

08 J. Yes. So, that was the big one for you? The campus?

09 P2. Yes. The location.

51 10 J. Location. Tell me more about that. One would think that that might be a sort  
52 of fairly straight forward change going from one –  
53

54 11 P1. Well, what I believe, sir, changing our location has influenced the number of  
55 the students, the change in the number of students, increased the staff – there are  
56 new staff and that would bring new ideas, new things for the college. That was  
57 the big element, a big factor of the change we have seen, when we changed  
58 location. Bigger place, more students, more staff, more ideas.  
59

60 12 J. Yes. Well, you mentioned this ‘more ideas’. Tell me more about this ‘more  
61 ideas’. What’s been going on since - what do you think?  
62

63 13 P1. Well, I believe some of the teachers, they’ve changed also their methods in  
64 teaching. There are some teachers changed their methods, for example, giving  
65 more projects and exercises for us in different way, more than what they did at the  
66 previous campus.  
67

68 14 P2. I agree with that. Some teachers, like, introduced the lecture type of  
69 education as well - because we didn’t use the lecture a lot, like a lecture and then  
70 independent learning. So, just, like, okay the teacher explains the subject and then  
71 you do a task in the class and then you do a big project. No. Here, now some  
72 teachers - for example, we took an ethics course, business ethics course. We had  
73 some lectures, like the teacher gives us brief information, and then we have to do  
74 our own research to find out what we want from the course and that sort of was an  
75 education way. It think that was good, like, it is better than coming to an exam and  
76 just you are remembering things and then you forget about it as soon as you get  
77 out from the room. Yes, because, when you observe information, you keep in  
78 your mind.  
79

80 15 J. So you’re saying that may have changed in terms of moving from – you  
81 associate it with the new campus? What you’re saying is that it didn’t happen  
82 naturally in the old campus? Not so much?  
83

84 16 P1. Because we only stayed there for a period of nine months, so we didn’t  
85 experience much.  
86

87 17 J. No, no. And some students are not experiencing it at all, are they. They’re  
88 coming into the new campus, and they don’t know anything different.  
89

90 18 P2. For me it was two years; it wasn’t nine months.  
91

92 19 J. Oh, all right.  
93

94 20 P2. Since I did my foundations there, so I had my foundation, my Level 1, I think,  
95 I don’t remember if I did the Level 2 here or in the old campus, but I was more  
96 than my colleague.  
97

98 21 J. All right. So you’ve mentioned about the campus and the change, and both of  
99 you have been at DRC now how long? Ahmed?  
100

101 22 P1. Three years, from 2002  
102  
103 23 J. Three years. And Saleh?  
104  
105 24 P2. For me it is now, I think it is, this is the fifth year, because I'm doing my  
106 bachelor now.  
107  
108 25 J. All right. Any other things that you believe have been to you important  
109 changes at DRC in that time. You mentioned the campus.  
110  
111 26 P1. Maybe the technological changes, sort of the more faster connection for  
112 Internet, help us to move faster our projects for our studies.  
113  
114 27 P2. Bigger library. Also for the projectors in class. Some class now have more  
115 TVs, radios and other things. The class are bigger and more activities are going  
116 on now since the campus is bigger. For example, the gym you have, the prayer  
117 room for the girls, and ping pong. These - we didn't have these kind of stuff in  
118 the old campus. So, like, students like, now stay more time in the college, and  
119 they don't prefer going out of the college for one-hour break or half an hour.  
120 They stay in the college playing and maybe read a magazine in the library, since  
121 there are different kind of things they can do here.  
122  
123 28 J. Both of you were at high school, and when you first moved to DRC, did you  
124 find it quite different coming from school to somewhere like DRC? Tell me about  
125 the differences.  
126  
127 29 P1. Well, first of all the nationality of the teachers, there's a big difference, the  
128 way of the teaching and the technological things available. In the school there  
129 wasn't much, you know, only listen, because we were only a governmental, a  
130 government school not a private. I don't know about the private. Some students  
131 they came from private school, which is almost similar to what they experience  
132 here, but for us governmental there is much difference.  
133  
134 30 P2. I think the environment is different. For example, here like in the college the  
135 teachers like to make it more with the students. It's different from the school. In  
136 the school the teacher comes inside the class and he just say what he want say and  
137 give you homework, come tomorrow, and that's it. Here, if you want to see him,  
138 you want suggestion - even if it's not about your studies, it's about your personal  
139 life - some teacher would help you. So I think it is different. I feel the  
140 environment in the college is much, much better from the schools and other.  
141  
142 31 P1. Also one more thing. A big change - the language. In the governmental  
143 school most they speak Arabic, most of the teachers speak Arabic, they don't  
144 speak English unless it was in the English class, but here all English. That had a  
145 big influence on us.  
146  
147 32 J. Yes, right.  
148  
149 33 P2. Even the English classes in the schools, the teacher speaks two words Arabic  
150 and three English, and it's a combination!

151  
152 34 J. Yes. So, I think what I'm hearing is you - you may have been encountering  
153 quite a lot of changes, but you seem to have gone through these changes quite  
154 smoothly. This is what I'm getting from you. Is this true? Have you found the  
155 changes difficult to handle, coming from school to college?  
156  
157 35 P1. Maybe in educational subjects, maybe, but not in other things.  
158  
159 36 P2. For me I think it is easy to handle since, you know, in this Emirate and the  
160 UAE changes are coming frequently, so you don't feel it.  
161  
162 37 P1. But what I meant, you know, from the subject - for example, Math we studied  
163 in Arabic in governmental school and here we study in English so -  
164  
165 38 P2. Yes, maybe.  
166  
167 39 J. But that's an interesting point, take your point, Ahmed, take your point, Saleh -  
168 Dubai is, it's changing  
169  
170 40 P1. Rapidly.  
171  
172 41 J. Every day. Do you believe that we have changed, you have changed, and we  
173 have changed, to connect with that change out there?  
174  
175 42 P2. I think we changed a lot in order to keep up with the environment outside,  
176  
177 43 J. Yes, yes,  
178  
179 44 P2. so we won't be seen as backwards, or something like that.  
180  
181 45 P1. It might be difficult for us to feel it, but we are changing.  
182  
183 46 P2. Maybe people who are outside of the country maybe they see the change on  
184 us, but we might not be able to see it.  
185  
186 47 J. My perception, this is only a perception, that you guys deal with change fairly  
187 easily, and that's because maybe in your own lives and outside in your own  
188 community with your families and that, we're all subject to change so quickly in  
189 this Emirate, and I think that we develop some sort of mechanisms to cope with  
190 that.  
191  
192 48 P1. You can say that.  
193  
194 49 J. And moving from school to somewhere like here is another change for you. So  
195 there are various changes you have to cope with really.  
196  
197 50 P1. For me, sir, I faced very, very big changes. For example, after governmental  
198 school, which are all the subjects I studied in Arabic, I went to England,  
199 Shrewsbury.  
200

201 51 J. Oh, yes.  
202  
203 52 P1. It was very, very tough for me there. I was in a boarding school and it was  
204 very tough. I was studying A-levels. I was taking economics, accounting and  
205 math and English subjects, of course, and when I came here, it was much easier  
206 from England, of course. That's why I was going -  
207  
208 53 Oh, so you had some prior experiences?  
209  
210 54 P1. Yes.  
211  
212 55 J. Okay. Um, I just want to get your opinions on this element of change in places  
213 like DRC. You guys, I make clear, you are students of mine or have been students  
214 of mine, and one of the issues of change relates to what leads change, or who  
215 leads change. In your experience, who leads change at DRC? Who leads the  
216 change?  
217  
218 56 P2. It may be the supervisors in the college in order to develop the standards of  
219 education in the DRC, so they implement the changes whenever it's needed to  
220 keep up with the new information in the education market. I think that is the main  
221 reason behind the change. That is what motivates them.  
222  
223 57 P1. Also, sir, I believe the students helped also. For example, the supervisor they  
224 might ask the students about some suggestions and the students they might give  
225 suggestions, and I think they played a role in changing things.  
226  
227 58 J. Yes, yes. Can you think of any particular examples of where those changes  
228 have happened, that both have taken a role, the students and supervisors?  
229  
230 59 P2. I can think of one. Maybe it is not a big role for a student, but still they take  
231 our opinion. For example, when we were entering the bachelor degree, they came  
232 to us. What subjects do you prefer for your bachelor's? So we thought of  
233 marketing, human resources, these kind of a stuff like, but in advance way, like  
234 deeper into the subject so it will be related to the other. So they took our - they  
235 considered our opinion, so now here we are studying the same, some of our  
236 suggestions.  
237  
238 60 J. Um, I just want to talk a little bit more about this element of leadership and  
239 leaders in change. Do you think they're important when we have change? Is  
240 there a need for leaders when change occurs, do you think?  
241  
242 61 P1. I believe so because they have to lead in these changes. They have to carry  
243 on for improvements. Without leaders I don't think there'll be any improvements.  
244  
245 62 P2. I believe that too, since he said that without a leader we can't - like the leader  
246 he make the path so other follow it. So if the leader is, like, confident or has  
247 confidence in himself and he's like respected one, people will easily follow him so  
248 the change will come easier.  
249

250 63 P1. Also another thing that leader, he or she, will demonstrate and explain the  
 251 changes to the followers. Without the leader they will not move on.  
 252

253 64 P2. Maybe because an experience he has or some knowledge that he has more  
 254 than other people so he will become the leader.  
 255

256 65 J. So would you say this is important, not important? Where would you  
 257

258 66 P1. It is very important. I believe so. What do you think?  
 259

260 67 P2. Yes, I do too. I think it is important.  
 261

262 68 J. Give me some words that explain what you're looking for in leaders.  
 263

264 69 P1. Motivation, cares for the followers, good management.  
 265

266 70 P2. He looks for the future, like, he just doesn't – he don't like plan for now. He  
 267 can see for future what is going to happen if in fact he makes a decision or a  
 268 change so in future he will not face any problems or if there are problems, like,  
 269 they can be solved. I think that. And also he should be respected and have  
 270 charisma in order to make the, like, a team or a group under him like a committee,  
 271 they will follow him easier, because it is expected he's well known for his good  
 272 life. These kind of things.  
 273

274 71 J. Can you think of anybody in particular - this isn't an easy question guys –  
 275 anybody that you can think of in your experience recently that you've said well  
 276 that person, you believe, is a, let's use the word, a real leader?  
 277

278 72 P1. From history?  
 279

280 73 J. It doesn't have to be. It can be.  
 281

282 74 P1. For myself, sir, that are two: Alexander the Great and Fidel Castro.  
 283

284 75 J. All right.  
 285

286 76 P1. They're the both best examples from successful leaders, because of what I  
 287 read and what I saw in the documentary. It was very interesting. If you see Fidel  
 288 Castro, sir, he survived over a hundred assassinations. I believe that his people  
 289 played a big role because he was, is, you know, they care about him, and he's  
 290 successful leader facing a superpower.  
 291

292 77 J. Yes, yes.  
 293

294 78 P1. - a country, which is America.  
 295

296 79 P2. For me there's one in the past and two, actually two in the past and one in the  
 297 future, now. In the past our Prophet, Mohammed, God bless him, and Sheikh  
 298 Zayed, who passed away two years ago, and now Mohammed, Sheikh

299 Mohammed. These are the three. They changed our life. They helped us a lot, so  
 300 I think they are the best leaders.  
 301

302 80 J. And given that these people have been very important to you, can you see that  
 303 happening, not to such an extent but that type of leadership occurring in an  
 304 educational establishment like DRC? Have you seen anything, not close to what  
 305 you've mentioned, but people that have led things?  
 306

307 81 P1. In DRC?  
 308

309 82 J. Yes.  
 310

311 83 P2. I don't understand the question.  
 312

313 84 J. Okay. In terms of - have you experienced what you believe to be effective  
 314 leadership in your time at DRC? Where you've seen and you've looked at a  
 315 situation and you said aaah that was pretty neat leadership; that was effective  
 316 leadership. At any point in your time here can you think of any situation where  
 317 you believe leadership has occurred and you've said to yourself, well, look I think  
 318 that's pretty good leadership.  
 319

320 85 P1. Well, I think – can I say the names, sir, of the person that I - ?  
 321

322 86 J. Yes, you can, yes.  
 323

324 87 P1. Mr. N. I believe he's a very reachable person from what I experienced in the  
 325 nine months when I was at the old campus. He was really reachable.  
 326

327 88 J. Yes.  
 328

329 89 P. He used to come to us and ask how was your studies and everything, and he  
 330 was very helpful.  
 331

332 90 J. So he was approachable. You felt as though he cared.  
 333

334 91 P1. Approachable, very.  
 335

336 92 J. Approachable, and that's important to you?  
 337

338 93 P1. That's very important. Because when he's approachable, the followers will  
 339 respect him and he will be loved.  
 340

341 94 J. Yes. Okay.  
 342

343 95 The same guy, when we first came to the foundation. Like, you know, it's a new  
 344 environment, the students are still not used to the place, he came to us - and we  
 345 were a big group, like about 15 students, new students - and I think it was funny,  
 346 he came in and did some magic things. We couldn't figure out how a manager  
 347 like did that, can do that.  
 348



349 96 P1. He did that for us as well.  
350  
351 97 P2. He got two strings I think pulled them together and put them together. Also,  
352 when, I had some problems with maths, and still I do have them, he didn't, he  
353 never refused to help us. For example, even he wasn't our teacher, and he was the  
354 manager and I think he taught some mathematics?  
355  
356 98 Yes, he did.  
357  
358 99 P2. So even we were not his students, but he didn't - he never refused to help us.  
359  
360 100 J. Yes. So, in terms of that leadership you believe that sticks in your mind that  
361 type of approach and being close to people, and it's important to you?  
362  
363 101 P2. Yes.  
364  
365 102 J. Some people may argue that in times when things are changing so much  
366 there's a need for leadership. Any viewpoints on that? When we've got more  
367 change, do you think that means more of a need for leadership?  
368  
369 103 P2. Maybe to make changes easier and easy to follow.  
370  
371 104 J. All right.  
372  
373 105 P1. Or maybe, you know, sir, there are some followers who refuse change.  
374 There are some people who don't like change. So the leader he might put it in a  
375 different perspective.  
376  
377 106 J. Yes.  
378  
379 107 P1. He can introduce it in a different way that he will accept it for sure.  
380  
381 108 J. Final question. Is there any time when you've had problems with change  
382 while you've been here at DRC? Any one instance where you think you feel as  
383 though you've had a problem with changes that have been introduced?  
384  
385 109 P1. Well, I'd say maybe the location because I'm living in Dadra.  
386  
387 110 J. All right.  
388  
389 111 P1. So there is - every day - but I got used to it anyway. But the traffic jams—  
390  
391 112 J. The traffic, yes, that was your headache.  
392  
393 113 P1. So that's the worst thing.  
394  
395 114 J. I understand that, Ahmed.  
396  
397 115 P2. For me the change was very, very good, because I live in Jawa and it only  
398 takes me five or ten minutes to get to the college!

399

400 116 J. Yes.

401

402 117 P2. I also, I think change in the college most of them for benefit students and  
403 staff. Like, they are all made to make the standards higher of the reputation of the  
404 college, so I think students should follow the changes. I mean, like, changes are  
405 not done, like, to harm people or harm the students, but to make their life better  
406 for future.

407

408 118 J. Well, gentlemen, thank you.

409 Reminder. Underline emphasis. Use – for short pauses and + for longer pauses ++ for  
410 extended pauses



Appendix D

Staff interview transcript

Interview Number ...02 V2 ... Date.15/11/06.....

Setting description...Small study room with 4 chairs and round table .....

Student / Admin/ **Faculty**/ Sup/ Head/Dir Department...LC.....

**Male**/Female Nationality... ..

01 J. All right - thanks for taking part in this research. I just wanted you to walk through the changes that have happened at DMC while you have been here.

02 P. (Participant) What, big things? Or things generally?

03 J. Things in general that have impacted on you?

04 P. The biggest thing has been the change in campus – location, um, which I think changed lots of things about the college, about the feeling in the college, about going to work generally, about arriving at work and how central we were. I was thinking about this recently. You know, we really changed our relationship with the outside world, which has changed the relationship for me as well. You can't pop out of the college, which I think has had a big impact on the kind of social nature of the college. I don't think it has responded; I don't think it has been recognised that was an effect and, therefore, I think it has impacted negatively on our - the way we get on at college. I think there's been a big change; when we changed director. I think that was a key personnel change, and I think, um, a lot of people that I valued, liked or got on with personally have left, and I am not sure that has been filled. So my own personal perspective of change has been affected by the changes - by the type of changes, you know personnel changes that have happened. - Professionally I have also changed role in the college and the personal role I've taken on has changed, and it will change again when I leave it, and that obviously impacts on me.

05 J. On a scale of 1 to 10 then, (1) being not so much change and (10) being lots of change, how would you rank the changes that have occurred at DRC? Not a lot of change or a lot of change?

06 P. In the 6 years I have been here?

07 J. Yes.

08 P. Cumulatively - total together?

- 51 09 J. Yes.  
52
- 53 10 P. I have to admit I have nothing to compare it with in terms of this size  
54 organisation, because my previous places of work have been much smaller.  
55 Compared to them, I think it has changed very slowly, very little, compared to a  
56 smaller organisation, because the expectation of language schools would be  
57 growing - doubling in size every couple of weeks, no every couple of years, that  
58 there'd be a huge growth, and I don't feel we have that here. Did you say (1) not  
59 much change?  
60
- 61 11 J. (1) not so much change and (10) being a lot.  
62
- 63 12 P. I would suppose somewhere around (3) or (4) bearing that in mind. Within the  
64 organisation it may be quite big in this type of organisation, but in my experience  
65 it doesn't feel like a lot of profound change.  
66
- 67 13 J. Where do you see . . . you say (3) or (4) on that rating scale . . . where do you  
68 see those changes impacting on staff and students?  
69
- 70 14 P. I don't honestly think that there has been a huge change for students. I think  
71 staff has changed - the changes I didn't mention earlier refer to the financial side  
72 of working here, which is clearly changed - although what I said earlier about the  
73 college was tied up to travelling to and from college - the actual day-to-day, um,  
74 life of the teacher has changed, I think, a lot. On a scale of (1) to (10) I say (4),  
75 maybe more than that, um, and expectations of teachers in their view have  
76 changed a lot. I'm not sure if that is necessarily true, but I think - for example,  
77 when teachers were asked to teach 5 minutes longer or 10 minutes longer every  
78 hour, that had a profound effect on what they were being asked to do. I think the  
79 reality of it was greater than it was thought to be in terms of the actual time. But it  
80 suddenly changed - it felt like a big change from the teachers' point of view.  
81 Students, I don't know. My experience of students hasn't been that they've had to  
82 change so much. If they have, well, because the nature of a student is to come in  
83 and leave again after a relatively limited amount of time, that they don't  
84 experience change in the same way that people who are here six or seven or nine  
85 years experience change. So then if they come in at a different learning model,  
86 they haven't experienced the previous one, and they wouldn't necessarily perceive  
87 the changes a great deal.  
88
- 89 15. J. So just to follow on from there, what makes changes at places like DRC? Or  
90 can I re-phrase it, what or who makes changes at places like DRC? Where do  
91 those changes occur?  
92
- 93 16. P. A lot of changes are quite high level, I think. The changes I've mentioned,  
94 change of location and finance and everything are outside the realm of the  
95 college, even replacement of staff and so on, I think. A lot of it is policy and I  
96 think that's also affected the way we've discussed within the college that we can't  
97 control that. When I said earlier it was relatively static, you know on a level of  
98 (1) to (10) it was (4), I think, then I'm talking about the internal nature of the  
99 place largely. I think a static internal dynamic and a top down external one in  
100 terms of change. Something along those lines.

- 101  
102 17. J. Yes.  
103  
104 18. P. So I think change could be – I think, maybe could be affected in certain realms  
105 internally. I'm not sure it always is, but the actual changes that occur, the ones  
106 that have a profound effect on me tended to be, I think, from the big outside  
107 picture.  
108  
109 19. J. Um, just extending a little from what you've just said, when do you think  
110 students and staff feel uncomfortable about change?  
111  
112 20. P. What, particular points in time, or - ?  
113  
114 21. J. What characteristics is there that make students and staff feel uncomfortable  
115 about change?  
116  
117 22. P. I think people don't like change if they think it's a waste of time, because  
118 they've been there already. I think that's one of the things I've noticed in this  
119 environment. I think there's maybe been a lot of talk on lots of things without  
120 much change over the years, and it's resulted in a discomfort with what actually  
121 might be changing, or a lack of belief in it, or not a lack of belief, a lack of  
122 confidence that anything would change if you change, so teachers don't – terrible,  
123 that's not true – some teachers are wary of - I think there's a protectionist attitude  
124 to what they do, a conservative attitude which I think is probably very healthy in  
125 lots of ways. There's a feeling that why would you change something that works  
126 or that you've worked on to get, say a teaching method or whatever, why would  
127 you replace it if you found a way of working that appears to work reasonably  
128 well. So people are uncomfortable with change which is imposed without them  
129 understanding or feeling that it's necessary. And change which takes away their  
130 rights and freedoms, they feel uncomfortable with, naturally. I think there may be  
131 a sense that changes in that direction generally – and a lot of the changes are you  
132 can't do this any more, you can't do that any more – and that obviously makes  
133 people feel uncomfortable.  
134  
135 23. J. Okay, on the basis of what you've just said, when have you personally felt a  
136 part of change. You feel you felt quite attached to initiatives of change - any  
137 particular instances where you actually felt you were part of it.  
138  
139 24. Yes, very often, because that's in my nature, I think. I like to be part of initiatives  
140 I like to instigate initiatives in teaching and learning particularly, not in the social  
141 aspects or other things. I like to be part of - I have ideas that I feel are worthy of  
142 consideration for change, so, I'm - various things. In my own subject I was part  
143 of a change towards more independence, particularly a different use of  
144 independent resources would be one example. Also changes in terms of the way  
145 people perceive their jobs. I've got an interest in the way the content teachers are  
146 perceived - the role of their job compared to their English teachers and I've been  
147 involved in various attempts at changing that.  
148  
149 25. J. Just moving on a little bit, um, at places like DRC, who creates change?  
150

- 151 26. P. That seems quite similar to your previous question; because what I previously  
152 said was that I think that at this place change is created from outside - policy level  
153 largely. Internal changes – it depends again what you mean by ‘create’ because I  
154 think it’s – sorry, going back again - I was just saying about my own role in  
155 change is that of instigator or having ideas for it. If that’s creating, then I think  
156 that probably teachers create change largely. The management of change would  
157 presumably be, I feel, should be a management role, and I’m not sure that  
158 actually happens in this environment. It’s one of my criticisms. I feel that there  
159 isn’t much management of change in a place like this, where – and I think it’s a  
160 particular skill. I’m particularly aware of that at the moment being in a  
161 committee where we can see the effects of the need for effective management of  
162 change at a supervisor up level if it’s going to be inclusive and effective.  
163
- 164 27. J. I’d just like to follow that up. You mentioned about the management  
165 committee and you referred to the word ‘change’. But how is change led, what  
166 are the characteristics that encourage you to be led?  
167
- 168 28. P. In general, or just here?  
169
- 170 29. J. At DRC.  
171
- 172 30. + +  
173
- 174 31. J. Anything that comes to mind in terms of things that make you feel as though  
175 you want to be led?  
176
- 177 32. P. I think, I think there’s a sense that when change comes, it comes from above  
178 you, but without necessarily a conviction behind it, because of what I said earlier  
179 about the top-downness of where it’s coming from, so I think quite often it will  
180 be change of kind of an attitude ‘we need to do this’. You know, it’s a given,  
181 we’re going to do this. This is the kind of change to make and can you help, kind  
182 of thing. I think that’s a generalisation, but I think change tends to operate in that  
183 kind of way.  
184
- 185 33. J. So you’re inferring that that’s the sort of change that might stick when it  
186 follows that type of approach?  
187
- 188 34. P. I think a lot of the changes that happened have been quite superficial in a way.  
189 I don’t think that people have changed their minds very much. You know, the  
190 same people were here before. Maybe they haven’t changed their minds, but  
191 they’re doing different things. Where change has been brought in, people are  
192 doing webs and T courses, where they weren’t before. Whether they’ve moved  
193 on attitudes, I don’t think it’s being addressed. What was your question?  
194
- 195 35. J. When does change stick at DRC?  
196
- 197 36. P. Okay, so the superficial aspects of change will stick. There’s no going back  
198 on a lot of the changes, because a lot of the changes have been sort of technology  
199 driven, I think, in terms of teaching. And with moving campus, things are not  
200 going to change backwards, so it’s stuck. Whether the changes stuck in terms of

people's attitudes or mind, I'm not so sure, because, as I say, I don't think that was part of the process necessarily, not an integral part of the process.

37. J. You mentioned earlier about management leading change. In order for management to lead change, what do you think that management needs to do to consolidate change? What needs to be inherent?

38. P. I think that the easy answer is that it's about buying, to ensure that people are listened to, people's views have been taken into consideration in sort of a real purposeful way. And I don't know how. My own limited experience in that shows that it's actually very difficult to get that in a place this size and across so many boundaries. There are loads of boundaries here in terms of what we teach and their attitudes to it. What's needed, I don't know. I don't know if it's possible to have a sticking - whatever -

39. J. I'm trying to paint a picture here about how a person that may have the ability to lead change - is there such a thing?

40. P. Okay. I strongly believe they have to be enthusiastic about it. I think there's a problem here because we don't recruit on the basis of dynamism and enthusiasm, so much as experience and safe qualities. I think that's one of the reasons why we don't have a good experience of change here. So, first of all, I think enthusiasm and - I don't know. Again, working in smaller organisation I would expect people who are running the place shop to be able to do everything really well on the shop floor kind of thing. And I think that there's no sense of that here, and that stops - that prevents a kind of change. So, I think that's the first thing that's needed. Enthusiasm and belief from the people trying to do it, and sort of an intellectual underpinning from them, some - so that you can turn to them and say 'Why are we doing this?' and they've thought about it and found out enough to be able to convince you, which is hard when you're dealing with a profession like teachers, where people are critical, naturally, and should be. I think it needs - rather than just experiencing change as some other thing, an actual desire to bring about change for the right reasons and the ability to communicate that.

41. J. Do you think that sits well with different people in the institution? Is there some sort of sense of having to modify that to accommodate the different types of person we have within, across department, but different nationalities. Is there any sense of that?

42. P. There are different educational backgrounds, different languages certainly, and different social, sorry, financial motivations in this particular part of the world. I don't think that - I think that everybody would be led more effectively into change by enthusiastic, knowledgeable people, who were committed to it for the right reasons, regardless of nationality. Whether it would be more difficult to do that - There may be a high level of communication skills required by a person instigating change when they're dealing with people with different communicative abilities, or - what's the word - backgrounds. It's communication obviously that's at the heart of the difficulty there, rather something that's inbuilt about the way people want to work. And I think that's the right point there.



- 251  
252 43. J. Yes. I think that throughout the discussion you've mentioned about this  
253 person that might have the ability to lead, um, and there may be instances in DRC  
254 where this has been pretty evident. Can you pick any particular instance where  
255 you've really thought, well, this person is actually leading change? Can you give  
256 an example of where this has happened and where it's been successful?  
257
- 258 44. P. Okay, my own domain is English. I think that - do you mean successful  
259 change or the change has been led, regardless of whether it's been good?  
260
- 261 45. J. Whether it's been successful.  
262
- 263 46. P. Okay. I would say for example in HD English, they've moved quite -they  
264 moved, there's been quite a change in the way English is taught in that  
265 department. I happen to think it's a great move, but quite a lot of people don't. It  
266 has actually happened and it's continuing to happen. I think there's been some  
267 leadership there, kind of an ability to get change done. I think that our Director  
268 has had an effect in terms of change, but because of the other factors that we  
269 talked about in terms of overriding outside concerns, it's been very difficult for  
270 that to be successful. Within the limits of what's possible, I think maybe there's  
271 been a change at the top level. But I think it's so limited in what's possible, that  
272 it's difficult to describe it as successful. Also, I would say, you're in the business  
273 department, and from the outside that feels like a changed department in the way  
274 people interact, the goals that they set. And that looks from the outside like a  
275 successful change, from a very stagnant to a much more dynamic situation, I  
276 would say.  
277
- 278 47. J. Oh right.  
279
- 280 48. P. I haven't said anything about the type of management of people like Alex,  
281 because the type of change I was thinking about, um, didn't really extend to the  
282 kind of department that he runs, or the way he runs it doesn't seem to extend to  
283 that. But I think that the qualities of leadership which are very relevant to this  
284 debate, or this research - because in a way I think what he's doing is more  
285 managing the minds of change, rather than the outward things of change. So you  
286 get a contract. When I said before about HD English changing on the surface, at  
287 least, but I'm not so sure about underneath. I think the opposite happened in  
288 Alex's style of management, where you get - it is led by - he's leading it the  
289 other way, and so the buying comes in later. So there doesn't appear to be so  
290 much change going on - it's maybe a more sticking kind of change, if it's led that  
291 way, rather than being pulled by the nose, being kicked up the arse, kind of thing.  
292
- 293 49. J. Right.  
294
- 295 50. P. So maybe when I said earlier about the kind of management that would lead  
296 change, maybe I should say that's one approach, maybe it's not the right one.  
297 Maybe another approach would be to slow things down, and make sure that they  
298 buy in at each stage, rather than being wildly enthusiastic and dragging people  
299 along.  
300

- 301 51. J. Yes. This element of being led into change - do you think there are instances  
302 where change needs to be mandated? Is it possible, and should it happen?  
303
- 304 52. P. Change in education?  
305
- 306 53. J. In places like DRC.  
307
- 308 54. P. Personally, I'm a bit of a fascist on that, to be honest with you. When I came  
309 here, I looked around, and I was shocked by some of the things I saw, some of the  
310 attitudes. I thought they really need to change, and why is nobody changing  
311 people. And why aren't they moving people on, you know, getting people out of  
312 their negative ways, you know? And definitely I thought there was a need for  
313 change. And as you get more part of the system, and you see the wider social  
314 implications of moving on, and so on, and you get more protective. So that's  
315 partly what I think about younger people and some dynamic - dynamism rather  
316 than experience. I definitely think change - because ultimately from a student  
317 point of view, I think it's important. If we are - again we have to retain the idea  
318 of students, the centrality of students, against overwhelming us, very often. And I  
319 think you have to remember that's the key, and I think a lot of things could  
320 change that would help student learning. As I mentioned before in terms of  
321 training related to second language is - to me, that's a very big one but does  
322 involve - it would have to be mandated.  
323
- 324 55. J. One of the things you mentioned about longevity - um, I'm a staff member at  
325 the college and I've been here six years, but there seems to be a difference  
326 between how people view short-serving staff members and the long-serving staff  
327 members. Do you think that impacts on their ability to change? Is there any  
328 characteristic that sort of determines whether a staff member's able to change  
329 after ten years or those that are able to change after two years?  
330
- 331 56. P. I think you're far more malleable in this environment in the early years of  
332 your contract. Yes, I think so. There's an effect, a kind of a corporate effect -  
333 and I have no way of judging whether that's normal or not, I haven't worked in  
334 this kind of environment before - but it's definitely there. You're fighting against  
335 - to maintain the inner strength to want things to change over a period of more  
336 than two or three years, I think, or four or five, or a period of time. If that  
337 answers your question.  
338
- 339 57. J. Yes.  
340
- 341 58. P. It's people's perceptions - it's inevitable that people have different  
342 perceptions of people in terms of how long they've served here. What's unusual,  
343 or seems unusual, the time seems to be collapsed. Ten years seem to be regarded  
344 as a huge amount of time. When my father-in-law worked for forty years, I think,  
345 it the same department at university and hat was regarded as a long-serving time.  
346 Whereas here I feel like an old man. I've been here six years and new people  
347 come in and look at me. The nature of the contracts, the - the nature of the  
348 contacts we got this funny, distorted view or different, not necessarily distorted,  
349 view of time, but we give undue credit to people because they've been twelve  
350 years here. Whereas that doesn't seem such a long time outside this context.

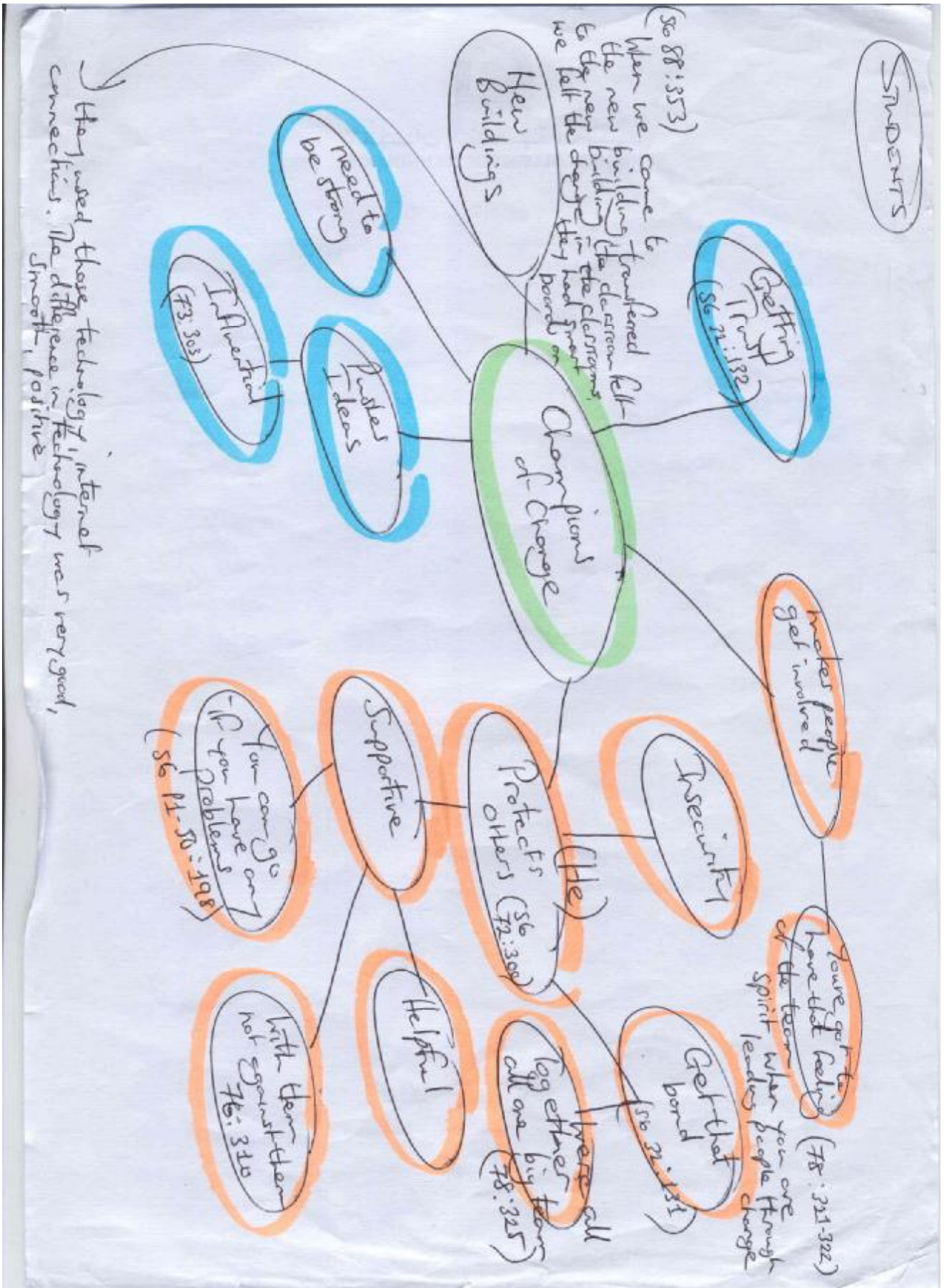
351  
352 59. No. I think talking to somebody the other day, this person was saying about how  
353 time is - in our environment we sort of – we think six months in advance, or nine  
354 months in advance, and time is disappearing as a result. We're already planning  
355 half way through the semester for next year or maybe the year after. The time  
356 seems to sort of -  
357  
358 60. P. get eaten up.  
359  
360 61. J. But I think that's probably an important thing to remember about here.  
361  
362 62. P. I don't think that's for me - I can understand what you're saying, but I don't  
363 think it's for that reason, I think it's more, largely to do with our faculty, the way  
364 we plan our years around a holiday in the summer and divide the rest of the time  
365 into two. So we get through the first one, and then we're leading into the middle  
366 part of our year which is going away, which is very strong, so if you haven't  
367 achieved anything the first semester and then you're not going to that year  
368 almost, and that year disappears. But, going back to change, some big thing of  
369 change that hasn't happened in this college is - I've been in central committees  
370 working between colleges – I don't think anybody has yet been enough, been  
371 understood or decided the relationship of the various colleges to each other in  
372 relation to change. This affects on a day-to-day basis internal changes. I'm on a  
373 committee at the moment and we're looking at definitions of certain key factors.  
374 Now there are system definitions, but it's not clear how they relate to our internal  
375 definitions, and this slows all processes down, because we're always exploring  
376 not only the concept but our relationship inside and outside the college. And I  
377 think that slows things down to such an extent – that one of the factors that slows  
378 things down, so people lose interest in change, in being involved in it, because of  
379 all these barriers rather than doors. What would be great would be if you felt that  
380 the system could quickly solve problems rather than provide yet another hurdle.  
381 Actually I think that has a real effect, not just a but a real effect things take far  
382 longer to happen than they should, and therefore people have left when it  
383 happens, and things delayed, coupled with this six-month year mentality, it's hard  
384 for changes to finish - to get a sense of finishing and starting a new change, you  
385 tend to be always involved with parts of old changes.  
386  
387 63. J. And how much of that can you relate to fads.  
388  
389 64. P. To what?  
390  
391 65. J. To fads – things that come and go.  
392  
393 66. P. To fads. Fads relates back to what I was thinking about the nature of the  
394 manager who was instigating change. I think that the problem with fads is that if  
395 you think that it is a fad and that you're being asked to do something and you  
396 think that the fad is - the manager is suggesting change because of an unclear  
397 understanding of that, then it's just a fad. So if there's a depth of understanding,  
398 it's not a fad. A fad is only defined - it's only a fad, if it's, if it's something  
399 which hasn't been understood and evaluated in relation to what you need. We're  
400 subject to faddishness because of the lack of depth that things are looked at in

initial stages. Then they're easy to overcome - easy to bring them in, easy to overcome, because there's no underpinning, there's no foundation, and that makes things liable to faddishness. I think the technology situation we're in here is a very clear example of that, where without a clear understanding of why we bring technology in, it's being brought in, and then anything you bring in is subject to being reckoned to be a fad, because you can get another piece of technology which appears to do something better, but because you haven't understood the first time round, you can't support the whole thing, so we're swaying in the wind.

Reminder. Underline emphasis. Use – for short pauses and + for longer pauses ++ for extended pauses

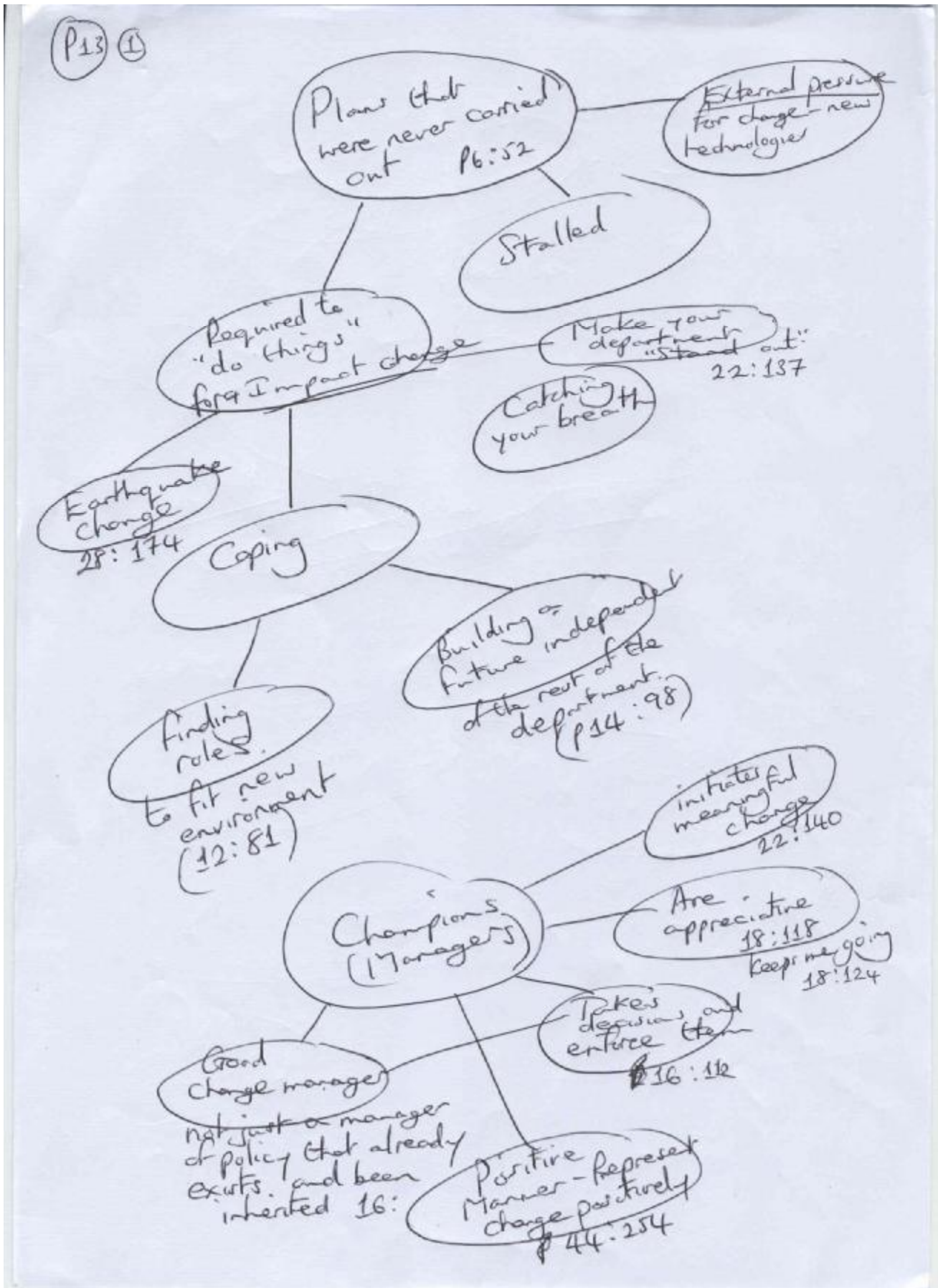
# Appendix E

## Student champion themes and connections



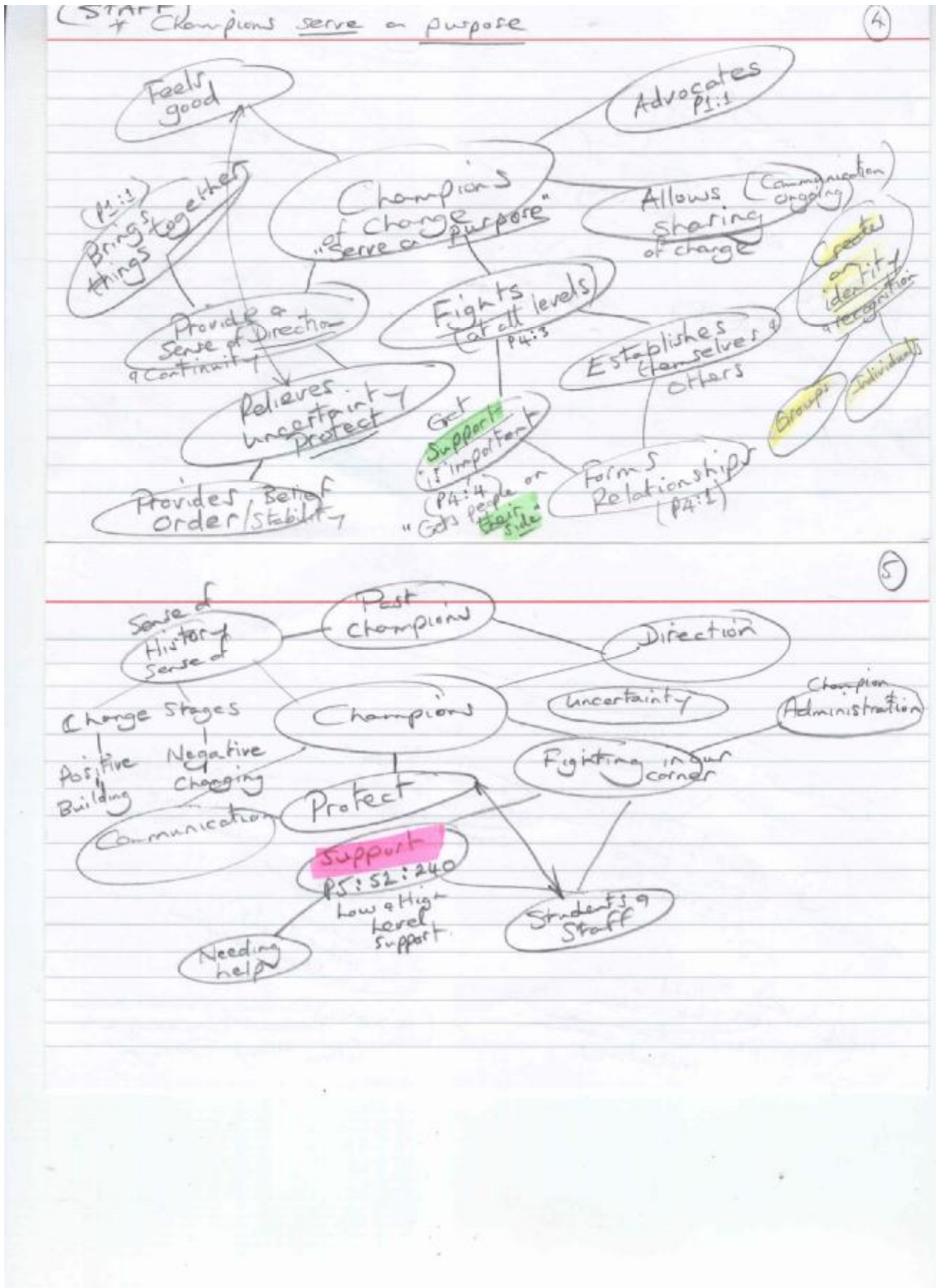


## Mapping categories and connections



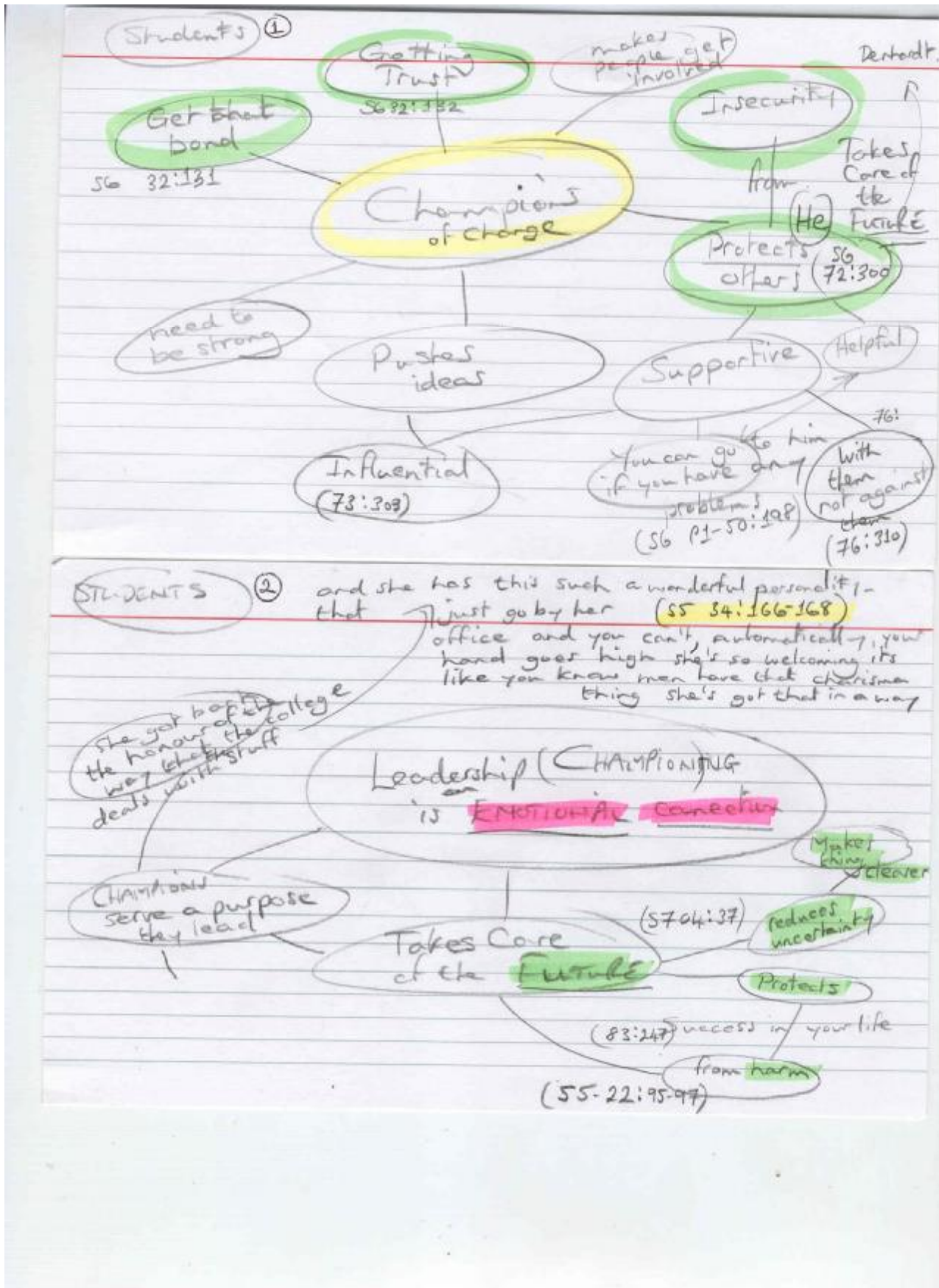
## Appendix G

### Staff champion themes and connections



## Appendix H

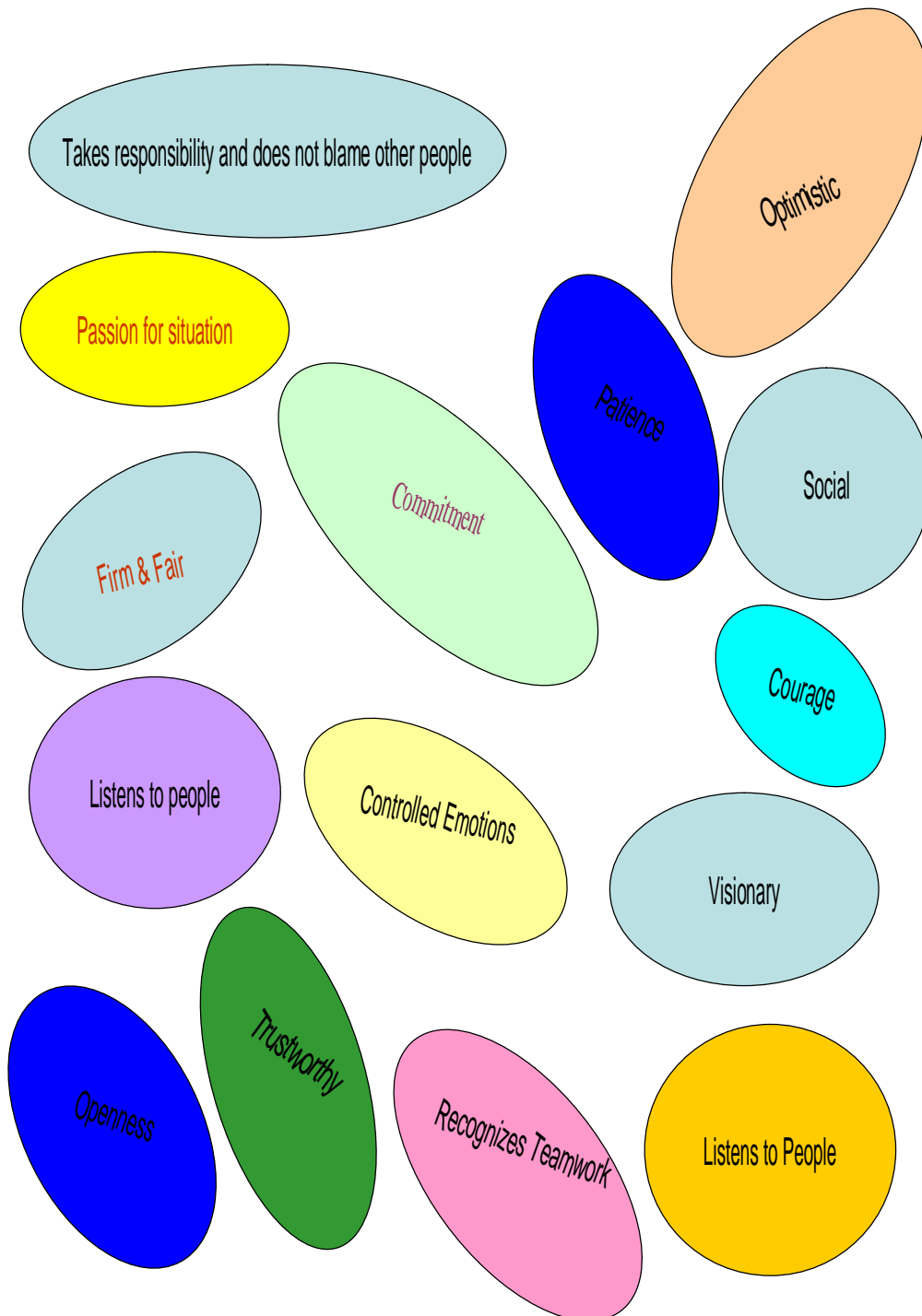
### Student champion themes and connections





## Appendix I

Pilot student focus group-Change leader characteristics mapping





## Appendix J

### Student focus group transcript

Interview Number ...S7 Focus group..... Date.....11/01/07.....

Setting description: Classroom with seating arranged in a majilis type. Having conducted previous interviews on a one to one basis and in groups, I felt that the focus group was more likely to encourage a collective and more relaxed forum for discussion. The previous focus group in the pilot phase led me to believe that this particular approach to data gathering was more likely to engage the participant in discussion, as it allowed for a number of factors: Students who had had limited time at the college (less than 1 year) had less developed English skills, and this I observed hindered the ability to articulate meaning, however in the focus group the willingness of participants to contribute was heightened by the response of others in their focus group. I observed in this focus group that what was started as an observation of one participant allowed others to explain their experiences using different words. I felt that the focus group was instrumental in allowing a cross section of opinions and meanings allowing others to structure their thoughts and allowing time for consideration of the choice of words to communicate their meaning. On a one to one basis I felt this did not happen as readily, which I felt was due to feeling more comfortable in a group context.

**Students x 6** / Admin/ Faculty/ Sup/ Head/Dir Department... ..

**Male/Female** Nationality...Emirati .....

01 J. All right. Okay. Well, thank you for being part of this research, guys, and agreeing to be involved in this research. I know it's the end of the semester for you and you will be feeling quite tired. I'm interested to hear about the changes, the changes that have happened since you've been at the college. Tell me about what big changes have happened to you since you've been at DMC - any big changes that you feel have been important to you.

02 P1. (Participant 1) Actually, Mr. John, it's not ending, it's the starting.

03 J. Starting? Okay.

04 P1. Starting to make a goal, to make a new idea and to work in our future. This is my belief this was the starting for me, not the end.

05 J. Okay. All right. So you're saying it started. How long have you been at the college now, Dawood? Two years?

06 P1. Actually I was planning to get bachelor at this college.

45  
46 07 J. Okay. So you want to go through to get your bachelor's. So you say it's the  
47 start, you say it's the start of the changes.  
48  
49 08 P2. Yes, I agree with him, because before when we was in secondary school we  
50 was in a small world, you know what I mean, a small world. Now we know how  
51 to contact with the people,  
52  
53 09 P3. In a small place,  
54  
55 10 P2. how to contact, yes, in a small place,  
56  
57 11 P3. we can't go  
58  
59 12 P2. We don't like – like open fresh, open fresh air to work in a group, to work to  
60 going outside, arrange the meeting, arrange the – like this one. The secondary  
61 school only we are study, then we go to the home, sleep, and then coming next  
62 day, do our homework -  
63  
64 13 P4. You can say the big door opening for us to go, to start the life now.  
65  
66 14 P3. How to contact  
67  
68 15 P4. How to communication with the people.  
69  
70 16 P1. When I was in the school, when I have a project I must to do. But in the  
71 school when I no do the project, no problem. In the college when I have a project,  
72 I have to do the project. When I didn't do the project maybe I lose my mark.  
73  
74 17 P5. The project in the secondary school it's not like the college. Same to  
75 searching and copy in the Internet and give in.  
76  
77 18 P6. Print out.  
78  
79 19 P2. Only copy and paste.  
80  
81 20 P5. Only.  
82  
83 21 P6 In my mind I was nothing  
84  
85 22 J. In your mind.  
86  
87 23 P2. When I in secondary school I never management my time. Any time I come  
88 to school or like this, don't care about the –  
89  
90 24 P6 just do it  
91  
92 25 P2. When I come to the college I stopped to see the people how to manage the  
93 time, then I do the same thing - I manage my time and organise myself, and like  
94 this.

95  
96 26 P1. When I was in secondary school, so when I want to talk with a person in  
97 English so I can't, because my English is bad, but now as more difference  
98 between when I in secondary and when I college for now, and now I can talk with  
99 big, famous person who is in our country I can talk with him in English. Is it,  
100 okay, not that well but I can understand what he say and can answer what he want.  
101  
102 27 P5. This all only in the boys' secondary schools not in the girls'. In the girls' -  
103 my sister I saw him arrange his binder for English - all the structure like  
104 foundation. We went to foundation, you know?  
105  
106 28 P? Yes, yes.  
107  
108 29 P5. That day? I saw him all English class in secondary school like foundation.  
109 We are foundation – still!  
110  
111 30 P6. When we was in the secondary school, we work only alone, without the  
112 group. Now the college we work at the group, then also we go to meet somebody  
113 in the company. Before when was in the secondary school -  
114  
115 31 P3. In the college we can make a relationship.  
116  
117 32 J. Right.  
118  
119 33 P6. When we was in the secondary school, we work alone and from where?  
120 From the Internet. We get the information from the Internet. Now, no. Now we  
121 must to work. We must to go to have the answers. We must to have the rules for  
122 the companies. We have to meet the people in the companies.  
123  
124 34 J. So you're saying it's a lot different to where you were at school?  
125  
126 35 P6. Yes, very different.  
127  
128 36 P4. A lot  
129  
130 37 J. Pardon?  
131  
132 38 P4. When I was in the secondary when we make some nuisance, like break some  
133 glass, we don't care. We don't know about the meaning about the value, about the  
134 respect. How you respect -  
135  
136 39 P2. Bad programme can you see.  
137  
138 40 P4. When I came in the college I felt like I'm a big man. I respect myself. I  
139 respect my teacher. I know about the meaning of the respect.  
140  
141 41 J. All right.  
142  
143 42 P1. Because the rules in the secondary school, it's not hard like the college. It's  
144 easy, not very hard like the college.

145  
146 43 J. So you say 'the rules'. What do you mean?  
147  
148 44 P1. The rules.  
149  
150 45 J. What are the rules?  
151  
152 46 P1. Yes, time management, attendance. It's not important like in college 20%  
153 course you know the penalty, no. In the secondary school it's not important.  
154  
155 47 P2. But in the secondary school if you do the same maybe he kick you from the  
156 school, but you can go another school. That's the meaning of that.  
157  
158 48 P3. Mr. John, the worst thing is that the school is boring. That why - that the  
159 reason the students make noisy, like that. It's boring. Why? Because there are no  
160 communication, no group works, like no group work, there are not activity things  
161 to do.  
162  
163 49 J. Okay. So you're saying these have been the big changes for you since you've  
164 been at the college. Anything else? Any other things that have been big changes?  
165  
166 50 P2. In school we have met pressure. My parents told me you must go to school -  
167 you should go to school. And the teacher say you can't do this - if you don't do  
168 this, you fail. But in college I feel I'm - not free but like this, because I make my  
169 future. If I want, I can break - I can give up. If I don't want -  
170  
171 51 P3. Also in the secondary school we search only for the pass not the grade one,  
172 only for pass. What we need to do is we need to pass this exam to go to  
173  
174 52 P2. Another level.  
175  
176 53 P3. Yes, to go to another grade. And in college, no, we need to have excellent -  
177  
178 54 P5 We need the mark  
179 55 P3. We need the good grade.  
180  
181 56 P4. In school they used to warn the students that you did like that they kick you  
182 out of school. But they don't use the advices, don't use the group solution to  
183 solve the problem. They like to warn the students, that's why, because they  
184 cannot take care of the problems.  
185  
186 57 J. Lot of students. So, have these changes been difficult for you guys? Have they  
187 been hard, difficult to change?  
188  
189 58 P5. Not difficult.  
190  
191 59 P2. Little bit. When we start to come to college, maybe for one week or two  
192 week, then we have  
193  
194 60 J. What was different about it? What things were different?

195  
196 61 P2. Classes, the teachers, what to do with the teachers.  
197  
198 62 P5 The way of things  
199  
200 63 J. Everything.  
201  
202 64 P4. Because especially the English teacher. Because the school language teacher  
203 they don't like to talk English with you.  
204  
205 65 J. Oh, all right.  
206  
207 66 P5. Very bad programme to teach you. Boring.  
208  
209 67 P2 We don't care really.  
210  
211 68 P4. And he spoke with us Arabic, yes.  
212  
213 69 P1. No, my teacher is –  
214  
215 70 P3. He write the letter like this - he write the letter on the board, so -  
216  
217 71 P4. You must to copy the letter  
218  
219 72 P2 It was about copying  
220  
221 73 P1. The letter and things were copied and then the next thing is we were  
222 coming in the exam.  
223  
224 74 P4. It was nothing  
225  
226 75 J. So, who has helped you change since you've been at the college? Is there  
227 anything that's helped you to change?  
228  
229 76 P1. The teachers.  
230  
231 77 P2. The teachers and –  
232  
233 78 P4. I saw my friends who studying for two years or one year. I know about them.  
234 I know them. They're doing well here. They not joking, they don't kidding the  
235 work, they are attending on the time, so I take some advices from them that the  
236 college is different from the school.  
237  
238 79 J. So you talked to somebody else, okay.  
239  
240 80 P3 Yes, I talk with cousins and friends to have an idea  
241  
242 81 P5. And you know my brother he graduated from Desert Rose College last year.  
243  
244 82 J. Okay, so you talked to them.

245  
246 83 P1. The thing, Mr. John, when you like the subject and like to study, you can  
247 success with your life.  
248  
249 84 J. Okay. So you think the subject's important, Dawood?  
250  
251 85 P1. Yes.  
252  
253 86 J. Okay.  
254  
255 87 P5. And in Dadra you have to know English.  
256  
257 88 P1. Must be taught.  
258  
259 89 J. Yes.  
260  
261 90 P1. Very important.  
262  
263 91 J. You mentioned – somebody mentioned - one person mentioned the teacher.  
264 How important is the teacher to you?  
265  
266 92 P4. Very important. Very, very important.  
267  
268 93 P1. Because if I didn't like the teacher, maybe I can't prove myself in that teacher  
269 subject.  
270  
271 94 P6. And also if I hate English, maybe the teacher can help me to love English.  
272  
273 95 J. Okay, so that -  
274  
275 96 P6. Before I don't like the English. Now I like to talk English language.  
276  
277 97 P5. If you like the subject, you can success in it.  
278  
279 98 J. Okay.  
280  
281 99 P5. You like English or Arabic or anything you like to do, you can success for it.  
282 If you didn't like, you can't think about it.  
283  
284 100 J. So it is important to you that you do like - if you like it, you will work harder.  
285  
286 101 P1. Yes.  
287  
288 102 J. Okay. So if you like to subject and like the teacher, what's it important to  
289 have? What do you think - what's your good teacher? What's your -  
290  
291 103 P1. Is friendly, I think.  
292  
293 104 P2. Helpful.  
294



295 105 J. Helpful and friendly.  
 296  
 297 106 P5. Like you, Mr. John.  
 298  
 299 107 P4 Can care  
 300  
 301 108 J. Respect you.  
 302  
 303 109 P3. Talk to us.  
 304  
 305 110 J. Okay, solve your problems.  
 306  
 307 111 P1. Help us inside the class and outside the class.  
 308  
 309 112 J. All right.  
 310  
 311 113 P1. That's very important.  
 312  
 313 114 P5. And the most important the teacher is to know our, yahnee,  
 314  
 315 115 P3. problems  
 316  
 317 116 P5. Our personality. My personality is different than Ahmed. Ahmed is  
 318 different than Ali. He can talk with anyone.  
 319  
 320 117 J. Having contact with anybody. And have you found it difficult – you said your  
 321 teacher, but we come from different countries and we work here. Some of you  
 322 come from families that maybe that you don't speak English when you go home.  
 323 Is that difficult for you? To move from your family and then come here back to  
 324 here?  
 325  
 326 118 P3. Not very difficult, because not only we stay at home, we go to outside -  
 327 maybe the shopping malls  
 328  
 329 119 J. Yes.  
 330  
 331 120 P1. or restaurants  
 332  
 333 121 P3. yes, or restaurant.  
 334  
 335 122 P5. You have to speak English.  
 336  
 337 123 P3. We have to speak English.  
 338  
 339 124 P1. As in the club, I talk always in English because they have worker - my coach  
 340 is from Yugoslov, he talk in English. So that's good for me how to talk, and we  
 341 have foreigner player, so I talk with him in English, so that's good for us. Before  
 342 when I used the message, SMS, to send my friend in Arabic, but now I try to write  
 343 in English, always in English, in English, English. That's good for us.  
 344

345 125 P3. But sometimes the housemaid they talk English. We must talk with him  
 346 English.  
 347  
 348 126 J. Oh.  
 349  
 350 127 P6. Do you know how I did it my English from the beginning? I was searching  
 351 for websites and I found at same time I was chatting English. Also I didn't know  
 352 how to use some words I'm talking with them, just saying 'hi', like that. I took it  
 353 myself – I have told some words - I tried to use from this subject I know the  
 354 words. Like that. I was told them first the words, because I was studying English  
 355 two years, like that.  
 356  
 357 128 J. Yes. Do you see the same changes happening in college?  
 358  
 359 129 P5. I think that -  
 360  
 361 130 P3. Yes, of course.  
 362  
 363 131 P6. Yes.  
 364  
 365 132 J. Okay.  
 366  
 367 133 P4. Yes, because they giving the care for the college nowadays.  
 368  
 369 134 P1. The college, see what's happened in this emirate then they teach students  
 370 what this emirate improved. So what we need, the emirate need, they teach the  
 371 students the emirate need to be better.  
 372  
 373 135.  
 374  
 375  
 376  
 377  
 378  
 379  
 380  
 381  
 382  
 383  
 384  
 385  
 386  
 387  
 388  
 389 Reminder. Underline emphasis. Use – for short pauses and + for longer pauses ++ for  
 390 extended pauses  
 391  
 392  
 393  
 394

## Appendix K

### Field notes extract

Setting description: Stand alone office of participant signals status. People in offices wear suits, as a measure of success and symbolises the accepted and expected costume of the supervisor.

This was an opportunity to tap into the thoughts/ perceptions of somebody who could be described as introducing outside change. This participant had 'system' wide responsibilities for ensuring appropriate monitoring of courses/programmes and introducing and cultivating new initiatives. This person represented the system however had held a teaching position at the same college for 5-6 years but had latterly held the position of what could be considered a linking role across the 14 colleges nevertheless based at DRC college he continued to maintain social and working relationships with staff at the college. The selection of this person in my sample served a number of purposes. Firstly I needed to get an understanding of what it was to be the outsider whose role was that of introducing change. The other reason for including this person in the sample was he had been part of the old college and was viewed as somebody who 'was one of us' but had decided to accept different responsibilities and subsequent status, which necessitated a move from 'within' DRC to 'outside' and a 'system role'













